Foundations of European Civilization 800-1500

HDS103

University of Ibadan Distance Learning Centre
Open and Distance Learning Course Series Development

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General Editor: Prof. Bayo Okunade

Vice-Chancellor's Message

The Distance Learning Centre is building on a solid tradition of over two decades of service in the provision of External Studies Programme and now Distance Learning Education in Nigeria and beyond. The Distance Learning mode to which we are committed is providing access to many deserving Nigerians in having access to higher education especially those who by the nature of their engagement do not have the luxury of full time education. Recently, it is contributing in no small measure to providing places for teeming Nigerian youths who for one reason or the other could not get admission into the conventional universities.

These course materials have been written by writers specially trained in ODL course delivery. The writers have made great efforts to provide up to date information, knowledge and skills in the different disciplines and ensure that the materials are user-friendly.

In addition to provision of course materials in print and e-format, a lot of Information Technology input has also gone into the deployment of course materials. Most of them can be downloaded from the DLC website and are available in audio format which you can also download into your mobile phones, IPod, MP3 among other devices to allow you listen to the audio study sessions. Some of the study session materials have been scripted and are being broadcast on the university's Diamond Radio FM 101.1, while others have been delivered and captured in audio-visual format in a classroom environment for use by our students. Detailed information on availability and access is available on the website. We will continue in our efforts to provide and review course materials for our courses.

However, for you to take advantage of these formats, you will need to improve on your I.T. skills and develop requisite distance learning Culture. It is well known that, for efficient and effective provision of Distance learning education, availability of appropriate and relevant course materials is a *sine qua non*. So also, is the availability of multiple plat form for the convenience of our students. It is in fulfilment of this, that series of course materials are being written to enable our students study at their own pace and convenience.

It is our hope that you will put these course materials to the best use.

Prof. Abel Idowu Olayinka
Vice-Chancellor

Foreword

As part of its vision of providing   education for "Liberty and Development" for Nigerians and the International Community, the University of Ibadan, Distance Learning Centre has recently embarked on a vigorous repositioning agenda which aimed at embracing a holistic and all encompassing approach to the delivery of its Open Distance Learning (ODL) programmes. Thus we are committed to global best practices in distance learning provision. Apart from providing an efficient administrative and academic support for our students, we are committed to providing educational re materials for the use of our students. We are convinced that, without an up-to-date, learner-friendly and distance learning compliant course materials, there cannot be any basis to lay claim to being a provider of distance learning education. Indeed, availability of appropriate course materials in multiple formats is the hub of any distance learning provision worldwide.

In view of the above, we are vigorously pursuing as a matter of priority, the provision of credible, learner-friendly and interactive course materials for all our courses. We commissioned the authoring of, and review of course materials to teams of experts and their outputs were subjected to rigorous peer review to ensure standard. The approach not only emphasizes cognitive knowledge, but also skills and humane values which are at the core of education, even in an ICT age.

The development of the materials which is on-going also had input from experienced editors and illustrators who have ensured that they are accurate, current and learner-friendly. They are specially written with distance learners in mind. This is very important because, distance learning involves non-residential students who can often feel isolated from the community of learners.

It is important to note that, for a distance learner to excel there is the need to and read relevant materials apart from this course material. Therefore, adequate supplementary reading materials as well as other information s are suggested in the course materials.

Apart from the responsibility for you to read this course material with others, you are also advised to seek assistance from your course facilitators especially academic advisors during your study even before the interactive session which is by design for revision. Your academic advisors will assist you using convenient technology including Google Hang Out, You Tube, Talk Fusion, etc. but you have to take advantage of these. It is also going to be of immense advantage if you complete assignments as at when due so as to have necessary feedbacks as a guide.
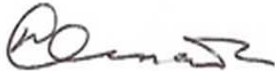
The implication of the above is that, a distance learner has a responsibility to develop requisite distance learning culture which includes diligent and disciplined self-study, seeking available administrative and academic support and acquisition of basic

information technology skills. This is why you are encouraged to develop your computer skills by availing yourself the opportunity of training that the Centre's provide and put these into use.

In conclusion, it is envisaged that the course materials would also be useful for the regular students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria who are faced with a dearth of high quality textbooks. We are therefore, delighted to present these titles to both our distance learning students and the university's regular students. We are confident that the materials will be an invaluable re to all.

We would like to thank all our authors, reviewers and production staff for the high quality of work.

Best wishes.

Professor Bayo Okunade
Director

Course Introduction

I welcome you to this course titled 'Foundations of European Civilizations'. As the title indicates, the course traces the history of Europe and describes the human events that had taken place on the continent of Europe from 800 to 1500. From the beginning of the Middle Ages to modern times Europe has had a turbulent, cultured, and much documented history. At the end of the Roman Empire the East, Northern and Western Europe went through a post-Roman period commonly known as the Dark Ages, characterized by decline in learning, in the organization of society, and by the predations of various invaders, particularly the Vikings, Avars, Magyars and Arabs. The Dark Ages were immediately followed by the Middle Ages characterized by the re-establishment of organized society, chiefly on feudal lines, and the domination in the West of the Roman Catholic Church. In the East, Muslim incursions triggered the Crusades, and eventually led to the collapse of the Byzantine Empire. The Middle Ages were followed by the Renaissance, a rediscovery of classical learning and values, which overlapped with the Reformation, a religious and political movement which saw much of Northern Europe break decisively with the Roman Catholic Church, redefining culture and alliances across the continent. This period overlapped with the Age of Discovery characterized by the growth of Colonial Expansion, strengthening the Atlantic states of Britain, France, Portugal and Spain, and extending European influence into the Americas, Africa, India and the Far East. The above summary shows that we are going to be studying a very interesting course. I will take you through the course in fifteen lectures.

Objectives

The main objective of this course is to let you know when and how Europe which we all know today as the most developed continent in the world evolved. As a background course, this course is going to prepare your mind as students of history and diplomacy. Europe happens to be a strategic continent in the development of international diplomacy. From 1500 to the present period, the continent has continued to play a major role in international relations and diplomacy. This course will therefore help you to know how their society and culture helped to prepare them for this great task.

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Study Session 1: Charlemagne and the Rise of Carolingian Empire

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the gradual decline of the Roman Empire and the beginning of an era of European history called the Middle Ages, or the medieval period. It spanned the years from about 500 to 1500. During these centuries, a new society slowly emerged. It had roots in: (1) the classical heritage of Rome, (2) the beliefs of the Roman Catholic Church, and (3) the customs of various Germanic tribes.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 1

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

1.1 Describe the effects of the invasion of Europe by Germanic invaders

1.2 Describe the emergence of Germanic kingdoms and its impact on the people

1.3 Describe the evolution of the Frankish empire and the role of Charlemagne

1.4 Explain the reasons for the disintegration of the Frankish Empire

1.1 Invasions of Western Europe

In the fifth century, Germanic invaders overran the western half of the Roman Empire. Repeated invasions and constant warfare caused a series of changes that altered the economy, government, and culture: To start with, there was **disruption of trade.** Merchants faced invasions from both land and sea. Their businesses collapsed.

The breakdown of trade destroyed Europe's cities as economic centers. Money became scarce. Secondly, there was **downfall of cities.** With the fall of the Roman Empire, cities were abandoned as centers of administration. Thirdly, there was **population shifts.**

As Roman centers of trade and government collapsed, nobles retreated to the rural areas. Roman cities were left without strong leadership. Other city dwellers also fled to the countryside, where they grew their own food. The population of Western Europe became mostly rural.

Figure 1.1 Brief points on invasions of Western Europe

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1.1.1 The Decline of Learning

The Germanic invaders who stormed Rome could not read or write. Among Romans themselves, the level of learning sank sharply as more and more families left for rural areas. Few people except priests and other church officials were literate.

Knowledge of Greek, long important in Roman culture, was almost lost. Few people could read Greek works of literature, science, and philosophy. The Germanic tribes, though, had a rich oral tradition of songs and legends. But they had no written language.

1.1.2 Loss of a Common Language

As German-speaking peoples mixed with the Roman population, Latin changed. While it was still an official language, it was no longer understood. Different dialects developed as new words and phrases became part of everyday speech. By the 800s, French, Spanish, and other Roman-based languages had evolved from Latin. The development of various languages mirrored the continued breakup of a once-unified empire.

In-Text Question

In the fifth century, Germanic invaders overran the western half of the Roman Empire. True or False.

In-Text Answer

True.

1.2 Germanic Kingdoms Emerged

In the years of upheaval between 400 and 600, small Germanic kingdoms replaced Roman provinces. The borders of those kingdoms changed constantly with the fortunes of war. But the Church as an institution survived the fall of the Roman Empire. During this time of political chaos, the Church provided order and security.
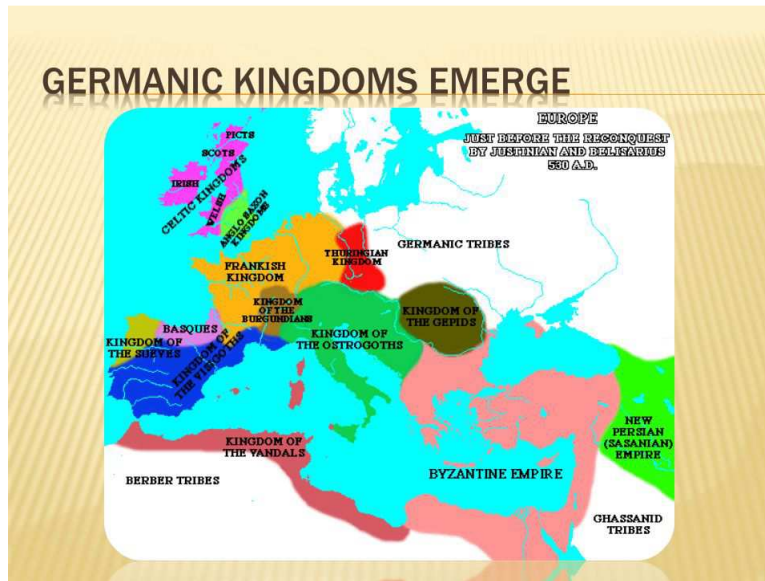
Figure 1.2 Germanic Kingdom

1.2.1 The Concept of Government Changed

Along with shifting boundaries, the entire concept of government changed. Loyalty to public government and written law had unified Roman society. Family ties and personal loyalty, rather than citizenship in a public state, held Germanic society together. Unlike Romans, Germanic peoples lived in small communities that were governed by unwritten rules and traditions. Every Germanic chief led a band of warriors who had pledged their loyalty to him.

In peacetime, these followers lived in their lord's hall. He gave them food, weapons, and treasure. In battle, warriors fought to the death at their lord's side.They considered it a disgrace to outlive him. But Germanic warriors felt no obligation to obey a king they did not even know. Nor would they obey an official sent to collect taxes or administer justice in the name of an emperor they had never met.

The Germanic stress on personal ties made it impossible to establish orderly government for large territories.

1.2.2 Clovis Ruled the Franks

In the Roman province of Gaul (mainly what is now France and Switzerland), a Germanic people called the **Franks** held power. Their leader was Clovis. He would bring Christianity to the region. According to legend, his wife, Clothilde, had urged him to convert to her faith, Christianity.

In 496, Clovis led his warriors against another Germanic army. Fearing defeat, he appealed to the Christian God. "For I have called on my gods," he prayed, "but I find they are far from my aid. . . . Now I call on Thee. I long to believe in Thee. Only, please deliver me from my enemies." The tide of the battle shifted and the Franks won.

Afterward, Clovis and 3,000 of his warriors asked a bishop to baptize them.The Church in Rome welcomed Clovis's conversion and supported his military campaigns against other Germanic peoples. By 511, Clovis had united the Franks into one kingdom. The strategic alliance between Clovis's Frankish kingdom and the Church marked the start of a partnership between two powerful forces.

1.2.3 Germans Adopted Christianity

Politics played a key role in spreading Christianity. By 600, the Church, with the help of Frankish rulers, had converted many Germanic peoples. These new converts had settled in Rome's former lands. Missionaries also spread Christianity. These religious travelers often risked their lives to bring religious beliefs to other lands.

During the 300s and 400s, they worked among the Germanic and Celtic groups that bordered the Roman Empire. In southern Europe, the fear of coastal attacks by Muslims also spurred many people to become Christians in the 600s.

1.2.4 Monasteries, Convents, and Manuscripts

To adapt to rural conditions, the Church built religious communities called **monasteries**. There, Christian men called monks gave up their private possessions and devoted their lives to serving God. Women who followed this way of life were called nuns and lived in convents. Around 520, an Italian monk named Benedict began writing a book describing a strict yet practical set of rules for monasteries.

Benedict's sister, Scholastica, headed a convent and adapted the same rules for women. These guidelines became a model for many other religious communities in Western Europe. Monks and nuns devoted their lives to prayer and good works.

Monasteries also became Europe's best-educated communities. Monks opened schools, maintained libraries, and copied books. In 731, the Venerable Bede, an English monk, wrote a history of England. Scholars still consider it the best historical work of the early Middle Ages.

In the 600s and 700s, monks made beautiful copies of religious writings, decorated with ornate letters and brilliant pictures. These illuminated manuscripts preserved at least part of Rome's intellectual heritage.

1.2.5 Papal Power Expanded Under Gregory I

In 590, Gregory I, also called Gregory the Great, became pope. As head of the Church in Rome, Gregory broadened the authority of the papacy, or pope's office, beyond its spiritual role. Under Gregory, the papacy also became a **secular**, or worldly, power involved in politics.

The pope's palace was the center of Roman government. Gregory used church revenuesto raise armies, repair roads, and help the poor. He also negotiated peace treaties with invaders such as the Lombards.

According to Gregory, the region from Italy to England and from Spain to Germany fell under his responsibility. Gregory strengthened the vision of Christendom. It was a spiritual kingdom fanning out from Rome to the most distant churches. This idea of a churchly kingdom, ruled by a pope, would be a central theme of the middle Ages. Meanwhile, secular rulers expanded their political kingdoms.

1.3 The Evolution of the Frankish Empire

After the Roman Empire dissolved, small kingdoms sprang up all over Europe. For example, England splintered into seven tiny kingdoms. The Franks controlled the largest and strongest of Europe's kingdoms, the area that was formerly the Roman province of Gaul. When the Franks' first Christian king, Clovis, died in 511, he had extended Frankish rule over most of what is now France.

Figure 1.3 Frankish Empire

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1.3.1 Charles Martel Emerged

By 700, an official known as the *major domo,* or mayor of the palace, had become the most powerful person in the Frankish kingdom. Officially, he had charge of the royal household and estates. Unofficially, he led armies and made policy. In effect, he ruled the kingdom.

The mayor of the palace in 719, Charles Martel (Charles the Hammer), held more power than the king. Charles Martel extended the Franks' reign to the north, south, and east. He also defeated Muslim raiders from Spain at the Battleof Tours in 732. This battle was highly significant for Christian Europeans. If the Muslims had won, Western Europe might have become part of the Muslim Empire.

Charles Martel's victory at Tours made him a Christian hero. At his death, Charles Martel passed on his power to his son, Pepin the Short. Pepinwanted to be king. He shrewdly cooperated with the pope. On behalf of the Church, Pepin agreed to fight the Lombards, who had invaded central Italy and threatened Rome.

In exchange, the pope anointed Pepin "king by the grace of God." Thus began the **Carolingian Dynasty**, the family that would rule the Franks from 751 to 987.

1.3.2 Emperor Charlemagne Emerged

Pepin the Short died in 768. He left a greatly strengthened Frankish kingdom to his two sons, Carloman and Charles. After Carloman's death in 771, Charles, who was known as **Charlemagne** or Charles the Great, ruled the kingdom. An imposing figure, he stood six feet four inches tall.

His admiring secretary, a monk named Einhard, described Charlemagne's achievements: "[Charlemagne] was the most potent prince with the greatest skill and success in different countries during the forty-seven years of his reign. Great and powerful as was the realm of Franks, Karl [Charlemagne] received from his father Pippin, he nevertheless so splendidly enlarged it . . . that he almost doubled it.

1.3.3 Charlemagne Extended Frankish Rule.

Charlemagne built an empire greater than any known since ancient Rome. Each summer he led his armies against enemies that surrounded his kingdom. He fought Muslims in Spain and tribes from other Germanic kingdoms. He conquered new lands to both the south and the east.

Through these conquests, Charlemagne spread Christianity. He reunited Western Europe for the first time since the Roman Empire. By 800, Charlemagne's empire was larger than the Byzantine Empire. He had become the most powerful king in Western Europe.

1.3.4 Charlemagne Crowned as Emperor

The most celebrated event of Charles' reign was his being crowned Roman emperor by the pope on Christmas day, 800 AD. In 800, Charlemagne traveled to Rome to crush an unruly mob that had attacked the pope. In gratitude, Pope Leo III crowned him emperor. The coronation was historic.

A pope had claimed the political right to confer the title "Roman Emperor" on a European king. This event signaled the joining of Germanic power, the Church, and the heritage of the Roman Empire. There has been endless debate about the motives of Charles and the pope and just exactly what this revived title meant three centuries after the end of the Roman Empire in the West.

The revival of such a title does show how much of a grip the memory of the golden age of Rome had on the medieval imagination. The real importance of this revived title would fade somewhat after Charlemagne's death and not regain its luster until 961 when the ruler of Germany, Otto I, was crowned emperor by the pope. For some 850 years, Germany will be known as the Empire, or the Holy Roman Empire.

Despite the glory it invoked, this title would ultimately be a of tremendous problems for Germany. In later years, it was said that it was neither holy, nor Roman, nor empire, but we can see that it represented a powerful idea.

Succeeding generations would look upon Charlemagne's reign as a golden age. It did encompass most of Western Europe in a larger and relatively peaceful empire. It did try to revive the grandeur of Rome's empire and culture. And a powerful energetic king did rule over it.

Although his empire collapsed soon after his death, Charles' reign did have lasting and profound effects. Frankish political institutions, in particular feudalism and military tactics (the mounted knight) would dominate Western Europe for centuries. In fact, the predominance of Frankish culture and customs was so overwhelming in Western Europe that the Byzantines and Muslims typically referred to anyone from Western Europe as a Frank.

Possibly the most significant sign that Charlemagne's reign was a turning point in history was the fact that for the first time scholars referred to a unified culture and realm known as Europe. After Charlemagne, Western European culture would no longer be a cheap imitation of Roman culture. Rather, from now on, it would define its own institutions and culture in its own terms. Western Civilization was being born.

1.3.5 Charlemagne Led a Revival.

Charlemagne strengthened his royal power by limiting the authority of the nobles. To govern his empire, he sent out royal agents. They made sure that the powerful landholders, called counts, governed their counties justly. Charlemagne regularly visited every part of his kingdom. He also kept a close watch on the management of his huge estates—the of Carolingian wealth and power.

One of his greatest accomplishments was the encouragement of learning. He surrounded himself with English, German, Italian, and Spanish scholars. For his many sons and daughters and other children at the court, Charlemagne opened a palace school. He also ordered monasteries to open schools to train future monks and priests.

1.3.6 Charlemagne's Heirs

A year before Charlemagne died in 814; he crowned his only surviving son, Louis the Pious, as emperor. Louis was a devoutly religious man but an ineffective ruler. He left three sons: Lothair, Charles the Bald, and Louis the German. They fought one another for control of the Empire. In 843, the brothers signed the Treaty of Verdun, dividing the empire into three kingdoms.

As a result, Carolingian kings lost power and central authority broke down. The lack of strong rulers led to a new system of governing and landholding—feudalism.

In-text Question

The most celebrated event of Charles' reign was his being crowned Roman emperor by the pope on Christmas day, 800 AD. True or false

In-text Answer

True

1.4 The disintegration of the Carolingian order (8l4-c.1000)

Charlemagne's' death seemed to be the signal for everything to go wrong at once. Indeed, a number of factors did combine to send Western Europe into some of its darkest centuries ever. First of all, the money coming from the Arab Muslims that helped make possible the palace and cathedral that Charles had built in his capital at Aachen dried up as the caliphs in Baghdad lavishly spent themselves into bankruptcy.

This led to a decline of trade that caused a reversion to a land-based economy and a weaker government. This in turn hurt the Vikings in the north and Arabs in the south who had relied on Arab silver and trade. As a result, they turned to raiding and piracy, which further weakened the Frankish economy and state, causing more raids, and so on.

Along these same lines, the growing dependence on mounted knights for defense also meant a growing dependence on nobles to provide those knights. Since there was no money to pay these nobles, the king had to give them land. As we have seen, land regenerated wealth in the form of crops and made the nobles independent of the king's authority and therefore more rebellious. These rebellions also invited invasions, which encouraged more revolts, etc.

Finally, there were problems within the ruling family. Charlemagne's successor, Louis the Pious, was a weak king who let matters get out of control. He also followed the old Germanic custom of dividing the state among his three sons as if it were personal property rather than a responsibility. This division led to civil wars that ended with splitting the Frankish realm into three states: West Frankland (modern France), East Frankland (modern Germany), and Lotharingia, (modern Lorraine) in the middle. Because of its position between France and Germany, Lorraine remained a of conflict between its neighbors into the twentieth century.

Civil wars also forced the kings to give away more and more royal lands for military support. Soon those lands were parts of virtually independent states. And, as with the independent nobles and weakened economy, turmoil at court also invited invasions.

These invasions came from three directions. From the south came the Muslims who devastated parts of Italy and southern France with their raids. From the east came the Magyars, nomadic horsemen related to the Huns. Eventually they would be defeated and would settle down to found the kingdom of Hungary.

Worst of all, from the north came the Vikings whose raids and invasions tore a good part of the Frankish state to pieces and nearly overwhelmed England. In 9ll C.E., the Viking chief Rollo gained recognition from the French king to rule what came to be called Normandy in return for military service to the crown. Of course, the Vikings, or Normans, were their own men and lived under the king's rule in name only.

By 1000 C.E., France was a hopeless patchwork of some 55 virtually independent principalities. The king was the nominal ruler of all this, but in reality just the head of one of these many states. As a result, a new political order would emerge: Feudalism.

Figure 1.4: Carolingian order

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Summary of Study Session 1

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. Germanic invaders invaded Europe after the fall of the Roman Empire
2. Many Germanic kingdoms emerge and had impacts on the people
3. These Germanic kingdoms that succeeded the Roman Empire were reunited under Charlemagne's Frankish empire.
4. Charlemagne spread Christian civilization through Northern Europe, where it had a permanent impact.
5. The Frankish Empire began to disintegrate after the death of Charlemagne in 814

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 1

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 1.1 (tests learning outcome 1.1)

What are three ways that civilization in Western Europe declined after the Roman Empire fell?

SAQ 1.2 (tests learning outcome 1.2)

What role did monasteries play during this time of chaos?

SAQ 1.3 (tests learning outcome 1.3)

What was Charlemagne's greatest achievement? Give reasons for your answer.

SAQ 1.4 (tests learning outcome 1.4)

For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

• Middle Ages • Franks • monastery • secular • Carolingian Dynasty • Charlemagne

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 1

SAQ 1.1:

1. There were repeated invasions and constant warfare which caused a series of changes that altered the economy, government, and culture.

2. There was a serious decline of learning because the Germanic invaders who stormed Rome could not read or write.

3. There was a loss of a common language as German-speaking peoples mixed with the Roman population, thus leading the change of Latin.

SAQ 1.2: They helped to preserve at least part of Rome's intellectual heritage by making beautiful copies of religious writings in illuminated manuscripts, decorated with ornate letters and brilliant pictures.

SAQ 1.3: One of his greatest accomplishments was the encouragement of learning. He surrounded himself with English, German, Italian, and Spanish scholars. For his many sons and daughters and other children at the court, Charlemagne opened a Palace school. He also ordered monasteries to open schools to train future monks and priests.

SAQ 1.4:

- **Middle Ages** is an era of European history also called the medieval period. It was ushered in by the gradual decline of the Roman Empire. It spanned the years from about 500 to 1500.

- **The Franks** were a Germanic people that lived in the Roman province of Gaul (mainly what is now France and Switzerland).

- **Monastery** is a religious community built by the Church where Christian men called monks gave up their private possessions and devoted their lives to serving God.

- **Secular** is anything that is not spiritual but rather worldly and involved in politics.

- **Carolingian Dynasty** was the family that would rule the Franks from 751 to 987.

- **Charlemagne** or Charles the Great ruled the Frankish kingdom between 771 and 814.

Study Session 2: The Rise of Medieval Papacy

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the growing power and authority of the Church after the fall of the Roman Empire. Amid the weak central governments in feudal Europe, the Church emerged as a powerful institution. It shaped the lives of people from all social classes.

As the Church expanded its political role, strong rulers began to question the pope's authority. Dramatic power struggles unfolded in the Holy Roman Empire, the scene of mounting tensions between popes and emperors.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 2

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

2.1 Define and use correctly all the key words in bold

2.2 Describe the structure of the Church in Medieval Europe

2.3 State the reasons why lay investiture caused a struggle between kings and popes

2.1 The Far-Reaching Authority of the Church

In crowning Charlemagne as the Roman Emperor in 800, the Church sought to influence both spiritual and political matters. Three hundred years earlier, Pope Gelasius I recognized the conflicts that could arise between the two great forces—the Church and the state. He wrote, "There are two powers by which this world is chiefly ruled: the sacred authority of the priesthood and the authority of kings."

Gelasius suggested an analogy to solve such conflicts. God had created two symbolic swords. One sword was religious. The other was political. The pope held a spiritual sword. The emperor wielded a political one. Gelasius thought that the pope should bow to the emperor in political matters. In turn, the emperor should bow to the pope in religious matters.

If each ruler kept the authority in his own realm, Gelasius suggested, the two leaders could share power in harmony. In reality, though, they disagreed on the boundaries of either realm. Throughout the Middle Ages, the Church and various European rulers competed for power.

Figure 2.1:Pope Gelasius I

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2.1.1 The Structure of the Church

Like the system of feudalism, the Church had its own organization. Power was based on status. Church structure consisted of different ranks of clergy, or religious officials. The pope in Rome headed the church. All clergy, including bishops and priests, fell under his authority.

Bishops supervised priests, the lowest ranking members of the clergy. Bishops also settled disputes over Church teachings and practices. For most people, local priests served as the main contact with the Church.

In-text Question

There are two powers by which this world is chiefly ruled: the sacred authority of the priesthood and the authority of kings. True of false

In-text Answer

True

2.1.2 Religion as a Unifying Force

Feudalism and the manor system created divisions among people. But the shared beliefs in the teachings of the Church bonded people together. The church was a stable force during an era of constant warfare and political turmoil. It provided Christians with a sense of security and of belonging to a religious community. In the middle Ages, religion occupied center stage.

Medieval Christians' everyday lives were harsh. Still, they could all follow the same path to salvation—everlasting life in heaven. Priests and other clergy administered the sacraments, or important religious ceremonies. These rites paved the way for achieving salvation. For example, through the sacrament of baptism, people became part of the Christian community.

At the local level, the village church was a unifying force in the lives of most people. It served as a religious and social center. People worshiped together at the church. They also met with other villagers. Religious holidays, especially Christmas and Easter, were occasions for festive celebrations.

2.1.3 The Law of the Church

The Church's authority was both religious and political. It provided a unifying set of spiritual beliefs and rituals. The Church also created a system of justice to guide people's conduct. All medieval Christians, kings and peasants alike, were subject to canon law, or Church law, in matters such as marriage and religious practices. The Church also established courts to try people accused of violating canon law.

Two of the harshest punishments that offenders faced were excommunication and interdict. Popes used the threat of excommunication, or banishment from the Church, to wield power over political rulers. For example, a disobedient king's quarrel with a pope might result in excommunication. This meant the king would be denied salvation. Excommunication also freed all the king's vassals from their duties to him.

If an excommunicated king continued to disobey the pope, the pope, in turn, could use an even more frightening weapon, the interdict. Under an interdict, many sacraments and religious services could not be performed in the king's lands. As Christians, the king's subjects believed that without such sacraments they might be doomed to hell.

In the 11th century, excommunication and the possible threat of an interdict would force a German emperor to submit to the pope's commands.

2.2 The Church and the Holy Roman Empire

When Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne emperor in 800, he unknowingly set the stage for future conflicts between popes and emperors. These clashes would go on for centuries.

Figure 2.2: Pope Leo III

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2.2.1 Otto I Allies with the Church

The most effective ruler of medieval Germany was Otto I, known as Otto the Great. Otto, crowned king in 936, followed the policies of his hero, Charlemagne. Otto formed a close alliance with the Church. To limit the nobles' strength, he sought help from the clergy. He built up his power base by gaining the support of the bishops and abbots, the heads of monasteries. He dominated the Church in Germany. He also used his power to defeat German princes. Following in Charlemagne's footsteps, Otto also invaded Italy on the pope's behalf. In 962, the pope rewarded Otto by crowning him emperor.

2.2.2 Signs of Future Conflicts

The German-Italian Empire Otto created was first called the Roman Empire of the German Nation. It later became the Holy Roman Empire. It remained the strongest state in Europe until about 1100. However, Otto's attempt to revive Charlemagne's empire caused trouble for future German leaders. Popes and Italian nobles, too, resented German power over Italy.

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In-text Question

_____was crowned Charlemagne emperor in 800.

a. Pope Gelasius

b. Pope Leo III

c. Pope Gregory VII

d. None of the above.

In-text Answer

b

2.3 The Emperor Clashed with the Pope

The Church was not happy that kings, such as Otto, had control over clergy and their offices. It especially resented the practice of lay investiture, a ceremony in which kings and nobles appointed church officials. Whoever controlled lay investiture held the real power in naming bishops, who were very influential clergy that kings sought to control. Church reformers felt that kings should not have that power.

In 1075, Pope Gregory VII banned lay investiture. The furious young German emperor, Henry IV, immediately called a meeting of the German bishops he had appointed. With their approval, the emperor ordered Gregory to step down from the papacy. Gregory then excommunicated Henry. Afterward, German bishops and princes sided with the pope. To save his throne, Henry tried to win the pope's forgiveness.

Figure 2.3: Pope Gregory VII

2.3.1 Showdown at Canossa

In January 1077, Henry crossed the snowy Alps to the Italian town of Canossa. He approached the castle where Gregory was a guest. Gregory later described the scene: The Pope was obligated to forgive any sinner who begged so humbly. Still, Gregory kept Henry waiting in the snow for three days before ending his excommunication.

Their meeting actually solved nothing. The pope had humiliated Henry, the proudest ruler in Europe. Yet, Henry felt triumphant and rushed home to punish rebellious nobles.

2.3.2 Concordat of Worms

The successors of Gregory and Henry continued to fight over lay investiture until 1122. That year, representatives of the Church and the emperor met in the German city of Worms. They reached a compromise known as the Concordat of Worms

By its terms, the Church alone could appoint a bishop, but the emperor could veto the appointment. During Henry's struggle, German princes regained power lost under Otto. But a later king, Frederick I, would resume the battle to build royal authority.

Summary of Study Session 2

In this study session, you have learnt the following:
1. Church structure consisted of different ranks of clergy.
2. Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne emperor in 800
3. Church leaders and political leaders competed for power and authority.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 2

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 2.1 (tests learning outcome 2.1)

What were some of the matters covered by canon law?

SAQ 2.2 (tests learning outcome 2.2)

Why did lay investiture cause a struggle between kings and popes?

SAQ 2.3 (tests learning outcome 2.3)

How was the structure of the Church like that of the feudal system?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 2

SAQ 2.1: All medieval Christians, kings and peasants alike, were subject to canon law, in matters such as marriage and religious practices.

SAQ 2.2: Whoever controlled lay investiture held the real power in naming bishops, who were very influential clergy that kings sought to control.

SAQ 2.3: Power was based on status. Church structure consisted of different ranks of clergy, or religious officials. The pope in Rome headed the church. All clergy, including bishops and priests, fell under his authority. Bishops supervised priests, the lowest ranking members of the clergy

Study Session 3: Feudalism in Europe

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Introduction

In this study session you will learn the meaning of feudalism and how it evolved in Europe. You are also going to understand the characteristics of feudalism. After the Treaty of Verdun, Charlemagne's three feuding grandsons broke up the kingdom even further. Part of this territory also became a battleground as new waves of invaders attacked Europe.

The political turmoil and constant warfare led to the rise of European feudalism which is a political and economic system based on land ownership and personal loyalty.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 3

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

3.1 Describe the invasion of Western Europe by the Vikings, Magyars and Muslims

3.2 Describe the structure of feudalism

3.3 Explain the economic importance of feudalism and the Manor

3.1 Invaders Attack Western Europe

From about 800 to 1000, invasions destroyed the Carolingian Empire. Muslim invaders from the south seized Sicily and raided Italy. In 846, they sacked Rome. Magyar invaders struck from the east. Like the earlier Huns and Avars, they terrorized Germany and Italy. And from the north came the fearsome Vikings.

In-text Question

From about 800 to _____ invasions destroyed the Carolingian Empire.

    a. 900

    b. 1000

    c. 1100

    d. 1200

    In-text Answer

    b

3.1.1 The Vikings Invade from the North

The Vikings set sail from Scandinavia, a wintry, wooded region in Northern Europe. (The region is now the countries of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.) The Vikings, also called North men or Norsemen, were a Germanic people. They worshiped warlike gods and took pride in nicknames like Eric Blood axe and Thorfinn Skull splitter. The Vikings carried out their raids with terrifying speed.

Clutching swords and heavy wooden shields, these helmeted seafarers beached their ships, struck quickly, and then moved out to sea again. They were gone before locals could mount a defense. Viking warships were awe-inspiring. The largest of these long ships held 300 warriors, who took turns rowing the ship's 72 oars. The prow of each ship swept grandly upward, often ending with the carved head of a sea monster.

A ship might weigh 20 tons when fully loaded. Yet, it could sail in a mere three feet of water. Rowing up shallow creeks, the Vikings looted inland villages and monasteries. The Vikings were not only warriors but also traders, farmers, and explorers. They ventured far beyond Western Europe. Vikings journeyed down rivers into the heart of Russia, to Constantinople, and even across the icy waters of the North Atlantic.

A Viking explorer named Leif Ericson reached North America around 1000, almost 500 years before Columbus. About the same time, the Viking reign of terror in Europe faded away. As Vikings gradually accepted Christianity, they stopped raiding monasteries. Also, a warming trend in Europe's climate made farming easier in Scandinavia. As a result, fewer Scandinavians adopted the seafaring life of Viking warriors.

In-text Question

The Vikings, also called North men or Norsemen, were a Germanic people. They worshiped warlike gods.

In-text Answer

True

3.1.2 Magyars and Muslims Attack from the East and South

As Viking invasions declined, Europe became the target of new assaults. The Magyars, a group of nomadic people, attacked from the east, from what is now Hungary. Superb horsemen, the Magyars swept across the plains of the Danube River and invaded Western Europe in the late 800s. They attacked isolated villages and monasteries. They overran northern Italy and reached as far west as the Rhineland and Burgundy.

The Magyars did not settle conquered land. Instead, they took captives to sell as slaves. The Muslims struck from the south. They began their encroachments from their strongholds in North Africa, invading through what are now Italy and Spain. In the 600s and 700s, the Muslim plan was to conquer and settle in Europe.

By the 800s and 900s, their goal was also to plunder. Because the Muslims were expert seafarers, they were able to attack settlements on the Atlantic and Mediterranean coasts. They also struck as far inland as Switzerland. The invasions by Vikings, Magyars, and Muslims caused widespread disorder and suffering. Most western Europeans lived in constant danger. Kings could not effectively defend their lands from invasion.

As a result, people no longer looked to a central ruler for security. Instead, many turned to local rulers who had their own armies. Any leader who could fight the invaders gained followers and political strength.

3.2 A New Social Order: Feudalism

In 911, two former enemies faced each other in a peace ceremony. Rollo was the head of a Viking army. Rollo and his men had been plundering the rich Seine River valley for years. Charles the Simple was the king of France but held little power. Charles granted the Viking leader a huge piece of French territory.

It became known as North men's land, or Normandy. In return, Rollo swore a pledge of loyalty to the king. This was how the system of landholding called feudalism started.

Battle between Vikings and 'Skraelings', 11th century

Figure 3.1: The Vikings

3.2.1 Feudalism Structured European Society

The worst years of the invaders' attacks spanned roughly 850 to 950. During this time, rulers and warriors like Charles and Rollo made similar agreements in many parts of Europe. The system of governing and landholding, called feudalism, had emerged in Europe.

A similar feudal system existed in China under the Zhou Dynasty, which ruled from around the 11th century B.C. until 256 B.C. Feudalism in Japan began in A.D. 1192 and ended in the 19th century. The feudal system was based on rights and obligations. In exchange for military protection and other services, a **lord**, or landowner, granted land called a fief.

The person receiving a **fief** was called a **vassal**. Charles the Simple, the lord, and Rollo, the vassal, showed how this two-sided bargain worked. Feudalism depended on the control of land.

25

3.2.2 The Feudal Pyramid

The structure of feudal society was much like a pyramid. At the peak reigned the king. Next came the most powerful vassals—wealthy landowners such as nobles and bishops. Serving beneath these vassals were knights. **Knights** were mounted horsemen who pledged to defend their lords' lands in exchange for fiefs. At the base of the pyramid were landless peasants who toiled in the fields.

3.2.3 Social Classes

In the feudal system, status determined a person's prestige and power. Medieval writers classified people into three groups: those who fought (nobles and knights), those who prayed (men and women of the Church), and those who worked (the peasants). Social class was usually inherited.

In Europe in the Middle Ages, the vast majority of people were peasants. Most peasants were serfs. **Serfs** were people who could not lawfully leave the place where they were born. Though bound to the land, serfs were not slaves. Their lords could not sell or buy them. But what their labor produced belonged to the lord.

3.3 Manors: The Economic Side of Feudalism

The **manor** was the lord's estate. During the middle Ages, the manor system was the basic economic arrangement. The manor system rested on a set of rights and obligations between a lord and his serfs. The lord provided the serfs with housing, farmland, and protection from bandits. In return, serfs tended the lord's lands, cared for his animals, and performed other tasks to maintain the estate.

Peasant women shared in the farm work with their husbands. All peasants whether free or serf, owed the lord certain duties. These included at least a few days of labor each week and a certain portion of their grain.

Figure 3.2 Manor houses in medieval times

3.3.1 A Self-Contained World

Peasants rarely traveled more than 25 miles from their own manor. By standing in the center of a plowed field, they could see their entire world at a glance. A manor usually covered only a few square miles of land. It typically consisted of the lord's manor house, a church, and workshops. Generally, 15 to 30 families lived in the village on a manor. Fields pastures and woodlands surrounded the village.

Sometimes a stream wound through the manor. Streams and ponds provided fish, which served as an important of food. The mill for grinding the grain was often located on the stream. The manor was largely a self-sufficient community. The serfs and peasants raised or produced nearly everything that they and their lord needed for daily life—crops, milk and cheese, fuel, cloth, leather goods, and lumber.

The only outside purchases were salt, iron, and a few unusual objects such as millstones. These were huge stones used to grind flour. Crops grown on the manor usually included grains, such as wheat, rye, barley, and oats, and vegetables, such as peas, beans, onions, and beets.

In-text Question

During the middle Ages, the _____ system was the basic economic arrangement.

    a. Stone age

    b. Knight

    c. Fundamental

    d. Manor

In-text Answer
d

3.3.2 The Harshness of Manor Life

For the privilege of living on the lord's land, peasants paid a high price. They paid a tax on all grain ground in the lord's mill. Any attempt to avoid taxes by baking bread elsewhere was treated as a crime. Peasants also paid a tax on marriage. Weddings could take place only with the lord's consent.

After all these payments to the lord, peasant families owed the village priest a **tithe**, or church tax. A tithe represented one-tenth of their income. Serfs lived in crowded cottages, close to their neighbors. The cottages had only one or two rooms. If there were two rooms, the main room was used for cooking, eating, and household activities. The second was the family bedroom.

Peasants warmed their dirt-floor houses by bringing pigs inside. At night, the family huddled on a pile of straw that often crawled with insects. Peasants' simple diet consisted mainly of vegetables, coarse brown bread, grain, cheese, and soup.

For most serfs, both men and women, life was work and more work. Their days revolved around raising crops and livestock and taking care of home and family. As soon as children were old enough, they were put to work in the fields or in the home. Many children did not survive to adulthood. Illness and malnutrition were constant afflictions for medieval peasants.

Average life expectancy was about 35 years. And during that short lifetime, most peasants never traveled more than 25 miles from their homes. Yet, despite the hardships they endured, serfs accepted their lot in life as part of the Church's teachings. They, like most Christians during medieval times, believed that God determined a person's place in society.

Summary of Study Session 3

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. Western Europe was invaded by the Vikings, Magyars and Muslims.
2. The insecurity caused by these invasions led to a new social order called feudalism.
3. The structure of feudal society was much like a pyramid involving the king, nobles and bishops, knights and landless peasants.
4. Three classes emerged during this period: those who fought (nobles and knights), those who prayed (men and women of the Church), and those who worked (the peasants).
5. The manor system rested on a set of rights and obligations between a lord and his serfs.
6. Peasants paid a high price for the privilege of living on the lord's land,.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 3

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 3.1 (tests learning outcome 3.1)

1. What groups invaded Europe in the 800s?
2. What was the impact of their invasion onWestern Europe?
3. What is the main reason feudalism developed? Explain.

SAQ 3.2 (tests learning outcome 3.2)

1. What were the three social classes of the feudal system?
2. What obligations did a peasant have to the lord of the manor?

SAQ 3.3 (tests learning outcome 3.3)

1. How was a manor largely self-sufficient both militarily and economically during the early Middle Ages?

SAQ 3.4 (tests learning outcome 3.4)

For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

• lord • fief • vassal • knight • serf • manor • tithe

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 3
SAQ 3.1:

1. The Vikings, Magyars, and Muslims.

2. Europeans lived in constant danger. Kings could not effectively defend their lands from invasion. As a result, people no longer looked to a central ruler for security. Instead, many turned to local rulers who had their own armies.

3. Feudalism developed because rulers and made agreements with warriors who could fight the invaders gained followers and political strength.This was how the system of governing and landholding, called feudalism, had emerged in Europe.

SAQ 3.2:

1. The nobles and knights (those who fought), the Clergy(those who prayed) and the peasants (those who worked).

2. They paid a tax on all grain ground in the lord's mill. Peasants also paid a tax on marriage. Peasant families also owed the village priest a tithe, or church tax.

SAQ 3.3:

1. The serfs and peasants raised or produced nearly everything that they and their lord needed for daily life—crops, milk and cheese, fuel, cloth, leather goods, and lumber.

SAQ 3.4:

- **Lord**: a **lord** is a landowner who granted land called a fief to vassals.
- **Fief:** This is a portion of land given by lords to vassals in exchange for military protection.
- **Vassal**: A Vassal was awealthy landowner such as nobles and bishops.
- **Knight**:Knights were mounted horsemen who pledged to defend their lords' lands in exchange for fiefs.
- **Serf**: Serfswere people who could not lawfully leave the place where they were born.

- **Manor**: Manorwas the lord's estate.
- **Tithe**: A tithe represented one-tenth of peasants' income owed the village priest. It is also called church tax.

Study Session 4: The Development of England and France

Development of England and France
- John I
  — faced 3 powerful enemies
    - King Philip II of France
      — lost war & all of England's land in France
      — English expelled from France
    - Pope Innocent III
      — battled over selection of Archbishop of Canterbury
      — excommunicated John and placed England under interdict
    - English nobles
      — angered by oppressive taxes & other abuses of power

Introduction

In this study session you will learn how England and France emerged. By the early 800s, small Anglo-Saxon kingdoms covered the former Roman province of Britain. In Europe, the decline of the Carolingian Empire in the 900s left a patchwork of feudal states controlled by local lords. Gradually, the growth of towns and villages, and the breakup of the feudal system were leading to more centralized government and the development of nations. The earliest nations in Europe to develop a strong unified government were England and France. Both would take similar paths.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 4

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

4.1 Define and use correctly all the key words in **bold**

4.2 Describe the Vikings and their invasion of England

4.3 State the Norman conquest of England and the subsequent unification of England

4.4 Describe how the Capetian dynasty succeeded in developing France

4.1 The Vikings Invaded England

For centuries, invaders from various regions in Europe landed on English shores. The Angles and the Saxons stayed, bringing their own ways and creating an Anglo-Saxon culture. Starting

around 800 A.D., wave after wave of Vikings set out from Scandinavia either to raid their neighbors or explore new and more distant lands for the purpose of trading and settling there.

Viking raids created a feedback cycle by weakening their victims while also winning plunder and status, which encouraged more and larger raids, and so on. As raiding parties increased in size, the Vikings would grow bolder and strike further inland by sailing up inland rivers or even seizing local horses to carry them and their plunder.

As repeated successes further increased the size of the raiding parties, the Vikings would establish winter bases rather than return home to Scandinavia for the winter. Eventually these winter bases might become permanent settlements and the basis for the eventual conquest of the region.

Various forces launched the Vikings in their raids and voyages of exploration. Two of these factors we have already seen: the decline of the Frankish Empire after Charlemagne's death which invited raids, and the overspending by the Arab caliphs which wrecked trade in the Baltic Sea and forced the Vikings to seek their fortunes through more violent means.

Another factor was a growing population of landless younger sons looking for fortune and adventure caused by a good climate (allowing more children to survive), and the Viking customs of polygamy (having more than one wife) and primogeniture (leaving the entire inheritance to the oldest son).

4.1.1 Early Invasions

In the 800s, Britain was battered by fierce raids of Danish Vikings. These invaders were so feared that a special prayer was said in churches: "God, deliver us from the fury of the Northmen." Only Alfred the Great, Anglo-Saxon king from 871 to 899, managed to turn back the Viking invaders. Gradually he and his successors united the kingdom under one rule, calling it England, "land of the Angles."

The Angles were one of the Germanic tribes that had invaded the island of Britain. In 1016, the Danish king Canute conquered England, molding Anglo-Saxons and Vikings into one people. In 1042, King Edward the Confessor, a descendant of Alfred the Great, took the throne. Edward died in January 1066 without an heir. A great struggle for the throne erupted, leading to one last invasion.

Viking raids and conquests were accompanied by a good number of atrocities that reflected the Vikings' rough character, but were also designed to intimidate their victims. The Vikings

showed no special respect for Christian churches and monasteries. In fact, those were generally their first targets, since the Church owned so much of the wealth in Western Europe at the time. However, the Vikings were also great traders, not seeing trade and plunder as mutually exclusive, and combining these activities according to what the situation dictated or allowed. As a result, they opened up trade routes, which helped start a revival of Europe's economy.

Ironically, considering all the chaos and destruction the Vikings brought with them, they founded some of the best-organized and most dynamic states in Western Europe. In 911 A.D. they founded Normandy as a virtually independent state in western France. Having established a well-run government there, they spread out to conquer England in 1066, laying the foundations for that modern nation.

They also gradually conquered Southern Italy and Sicily in the eleventh and twelfth centuries and set up strong state there just as they had in Normandy and England. Some of these Normans later joined the First Crusade and conquered Antioch in Syria, holding it for nearly two centuries.

4.1.2 The Norman Conquest

The invader was William, duke of Normandy, who became known as **William the Conqueror**. Normandy is a region in the north of France that had been conquered by the Vikings. Its name comes from the French term for the Vikings—North men, or Norman. The Normans were descended from the Vikings, but they were French in language and in culture.

As King Edward's cousin, William claimed the English crown and invaded England with a Norman army. William's rival was Harold Godwinson, the Anglo-Saxon who claimed the throne. Harold was equally ambitious. On October 14, 1066, Normans and Anglo-Saxons fought the battle that changed the course of English history—the Battle of Hastings. After Harold was killed by an arrow that pierced his eye, the Normans won a decisive victory.

After his victory, William declared all England his personal property. William kept about one-fifth of England for himself. The English lords who supported Harold lost their lands. William then granted their lands to about 200 Norman lords who swore oaths of loyalty to him personally. By doing this, William unified control of the lands and laid the foundation for centralized government in England.

4.2 England's Evolving Government

Over the next centuries, English kings tried to achieve two goals. First, they wanted to hold and add to their French lands. Second, they wanted to strengthen their own power over the nobles and the Church. William the Conqueror's descendants owned land both in Normandy and in England.

The English king **Henry II** added to these holdings by marrying Eleanor of Aquitaine from France. Eleanor of Aquitaine was one of the most remarkable women in history. She was wife to two kings and mother to two kings. She married Louis VII of France when the Second Crusade began. In 1147, she accompanied him to the Holy Land.

Shortly afterward their marriage was annulled. Eleanor then married Henry Plantagenet, who was to become Henry II of England. Their marriage produced eight children. Two became English kings, Richard the Lion-Hearted and John. The marriage brought Henry a large territory in France called Aquitaine.

He added Aquitaine to the lands in Normandy he had already inherited from William the Conqueror. Because Henry held lands in France, he was a vassalto the French king. But he was also a king in his own right.

Figure 4.1 King **Henry II**

4.2.1 Juries and Common Law

Henry ruled England from 1154 to 1189. He strengthened the royal courts of justice by sending royal judges to every part of England at least once a year. They collected taxes, settled lawsuits, and punished crimes. Henry also introduced the use of the jury in English courts.

A jury in medieval England was a group of loyal people—usually 12 neighbors of the accused—who answered a royal judge's questions about the facts of a case. Jury trials became a popular means of settling disputes. Only the king's courts were allowed to conduct them. Over the centuries, case by case, the rulings of England's royal judges formed a unified body of law that became known as **common law**.

Today the principles of English common law are the basis for law in many English-speaking countries, including the United States.

In-text Question

The English king **Henry II** married Eleanor of Valentino from France. True of false

In-text Answer

False

4.2.2 The Magna Carta

Henry was succeeded first by his son Richard the Lion-Hearted, hero of the Third Crusade. When Richard died, his younger brother John took the throne. John ruled from 1199 to 1216. He failed as a military leader, earning the nickname John Softsword. John lost Normandy and all his lands in northern France to the French under Philip Augustus.

This loss forced a confrontation with his own nobles. Some of John's problems stemmed from his own personality. He was cruel to his subjects and tried to squeeze money out of them. He alienated the Church and threatened to take away town charters guaranteeing self-government. John raised taxes to an all-time high to finance his wars. His nobles revolted.

On June 15, 1215, they forced John to agree to the most celebrated document in English history, the **Magna Carta** (Great Charter). The Magna Carta is considered one of the cornerstones of democratic government. The underlying principle of the document is the idea that all must obey the law, even the king. Its guaranteed rights are an important part of modern liberties and justice.

This document, drawn up by English nobles and reluctantly approved by King John, guaranteed certain basic political rights. The nobles wanted to safeguard their own feudal rights and limit the king's powers.

In later years, however, English people of all classes argued that certain clauses in the Magna Carta applied to every citizen. Guaranteed rights included no taxation without representation, a jury trial, and the protection of the law. The Magna Carta guaranteed what are now considered basic legal rights both in England and in the United States.

4.2.3 The Model Parliament

Another important step toward democratic government came during the rule of the next English king, Edward I. Edward needed to raise taxes for a war against the French, the Welsh, and the Scots. In 1295, Edward summoned two burgesses (citizens of wealth and property) from every borough and two knights from every county to serve as a **parliament**, or legislative group.

In November 1295, knights, burgesses, bishops, and lords met together at Westminster in London. This is now called the Model Parliament because its new makeup (commoners, or non-nobles, as well as lords) served as a model for later kings.

Over the next century, from 1300 to 1400, the king called the knights and burgesses whenever a new tax was needed. In Parliament, these two groups gradually formed an assembly of their own called the House of Commons. Nobles and bishops met separately as the House of Lords.

Under Edward I, Parliament was in part a royal tool that weakened the great lords. As time went by, Parliament became strong. Like the Magna Carta, it provided a check on royal power.

4.3 Capetian Dynasty Ruled France

The kings of France, like those of England, looked for ways to increase their power. After the breakup of Charlemagne's empire, French counts and dukes ruled their lands independently under the feudal system. By the year 1000, France was divided into about 47 feudal territories. In 987, the last member of the Carolingian family—Louis the Sluggard—died.

Hugh Capet, an undistinguished duke from the middle of France, succeeded him. The Capet family ruled only a small territory, but at its heart stood Paris. Hugh Capet began the Capetian dynasty of French kings that ruled France from 987 to 1328.

Figure 4.2: Capetian Dynasty

4.3.1 France Became a Separate Kingdom

Hugh Capet, his son, and his grandson all were weak rulers, but time and geography favored the Capetians. Their territory, though small, sat astride important trade routes in northern France. For 300 years, Capetian kings tightened their grip on this strategic area. The power of the king gradually spread outward from Paris. Eventually, the growth of royal power would unite France.

In-text Question

How many territories was France divided into by the year 1000?

   a. 27 Feudal territories
   b. 37 Feudal territories
   c. 47 Feudal territories
   d. 57 Feudal territories

In-text Answer

c

4.3.2 Philip II Expanded His Power

One of the most powerful Capetians was **Philip II**, called Philip Augustus, who ruled from 1180 to 1223. As a child, Philip had watched his father lose land to King Henry II of England. When Philip became king at the age of 15, he set out to weaken the power of the English kings in France. Philip was crafty, unprincipled, and willing to do whatever was necessary to achieve his goals.

Philip had little success against Henry II or Henry's son, Richard the Lion-Hearted. However, when King John, Richard's brother, gained the English throne, it was another matter. Philip earned the name Augustus (from the Latin word meaning "majestic"), probably because he greatly increased the territory of France. He seized Normandy from King John in 1204 and within two years had gained other territory.

By the end of Philip's reign, he had tripled the lands under his direct control. For the first time, a French king had become more powerful than any of his vassals. Philip II not only wanted more land, he also wanted a stronger central government. He established royal officials called bailiffs. They were sent from Paris to every district in the kingdom to preside over the king's courts and to collect the king's taxes.

4.3.3 Philip II's Heirs

France's central government became even stronger during the reign of Philip's grandson, Louis IX, who ruled from 1226 to 1270. Unlike his grandfather, Louis was pious and saintly. He was known as the ideal king. After his death, he was made a saint by the Catholic Church. Louis created a French appeals court, which could overturn the decisions of local courts.

These royal courts of France strengthened the monarchy while weakening feudal ties. In 1302, Philip IV, who ruled France from 1285 to 1314, was involved in a quarrel with the pope. The pope refused to allow priests to pay taxes to the king. Philip disputed the right of the pope to control Church affairs in his kingdom.

As in England, the French king usually called a meeting of his lords and bishops when he needed support for his policies. To win wider support against the pope, Philip IV decided to include commoners in the meeting.

4.3.4 Estates-General

In France, the Church leaders were known as the First Estate, and the great lords as the Second Estate. The commoners, wealthy landholders or merchants that Philip invited to participate in the council became known as the Third Estate. The whole meeting was called the **Estates-General**. Like the English Parliament in its early years, the Estates-General helped to increase royal power against the nobility.

Unlike Parliament, however, the Estates-General never became an independent force that limited the king's power. However, centuries later, the Third Estate would play a key role in overthrowing the French monarchy during the French Revolution.

4.3.5 Beginnings of Democracy

England and France were just beginning to establish a democratic tradition. This tradition rested on setting up a centralized government that would be able to govern widespread lands. The creation of common law and court systems was a first step toward increased central government power.

Including commoners in the decision-making process of government was also an important step in the direction of democratic rule. Before England and France could move forward in this direction, however, they had to contend with a century of turmoil that included religious disputes, plague, and war.

Summary of Study Session 4

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. Vikings invaded England after the fall of the Frankish empire
2. William the Conqueror led the Norman conquest of England and the subsequent unification of England.
3. The Capetian dynasty succeeded in developing France into a democratic kingdom
4. As the kingdoms of England and France began to develop into nations, certain democratic traditions evolved.
5. Modern concepts of jury trials, common law, and legal rights developed during this period.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 4

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 4.1 (tests learning outcome 4.1)

What two reasons are responsible for the Viking invasions of England

SAQ 4.2 (tests learning outcome 4.2)

What is the significance of the Magna Carta?

SAQ 4.3 (tests learning outcome 4.3)

Why did Philip II call theEstates-General together?

SAQ 4.4 (tests learning outcome 4.4)

For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

• William the Conqueror • Henry II • common law • Magna Carta • parliament • Hugh
Capet • Philip II • Estates-General

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 4

SAQ 4.1:

1. The decline of the Frankish Empire after Charlemagne's death and the overspending by the Arab caliphs which wrecked trade in the Baltic Sea forced the Vikings to seek their fortunes through more violent means.

2. Another factor was a growing population of landless younger sons looking for fortune and adventure caused by a good climate (allowing more children to survive), and the Viking customs of polygamy (having more than one wife) and primogeniture (leaving the entire inheritance to the oldest son).

SAQ 4.2: The Magna Carta is considered one of the cornerstones ofdemocratic government. The underlying principle of thedocument is the idea that all must obey the law, even theking. Its guaranteed rights are an important part of modernliberties and justice.

SAQ 4.3: the Estates-General helped to increase royal power against the nobility.

SAQ 4:4

- **William the Conqueror** was the duke of Normandy, in Northern France, who claimed the English crown and invaded England with a Norman army defeating Harold Godwinson, the Anglo-Saxon who claimed the throne, and declared all England his personal property keeping about one-fifth of England for himself and

granting the rest of the lands to about 200 Norman lords who swore oaths of loyalty to him personally.

- **Henry II** was the English king who added to the Normandy holdings by marrying Eleanor of Aquitaine from France. The marriage brought Henry a large territory in France called Aquitaine. He added Aquitaine to the lands in Normandy he had already inherited from William the Conqueror.

- **Common law** is a unified body of law generated from the rulings of England's royal judges over the centuries, case by case.

- **Magna Carta** is the most celebrated document in English history. It was produced when the English nobles revolted on June 15, 1215 and forced King John to agree to some basic rights. The Magna Carta is considered one of the cornerstones of democratic government.

   The underlying principle of the document is the idea that all must obey the law, even the king. Its guaranteed rights are an important part of modern liberties and justice.

- **Parliament** is a legislative group or lawmakers. It emerge in 1295 when King Edward summoned two burgesses (citizens of wealth and property) from every borough and two knights from every county to meet together at Westminster in London. Its new makeup (commoners and lords) served as a model for later kings. In Parliament, these two groups gradually formed an assembly of their own called the House of Commons and House of Lords. Nobles and bishops met separately as the House of Lords. Parliament was in part a royal tool that weakened the great lords and provided a check on royal power.

- **Hugh Capet**, was an undistinguished duke from the middle of France who succeeded King Louis. He began the Capetian dynasty of French kings that ruled France from 987 to 1328.

- **Philip II**, called Philip Augustus, ruled France from 1180 to 1223.Philip earned the name Augustus (from the Latin word meaning "majestic"), probably because he greatly increased the territory of France. He seized Normandy from King John in 1204.

- **Estates-General** was the meeting of three groups of people invited by King Philip of France to participate in the council who advised the king in France. The first group known as the First Estate was the Church leaders, while the great lords were the second group known as the Second Estate. The commoners, wealthy landholders or merchants became known as the Third Estate.

Study Session 5: The Russian Empire

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the birth and growth of Russia. We will learn how the influence of Greek and Byzantine culture on the Slavs led to the birth of Russian culture and society.

In addition to sending its missionaries to the land of the Slavsduring the ninth century, Byzantium actively traded with its neighbors to the north. Because of this increased interaction, the Slavs began absorbing many Greek Byzantine ways. It was this blending of Slavic and Greek traditions that eventually produced Russian culture.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 5

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

5.1 Explain the background to the birth of Russia

5.2   Describe the growth and decline of Kievan Russia

5.3   Describe the advent of the Mongols into Russia

5.4   Explain the independence of Russia and its rise as an empire

5.1 Russia's Birth

Russia's first unified territory originated west of the Ural Mountains in the region that runs from the Black Sea to the Baltic Sea. Hilly grasslands are found in the extreme south of that area. The north, however, is densely forested, flat, and swampy. Slow-moving, interconnecting rivers allow boat travel across these plains in almost any direction.

Three great rivers, the Dnieper, the Don, and the Volga, run from the heart of the forests to the Black Sea or the Caspian Sea. In the early days of the Byzantine Empire, these forests were inhabited by tribes of Slavic farmers and traders. They spoke similar languages but had no political unity.

Sometime in the 800s, small bands of adventurers came down among them from the north. These Varangians, or Rus as they were also called, were most likely Vikings. (The name "Russia" is taken from this group.) Eventually, these Vikings built forts along the rivers and settled among the Slavs.

In-text Question

Three great rivers, the Dnieper, the Don, and the Volga, run from the heart of the forests to the Black Sea or the Caspian Sea. True or False

In-text Answer

True

5.1.1 Slavs and Vikings

Russian legends say the Slavs invited the Viking chief Rurik to be their king. So in 862, he founded Novgorod, Russia's first important city. That account is given in *The Primary Chronicle*, a history of Russia written by monks in the early 1100s. Around 880, a nobleman

from Novgorod named Oleg moved south to Kiev, a city on the Dnieper River. From Kiev, the Vikings could sail by river and sea to Constantinople.

There they could trade for products from distant lands. Kiev grew into a principality, a small state ruled by a prince. As it did, the Viking nobles intermarried with their Slavic subjects and adopted many aspects of Slavic culture. Gradually, the line between Slavs and Vikings vanished.

5.1.2 Kiev Became Orthodox

In 957, a member of the Kievan nobility, Princess Olga, paid a visit to Constantinople and publicly converted to Christianity. From 945 to 964, she governed Kiev until her son was old enough to rule. Her son resisted Christianity. However, soon after Olga's grandson Vladimir came to the throne about 980, he considered conversion to Christianity.

The Primary Chronicle reports that Vladimir sent out teams to observe the major religions of the times. Three of the teams returned with lukewarm accounts of Islam, Judaism, and Western Christianity. But the team from Byzantium told quite a different story: This report convinced Vladimir to convert to Byzantine Christianity and to make all his subjects convert, too.

In 989, a baptism of all the citizens of Kiev was held in the Dnieper River. Kiev,already linked to Byzantium by trade, now looked to the empire for religious guidance. Vladimir imported teachers to instruct the people in the new faith. All the beliefs and traditions of Orthodox Christianity flourished in Kiev. Vladimir appreciated the Byzantine idea of the emperor as supreme ruler of the Church. So the close link between Church and state took root in Russia as well.

5.2 Kiev's Power and Decline

Thanks to its Byzantine ties, Kiev grew from a cluster of crude wooden forts to the glittering capital of a prosperous and educated people. The rise of Kiev marked the appearance of Russia's first important unified territory.

5.2.1Kievan Russia

Vladimir led the way in establishing Kiev's power. He expanded his state west into Poland and north almost to the Baltic Sea. He also fought off troublesome nomads from the steppes to the south. In 1019, Vladimir's son Yaroslav the Wisecame to the throne and led Kiev to even greater glory. Like the rulers of Byzantium, Yaroslav skillfully married off his daughters and sisters to the kings and princes of Western Europe.

Those marriages helped him to forge important trading alliances. At the same time, he created a legal code tailored to Kiev's commercial culture. Many of its rules dealt with crimes against property. Yaroslav also built the first library in Kiev. Under his rule, Christianity prospered. By the 12th century, Kiev was home to some 400 churches.

In-text Question
Vladimir led the way in establishing Kiev's power. He expanded his state west into Poland and north almost to the Baltic Sea. True or False
In-text Answer
True

5.2.2 Kiev's Decline
The decline of the Kievan state started with the death of Yaroslav in 1054. During his reign, Yaroslav had made what turned out to be a crucial error. He had divided his realm among his sons, instead of following the custom of passing on the throne to the eldest son.

Upon their father's death, the sons tore the state apart fighting for the choicest territories. And because this system of dividing the kingdom among sons continued, each generation saw new struggles.

The Crusades—the numerous clashes between Christians and Muslims for control of the Holy Lands of the Middle East that began in 1095—added to Kiev's troubles by disrupting trade. Then, just when it seemed that things could not get worse, a new threat emerged.

5.3 The Mongol Invasions
In the middle 1200s, a ferocious group of horsemen from central Asia slashed their way into Russia. These nomads were the Mongols. They had exploded onto the world scene at the beginning of the 1200s under Genghis Khan, one of the most feared warriors of all time.

The Mongols may have been forced to move out by economic or military pressures. They may have been lured by the wealth of cities to the west. Whatever their reasons for leaving, they rode their swift horses across the steppes of Asia and on into Europe. Their savage killing and burning won them a reputation for ruthless brutality. When Genghis Khan died in 1227, his successors continued the conquering that he had begun.

At its fullest extent, the Mongol Empire stretched from the Yellow Sea to the Baltic Sea and from the Himalayas to northern Russia. In 1240, the Mongols attacked and demolished Kiev. They rode under the leadership of Batu Khan, Genghis's grandson. So many inhabitants were slaughtered, a Russian historian reported, that "no eye remained to weep."

A Roman Catholic bishop traveling through Kiev five years later wrote, "When we passed through that land, we found lying in the field countless heads and bones of dead people." After the fall of Kiev, Mongols ruled all of southern Russia for 200 years.

The empire's official name was the "Khanate of the Golden Horde": Khanate, from the Mongol word for "kingdom"; Golden, because gold was the royal color of the Mongols; and Horde, from the Mongol word for "camp."

Figure 5.1 Mogul Invasions

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5.3.1 Mongol Ruled in Russia

Under Mongol rule, the Russians could follow all their usual customs, as long as they made no attempts to rebel. As fierce as they were, the Mongols tolerated all the religions in their realms. The Church, in fact, often acted as a mediator between the Russian people and their Mongol rulers. The Mongols demanded just two things from Russians: absolute obedience and massive amounts of tribute, or payments.

By and large, the Russian nobles agreed. Novgorod's prince and military hero Alexander Nevsky, for example, advised his fellow princes to cooperate with the Mongols. The Russian nobles often crushed revolts against the Mongols and collected oppressive taxes for the foreign rulers.

Mongol rule isolated the Russians more than ever from their neighbors in Western Europe. This meant that among other things, the Russians had little access to many new ideas and inventions. During this period, however, forces were at work that eventually would lead to the rise of a new center of power in the country, and to Russia's liberation.

5.4 Russia Became Free

The city of Moscow was first founded in the 1100s. By 1156, it was a crude village protected by a log wall. Nonetheless, it was located near three major rivers: the Volga, Dnieper, and Don. From that strategic position, a prince of Moscow who could gain control of the three rivers could control nearly all of European Russia—and perhaps successfully challenge the Mongols.

5.4.1 Moscow's Powerful Princes

A line of Russian princes eventually emerged on the scene who would do just that. During the late 1320s, Moscow's Prince Ivan I had earned the gratitude of the Mongols by helping to crush a Russian revolt against Mongol rule. For his services, the Mongols appointed Ivan I as tax collector of all the Slavic lands they had conquered.

They also gave him the title of "Grand Prince." Ivan had now become without any doubt the most powerful of all Russian princes. He also became the wealthiest and was known as "Ivan Moneybag." Ivan convinced the Patriarch of Kiev, the leading bishop of Eastern Europe, to move to Moscow.

The move improved the city's prestige and gave Moscow's princes a powerful ally: the Church. Ivan I and his successors used numerous strategies to enlarge their territory: land purchases, wars, trickery, and shrewd marriages. From generation to generation, they schemed to gain greater control over the small states around Moscow.

5.4.2 Russian Empire Emerged

The Russian state would become a genuine empire during the long, 43-year reign of Ivan III. Upon becoming the prince of Moscow, Ivan openly challenged Mongol rule. He took the name czar, the Russian version of Caesar, and publicly claimed his intent to make Russia the "Third Rome." (The title "czar" became official only during the reign of Ivan IV.) In 1480, Ivan made a final break with the Mongols.

After he refused to pay his rulers further tribute, Russian and Mongol armies faced each other at the Ugra River, about 150 miles southwest of Moscow. However, neither side advanced to fight. So, after a time, both armies turned around and marched home. Russians have traditionally marked this bloodless standoff as their liberation from Mongol rule.

After this liberation, the czars could openly pursue an empire. Such a defeat for the Mongols would have seemed impossible nearly two centuries earlier, as they pushed west from present-day China and crushed nearly everything in their path. One of the peoples whom they conquered back then was a new group that had risen to power in Central Asia—the Turks.

Summary of Study Session 5

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. Russia evolved through the intermingling of the Vikings and the Slavs leading to the emergence of Novgorod and Kiev.
2. Through the influence of Princess Olga and her grandson Vladimir, all the beliefs and traditions of Orthodox Christianity flourished in Kiev.
3. Vladimir's son Yaroslav the Wisecame to the throne and led Kiev to even greater glory.
4. In 1240, the Mongols attacked and demolished Kiev.After the fall of Kiev, the Mongols ruled all of southern Russia for 200 years.
5. The city of Moscow was first founded in the 1100s and it gradually developed through the emergence of powerful princes like Ivan.
6. Ivan I and his successors used numerous strategies to enlarge their territory.
7. In 1480, Ivan III made a final break with the Mongols.
8. He took the name czar, the Russian version of Caesar, and publicly claimed his intent to make Russia the "Third Rome."

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 5

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 5.1 (tests learning outcome 5.1)

How did influence of the Vikings on the Slavs begin?

SAQ 5.2 (tests learning outcome 5.2)

How did Vladimir's conversion to Christianity affect Kiev?

SAQ 5.3 (tests learning outcome 5.3)

How did Yaroslav's decision to divide his realm among his sons help cause Kiev's decline?

SAQ 5.4 (tests learning outcome 5.4)

How did Ivan III lead the Russians to their independence from the Mongols?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 5

SAQ 5.1: Russian legends say the Slavs invited the Viking chief Rurik to be their king. So in 862, he founded Novgorod, Russia's first important city.

SAQ 5.2: Vladimir appreciated the Byzantine idea of the emperor as supreme ruler of the Church. So the close link between Church and state took root in Russia as well.

SAQ 5.3: Upon their father's death, the sons tore the state apart fighting for the choicest territories. And because this system of dividing the kingdom among sons continued, each generation saw new struggles.

SAQ 5.4: After he refused to pay his rulers further tribute, Russian and Mongol armies faced each other at the Ugra River, about 150 miles southwest of Moscow. However, neither side advanced to fight. So, after a time, both armies turned around and marched home.

Study Session 6: The Holy Roman Empire of Germany, 911-1500

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the history of the Holy Roman Empire, as Germany was then known, which differed quite markedly from France and England. Whereas those two countries were well on their way to developing national monarchies by 1300, Germany was disintegrating into feudal anarchy.

This was largely the result of Germany being tied to the ancient and somewhat outdated concept of a universal Roman Empire that claimed dominion over all of Europe.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 6

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

6.1 Explain the role of Saxon dynasty in the evolution of Holy Roman Empire of Germany

6.2 Describe the role of the Salian Dynasty in the investiture struggle

6.3 Explain the role of Hohenstauffen Dynasty in the development of Germany

6.4 Describe the political changes the occurred in Germany from the 13th century

6.1 The Saxon Dynasty

The breakup of the Frankish Empire in the ninth century created two main states: West Frankland, which would become France, and East Frankland, which would become Germany. The death of Louis the Child in 911 put an end to the German branch of the Carolingian dynasty, forcing the German nobles to choose a new ruler.

Largely because they recognized the need for a strong monarchy to protect them against the nomadic Magyars to the East, the nobles chose the rulers of Saxony as their king. In the following century, the Saxon dynasty (919-1024) established one of the strongest of the early medieval monarchies.

The Saxons based their power, as most monarchs then did, on the twin pillars of holding land and an alliance with the Church. In addition, the Saxon rulers did two other things to strengthen their alliance with the Church.

For one thing, they supported the spread of the Cluniac reforms into Germany, largely as a means to weakening the power of local nobles. Secondly, in 961 the pope and Italian bishops called in the Saxon ruler, Otto I, to defend them against their enemies.

In return for this favor, the pope crowned Otto Roman Emperor. From this time until 1806, the imperial dignity would belong to the rulers of Germany, known afterwards as the Holy Roman Empire.

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6.2 The Salian Dynasty

The Salian Dynasty (1024-1106), which succeeded the Saxons, also depended on controlling Church officials and large amounts of land to maintain and build its authority. In addition, the rising power of the nobles made it even more mandatory that they form a more efficient administration. In the absence of towns at this early date, the Salians used a peculiar institution known as ministeriales.

These were originally non-free peasants whom the Church would use for knight service to the emperor. The bishops and abbots would give the ministeriales use, but not possession of land to pay for these services. The Salian emperors used ministeriales for various military and civil services, since their low social status kept them dependent on the emperor.

They also drew silver from the mines in the Hartz Mountains, which gave them still more power. Their power and policies made the Salians unpopular in Germany, especially with the nobles. However, by 1075, the emperor Henry IV seemed well on his way to building the strongest monarchy in Western Europe. He had extensive lands, a permanent capital at Goslar, money revenues, and a body of servants loyal to the king.

In-text Question

The breakup of the Frankish Empire in the ninth century created two main states_____ and _____

       a. West Frankland and East Frankland

       b. West Empire and east empire

       c. North Frankland and south frankland

       d. North Empire and south empire

In-text Answer

a.

6.2.1 The Investiture Struggle

Unfortunately, as we have seen, the emperors' support of the Church reforms had also raised the power and status of the popes who then challenged the emperors' control of Church elections in Investiture Struggle (1075-1122). When pope Gregory VII excommunicated Henry, the German nobles seized the opportunity to rebel against their emperor and elect a new ruler.

Rebellions, civil war, and anarchy tore through Germany and Italy. Pope Gregory VII died in exile, but his successors continued the struggle. When Henry IV died, his successor, Henry V, finally managed to reach a compromise settlement, but the damage was already done.

The anarchy and wars of the past half a century had allowed the German nobles to assert their independence. Great nobles became virtually independent princes, while the lower nobles became their vassals. Bishops and abbots also granted fiefs in return for military service. The free peasants virtually disappeared. Even the ministeriales were forced to break their bonds of service to the empire and become other nobles' vassals as the empire started to fragment.

What ensued was a vicious cycle whereby German emperors, seeing Germany as increasingly hopeless and themselves as Roman emperors, would neglect Germany and concentrate on building their power in Italy. As a result, Germany would disintegrate into worse anarchy. This would encourage the emperors to concentrate further on Italy while ignoring Germany, and so on.

6.3 Hohenstaufen Dynasty

The process of building the power of the German emperors in Italy especially accelerated under the Hohenstaufen dynasty, starting with its first emperor, Frederick I Barbarossa (1152-1190). Frederick I first tried to reassert imperial power in the rich cities of Lombardy in north Italy. After some initial successes, he was defeated by the combined forces of the Lombard League in 1176.

Although they acknowledged him as their emperor and paid some money, they remained virtually independent. Frederick did manage to seal a marriage alliance of his son to a Norman princess of Southern Italy and Sicily. Frederick also had some success in controlling the cities in Central Italy. This had the effect of alarming the popes who became the avowed enemies of the Hohenstaufen emperors surrounding them.

Frederick Barbarossa died while on Crusade in 1190. His son and successor Henry VI, being married to Constance of Sicily was even more involved in Italian politics. For one thing he had to spend several years putting down a rebellion of Norman nobles who did not want a German ruler.

Although Sicily brought the empire a very well organized and wealthy state, it also kept the emperors out of Germany even more, allowing it to disintegrate further. The acquisition of Sicily also further alienated the popes who were now surrounded with an even tighter noose.

The last great "German" emperor, Frederick II (1196-1250) came to the throne as a baby. After a stormy childhood, during which pope Innocent III was his guardian against more threatening German nobles, he came to the throne in high own right. Frederick was one of the most fascinating medieval characters, keeping Muslim advisors, a harem, and a menagerie of exotic animals.

His irreligious ways shocked contemporaries. Even his crusade where he gained Jerusalem through negotiation rather than fighting with the Muslims did not seem quite Christian.

Frederick grew up in Sicily and considered Germany too cold and bleak for a home, spending only two years of his reign there. His policy there was to keep it quiet so he could concentrate on building his power in Italy and fighting the popes. As a result, he was willing to grant further privileges to the German nobles in order to pacify them.

The last vestiges of imperial control fell into the hands of nobles who were now granted full powers of government in their individual lands. The popes added to the confusion as they stirred up rebellions against Frederick in both Italy and Germany. Although Frederick maintained his power in Italy, he never succeeded in breaking the popes' power. Even after his death in 1250, the emperors' fight with the popes continued.

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6.3.1 Interregnum

After the death of Frederick II in 1250, the German kingdom was divided between his son Conrad IV (died 1254) and the anti-king, William of Holland (died 1256). Conrad's death was followed by the Interregnum, during which no king could achieve universal recognition and the princes managed to consolidate their holdings and became even more independent rulers.

After 1257, the crown was contested between Richard of Cornwall, who was supported by the Guelph party, and Alfonso X of Castile, who was recognised by the Hohenstaufen party but never set foot on German soil. After Richard's death in 1273, the Interregnum ended with unanimous election of Rudolph I of Habsburg, a minor pro-Staufen count.

In-text Question

Frederick I first tried to reassert imperial power in the rich cities of Lombardy in north Italy. True or False

In-text Answer

True

6.4 Changes in Political Structure

The 13th century also saw a general structural change in how land was administered; preparing the shift of political power towards the rising bourgeoisie at the expense of aristocratic feudalism that would characterize the Late Middle Ages. Instead of personal duties, money increasingly became the common means to represent economic value in agriculture.

Peasants were increasingly required to pay tribute for their lands. The concept of "property" began to replace more ancient forms of jurisdiction, although they were still very much tied together. In the territories (not at the level of the Empire), power became increasingly bundled: Whoever owned the land had jurisdiction, from which other powers derived. It is important to note, however, that jurisdiction at this time did not include legislation, which virtually did not exist until well into the 15th century. Court practice heavily relied on traditional customs or rules described as customary. It was during this time that the territories began to transform into predecessors of modern states.

The process varied greatly among the various lands and was most advanced in those territories that were most identical to the lands of the old Germanic tribes, e.g. Bavaria. It was slower in those scattered territories that were founded through imperial privileges.

6.4.1 The Elective Principle

In 1350, the German monarchy became purely elective, further weakening the power of the emperors. The difficulties in electing the king eventually led to the emergence of a fixed college of Prince-electors (Kurfürsten), whose composition and procedures were set forth in the Golden Bull of 1356.

This development probably best symbolises the emerging duality between emperor and realm (Kaiser und Reich), which were no longer considered identical. This is also revealed in the way the post-Hohenstaufen kings attempted to sustain their power. Earlier, the Empire's strength (and finances) greatly relied on the Empire's own lands, the so-called Reichsgut, which always belonged to the king of the day and included many Imperial Cities.

After the 13th century, the relevance of the Reichsgut faded, even though some parts of it did remain until the Empire's end in 1806. Instead, the Reichsgut was increasingly pawned to local dukes, sometimes to raise money for the Empire, but more frequently to reward faithful duty or as an attempt to establish control over the dukes.

The direct governance of the Reichsgut no longer matched the needs of either the king or the dukes.

Instead, the kings, beginning with Rudolph I of Habsburg, increasingly relied on the lands of their respective dynasties to support their power.

In contrast with the Reichsgut, which was mostly scattered and difficult to administer, these territories were relatively compact and thus easier to control. In 1282, Rudolph I thus lent Austria and Styria to his own sons.

With Henry VII, the House of Luxembourg entered the stage. In 1312, Henry was crowned as the first Holy Roman Emperor since Frederick II.

After him all kings and emperors relied on the lands of their own family (Hausmacht): Louis IV of Wittelsbach (king 1314, emperor 1328–47) relied on his lands in Bavaria; Charles IV of Luxembourg, the grandson of Henry VII, drew strength from his own lands in Bohemia. Interestingly, it was thus increasingly in the king's own interest to strengthen the power of the territories, since the king profited from such a benefit in his own lands as well.

6.4.2 Imperial Reform

The "constitution" of the Empire was still largely unsettled at the beginning of the 15th century. Although some procedures and institutions had been fixed, for example by the Golden Bull of 1356, the rules of how the king, the electors, and the other dukes should cooperate in the Empire much depended on the personality of the respective king.

It therefore proved somewhat damaging that Sigismund of Luxemburg (king 1410, emperor 1433–37) and Frederick III of Habsburg (king 1440, emperor 1452–93) neglected the old core lands of the empire and mostly resided in their own lands. Without the presence of the king, the old institution of the Hoftag, the assembly of the realm's leading men, deteriorated.

The Imperial Diet as a legislative organ of the Empire did not exist at that time. Even worse, dukes often went into feuds against each other that, more often than not, escalated into local wars.

Simultaneously, the Church was in a state of crisis too, with wide-reaching effects in the Empire. The conflict between several papal claimants (two anti-popes and the legitimate Pope) was only resolved at the Council of Constance (1414–18); after 1419, much energy was spent on fighting the Hussites.

The medieval idea of unifying all Christendom into a single political entity, of which the Church and the Empire were the leading institutions, began to decline.

With these drastic changes, much discussion emerged in the 15th century about the Empire itself. Rules from the past no longer adequately described the structure of the time, and a reinforcement of earlier Landfrieden was urgently called for. During this time, the concept of "reform" emerged, in the original sense of the Latin verb re-formare, to regain an earlier shape that had been lost.

6.4.3 Imperial Diet

(Imperial Chamber Court); structures that would—to a degree—persist until the end of the Empire in 1806.However, it took a few more decades until the new regulation was universally accepted and the new court actually began to function; only in 1512 would the Imperial Circles be finalised.

The King also made sure that his own court, the Reichshofrat, continued to function in parallel to the Reichskammergericht. In this year, the Empire also received its new title, the HeiligesRömisches Reich Deutscher Nation ("Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation").

The popes finally emerged victorious in their struggle with the German emperors. They broke the ring of enemies surrounding them by inciting rebellions in the cities to the north and bringing in the French royal prince, Charles of Anjou, to overthrow Frederick's son in Sicily and Southern Italy.

The pope even forced loans out of the Italian bankers by threatening to ruin them with a decree absolving all debtors from their obligations to the bakers. The means that the popes used to defeat the emperors also served to tarnish their own reputations and that of the Church. By 1500 Germany remained as a patchwork of some 300 independent states nominally united under the empire.

For centuries, Germany, too weak and divided to defend itself, would be a constant battleground for other powers' wars. Even after its unification in 1871, the memory of these humiliations would largely determine Germany's foreign policy and be an underlying cause of the two world wars in this century.

Summary of Study Session 6In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. The Saxon dynasty established one of the strongest of the early medieval monarchies in Germany referred to as the Holy Roman Empire of Germany

2. The Salian Dynasty which succeeded the Saxonsbecame involved in the investiture struggle with the popes because the German rulers saw themselves as Roman emperors, neglected Germany and concentrated on building their power in Italy

3. TheHohenstauffen Dynasty accelerated process of building the power of the German emperors in Italy the climax of which was the Interregnum, during which no king could achieve universal recognition and the princes managed to consolidate their holdings and became even more independent rulers.

4. The 13th century witnessed a general structural change in how land was administered, preparing the shift of political power towards the rising bourgeoisie at the expense of aristocratic feudalism.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 6

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 6.1 (tests learning outcome 6.1)

What was the role of the Saxon ruler, Otto I in the evolution of the Holy Roman Empire of Germany?

SAQ 6.2 (tests learning outcome 6.2)

What role did the institution known as ministeriales play during Salian dynasty?

SAQ 6.3 (tests learning outcome 6.3)

What was the significance of the Interregnum in the Holy Roman Empire of Germany?

SAQ 6.4 (tests learning outcome 6.4)

What were the major changes that occurred in Germany in the 13th century?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 6

SAQ 6.1:   Saxon ruler, Otto I, defended them the Italian popes against their enemies. In return for this favor, the pope crowned Otto Roman Emperor. From this time until 1806, the imperial dignity would belong to the rulers of Germany, known afterwards as the Holy Roman Empire.

SAQ 6.2:   The ministeriales were used for various military and civil services, since their low social status kept them dependent on the emperor. They also drew silver from the mines in the Hartz Mountains, which gave them still more power. Their power and policies made the Salians unpopular in Germany, especially with the nobles.

SAQ 6.3:   The Interregnum was a period during which no king could achieve universal recognition as the emperor of the Holy Roman Empire and the princes managed to consolidate their holdings and became even more independent rulers. It started in 1257 and ended in 1273 with the unanimous election of Rudolph I of Habsburg.

SAQ 6.4   In 1350, the German monarchy became purely elective, further weakening the power of the emperors. The difficulties in electing the king eventually led to the emergence of a fixed college of Prince-electors (Kurfürsten), whose composition and procedures were set forth in the Golden Bull of 1356.

For the first time, the assembly of the electors and other dukes was now called the Imperial Diet. Imperial Reform, a set of legal acts to give the disintegrating Empire back some structure, produced the Imperial Circle Estates and the Imperial Chamber Court.

Study Session 7: The Rise and fall of the Byzantine Empire, 500-1453

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the rise and fall of the Byzantine Empire. The rise of the Byzantium began when the Western Roman Empire crumbled in the fifth century as it was overrun by invading Germanic tribes. By this time, however, the once great empire had already undergone significant changes.

It had been divided into western and eastern empires, and its capital had moved east from Rome to the Greek city of Byzantium. The city would become known as Constantinople after the emperor Constantine, who made it the new capital in A.D. 330. (Byzantium would remain as the name of the entire Eastern Empire.)

For nearly a thousand years after the collapse of the Western Empire, Byzantium and its flourishing capital carried on the glory of Rome until the beginning of the fifteenth century when it began to decline and eventually fell in 1453.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 7

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

      7.1 Describe Emperor Justinian conquered almost all the territory that Rome had ever ruled

      7.2 Describe the life in the New Rome involving the creation of the Justinian Code, the creation of the Imperial Capital and the Nika Rebellion

      7.3 Describe some of the countless setbacks of the Byzantine empire

      7.4 Explain the differences that grew in and ultimately split apart the Church

      7.5 Explain the events that led to the decline and fall of the Byzantine Empire

7.1 A New Rome in a New Setting

Roman leaders had divided the empire in 395, largely due to difficulties in communications between the eastern and the troubled western parts of the empire. Still, rulers in the East continued to see themselves as emperors for all of Rome. In 527, a high-ranking Byzantine nobleman named **Justinian** succeeded his uncle to the throne of the Eastern Empire.

In an effort to regain Rome's fading glory, Justinian in 533 sent his best general, Belisarius to recover North Africa from the invading Germanic tribes. Belisarius and his forces quickly succeeded. Two years later, Belisarius attacked Rome and seized it from a group known as the Ostrogoths. But the city faced repeated attacks by other Germanic tribes. Over the next 16 years, Rome changed hands six times.

After numerous campaigns, Justinian's armies won nearly all of Italy and parts of Spain. Justinian now ruled almost all the territory that Rome had ever ruled. He could honestly call himself a new Caesar. Like the last of the old Caesars, the Byzantine emperors ruled with absolute power.

They headed not just the state but the church as well. They appointed and dismissed bishops at will. Their politics were brutal—and often deadly. Emperors lived under constant risk of assassination. Of the 88 Byzantine emperors, 29 died violently, and 13 abandoned the throne to live in monasteries.
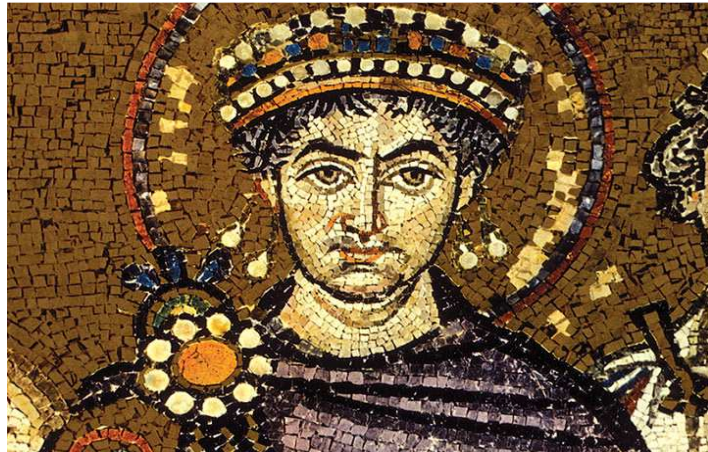
Figure7.1: Byzantine Emperor Justinian

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7.2 Life in the New Rome

A separate government and difficult communications with the West gave the Byzantine Empire its own character, different from that of the Western Empire. The citizens thought of themselves as sharing in the Roman tradition, but few spoke Latin anymore. Most Byzantines spoke Greek. Having unified the two empires, Justinian set up a panel of legal experts to regulate Byzantium's increasingly complex society. The panel combed through 400 years of Roman law. It found a number of laws that were outdated and contradictory. The panel created a single, uniform code known as the **Justinian Code**. After its completion, the code consisted of four works.

1. The *Code* contained nearly 5,000 Roman laws that were still considered useful for the Byzantine Empire.

2. The *Digest* quoted and summarized the opinions of Rome's greatest legal thinkers about the laws. This massive work ran to a total of 50 volumes.

3. The *Institutes* was a textbook that told law students how to use the laws.

4. The *Novellae* (New Laws) presented legislation passed after 534.

The Justinian Code decided legal questions that regulated whole areas of Byzantine life. Marriage, slavery, property, inheritance, women's rights, and criminal justice were just some of those areas. Although Justinian himself died in 565, his code served the Byzantine Empire for 900 years.

Figure 7.2 Justinian Code

7.2.1 Creating the Imperial Capital

While his scholars were creating the legal code, Justinian launched the most ambitious public building program ever seen in the Roman world. He rebuilt the crumbling fortifications of Constantinople, as workers constructed a 14-mile stone wall along the city's coastline and repaired the massive fortifications along its western land border. Church building, however, was the emperor's greatest passion.

Justinian viewed churches as the most visible sign of the close connection between church and state in his empire. The crowning glory of his reign was **Hagia Sophia**, which means "Holy Wisdom" in Greek. A church of the same name had been destroyed in riots that swept Constantinople in 532. When Justinian rebuilt Hagia Sophia, many visitors hailed it as the most splendid church in the Christian world.

As part of his building program, Justinian enlarged his palace into a vast complex. He also built baths, aqueducts, law courts, schools, and hospitals. By the time the emperor was finished, the city teemed with an almost visible excitement. Beneath such excitement, a less obvious but vitally important activity took place: the preservation of Greco-Roman culture.

Byzantine families valued education—specifically classical learning. Basic courses for Byzantine students focused on Greek and Latin grammar, and philosophy. The classics of Greek and Roman literature served as textbooks. Students memorized Homer. They learned geometry

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from Euclid, history from Herodotus, and medicine from Galen. The modern world owes Byzantine scholars a huge debt for preserving many of the great works of Greece and Rome.

In-text Question

The Justinian Code decided legal questions that regulated whole areas of Byzantine life. True or False

In-text Answer

True

7.2.2 Constantinople's Hectic Pace

The main street running through Constantinople was the Mese or "Middle Way." Merchant stalls lined the main street and filled the side streets. Products from the most distant corners of Asia, Africa, and Europe passed through these stalls. Everywhere, food stands filled the air with the smell of their delicacies, while acrobats and street musicians performed.

Meanwhile, citizens could enjoy free entertainment at the Hippodrome, which offered wild chariot races and performance acts. The Hippodrome (from Greek words meaning "horse" and "racecourse") held 60,000 spectators. Fans of the different teams formed rowdy gangs named for the colors worn by their heroes.

In 532, two such fan groups sparked citywide riots called the Nika Rebellion (because the mob cried "Nika!" or "Victory!"). Both sides were angry with the government. They felt that city officials had been too severe in putting down a previous riot of Hippodrome fans. They packed the Hippodrome and demanded the overthrow of Justinian. Belisarius, however, broke in with his troops and slaughtered about 30,000 rebels.

Justinian had considered fleeing during the Nika Rebellion, but his wife, Theodora, urged him to stay. Empress Theodora (500–548), the most powerful woman in Byzantine history rose from deep poverty. Early in life, Theodora was an actress. Eventually, she met Justinian, and in 525, they married.

As empress, Theodora met with foreign envoys, wrote to foreign leaders, passed laws, and built churches. During one political crisis, Theodora even confiscated the property of the general

Belisarius. After she died in 548, Justinian was so depressed that he passed no major laws for the rest of his reign.

As her husband's steely adviser, Theodora had immense power. During the Nika Rebellion, she rallied Justinian to remain in the capital with a fiery speech:

My opinion is that now is a poor time for flight, even though it brings safety. For any man who has seen the light of day will also die, but one who has been an emperor cannot endure to be a fugitive. If now you wish to go, Emperor, nothing prevents you.

There is the sea, there are the steps to the boats. But take care that after you are safe, you do not find that you would gladly exchange that safety for death.

7.3 The Empire in Crises

After Justinian's death in 565, the empire suffered countless setbacks. There were street riots, religious quarrels, palace intrigues, and foreign dangers. Each time the empire moved to the edge of collapse, it found some way to revive only to face another crisis.

In-text Question

There were street riots, religious quarrels, palace intrigues, and _____ after Justinian's death.

     a. Foreign dangers

     b. Epidemic

     c. War

     d. shipwrecked

In-text Answer

     a

7.3.1 The Plague of Justinian

The first crisis actually began before Justinian's death. It was a disease that resembled what we now know as the bubonic plague. This horrifying illness hit Constantinople in the later years of Justinian's reign. The plague probably arrived from India on ships infested with rats.

Historians estimate that in 542, the worst year of the plague, 10,000 people were dying every day. The illness broke out repeatedly until around 700, when it finally faded. By that time, it had destroyed a huge percentage of the Byzantine population.

7.3.2 Attacks from East and West

From the very start of its rise to power, Byzantium faced constant challenges from foreign enemies. Lombards overran Justinian's conquests in the west. Avars, Slavs, and Bulgars made frequent raids on the northern borders. The powerful Sassanid Persians attacked relentlessly in the east.

The Persians and Avars struck against Constantinople itself in 626. With the rise of Islam, Arab armies attacked the city in 674 and once again in 717. Russians attempted invasions of the city three times between 860 and 1043. In the 11th century, the Turks took over the Muslim world and fought their way slowly into Byzantine territory.

The Byzantines used bribes, diplomacy, political marriages, and military power to keep their enemies at bay. In the seventh century, Emperor Heraclius reorganized the empire along military lines. Provinces became themes, or military districts. Each theme was run by a general who reported directly to the emperor.

These strategies, however, could not work forever. Slowly, the Byzantine Empire shrank under the impact of foreign attacks. By 1350, it was reduced to the tip of Anatolia and a strip of the Balkans. Yet thanks to its walls, its fleet, and its strategic location, Constantinople held out for another 100 years. Finally, the city fell to the Ottoman Turks in 1453.

7.4 A Divided Church

During the Byzantine Empire, Christianity underwent a dramatic development. Christianity had begun to develop differently in the Western and Eastern Roman Empires, due largely to the distance and lack of contact between the two regions. As the Eastern Empire became Byzantium and flourished, those differences grew and ultimately split apart the Church.

7.4.1 A Religious Split

Eastern Christianity built its heritage on the works of early Church fathers. One was Saint Basil, who, around 357, wrote rules for the life of monks. Here, Saint Basil describes how monks and Christians should behave:

The Christian should not be ostentatious [showy] in clothing or sandals, for all this is idle boasting. He should wear cheap clothes according to the need of the body. He should consume nothing beyond what is necessary or which tends to extravagance, for all this is abuse.

He should not strive for honour nor always seek the first place. Each one should hold all men above himself. He should not be disobedient. . . . He should not be desirous of money, nor treasure up unnecessary things to no avail.

He who approaches God ought to embrace poverty in all things, and be pierced with the fear of God.

Another significant figure was Saint John Chrysostom. As bishop of Constantinople from 398 to 404, Chrysostom was the **patriarch**, or leading bishop of the East. But even the patriarch bowed to the emperor. A controversy that tested the emperor's authority over religious matters broke out in the eighth century.

In 730, Emperor Leo III banned the use of **icons**, religious images used by Eastern Christians to aid their devotions. The emperor viewed the use of icons as idol worship. People responded with riots, and the clergy rebelled. In the West, the pope became involved in this eastern dispute and supported the use of icons.

One pope even ordered the **excommunication** of a Byzantine emperor—that is, he declared the emperor to be an outcast from the Church. In 843, more than 100 years after the controversy began, Empress Theodora restored icons to Eastern churches. Differences between the Eastern and Western churches, continued to grow.

In 1054, matters came to a head when the pope and the patriarch excommunicated each other in a dispute over religious doctrine. Shortly afterward, Christianity officially split between the Roman Catholic Church in the West and the Orthodox Church in the East.

7.4.2 The Conversion of the Slavs by Byzantine Missionaries

As West and East grew apart, the two traditions of Christianity competed for converts. Missionaries from the Orthodox Church, for example, took their form of Christianity to the Slavs, groups that inhabited the forests north of the Black Sea. Two of the most successful Eastern missionaries, Saint Methodius and Saint Cyril, worked among the Slavs in the ninth century.

Cyril and Methodius invented an alphabet for the Slavic languages. With an alphabet, Slavs would be able to read the Bible in their own tongues. ManySlavic languages, including Russian, are now written in what is called the **Cyrillic alphabet**. As these missionaries carried out their work, the Slavs themselves were creating a culture that would form one of history's most influential countries: Russia.

7.5 The Decline and fall of the Byzantine Empire (1025-1453)

The Byzantine Empire, much like the Roman Empire, faced a formidable array of external enemies. However, it was largely internal decay which destroyed both empires. The political and economic stability of the empire by 1000 A.D. led to two lines of development which combined to trigger a pair of interlocking feedback cycles that, in turn, eventually wrecked the empire.
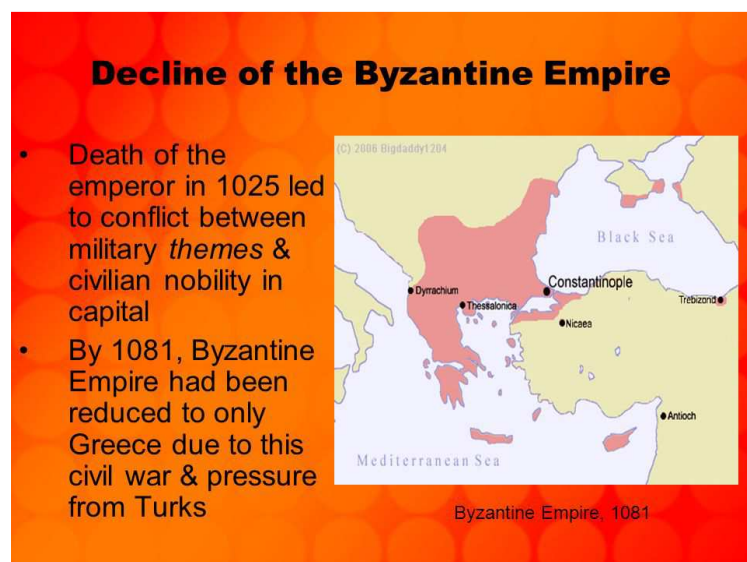
Figure 7.3: Byzantine Empire Decline

7.5.1 The Beginning of Decline: A Vicious Cycle

A pair of interlocking vicious cycles combined to trigger off crises which eventually weakened the empire. First of all, there was the free peasantry upon which the government depended for taxes and recruits. When the empire had been under constant attack, land had been a poor investment.

But once stability started to return in the eighth century, many nobles looked greedily upon the farmlands controlled by the free peasantry. There was a constant battle as the nobles tried to get these lands and enserf the peasants. The government, seeing the free peasantry as the backbone of its economy and defence, did what it could to defend them.

Basil II in particular fought long and hard to defend the peasants, but even he was unable to break the power of the nobles. Secondly, and unfortunately for the peasants, not all emperors were strong or even concerned enough to defend the peasants.

This was especially true after Basil II's death in 1025 when the empire was at its height and a strong military seemed less necessary. Therefore, a series of weak rulers with little military experience succeeded Basil. During hard times, such as famine, nobles would take the chance to dispossess the peasants.

This would lead to the decline of the free peasantry and army, which in turn forced the state to rely more and more on expensive foreign mercenaries. This further increased the tax burden on the peasants, which caused more of them to lose their lands, leading to more reliance on mercenaries and so on.

This vicious cycle weakened the economy and tax base to the point where the Byzantines could not even afford to maintain their navy. Therefore, they asked such rising Italian city-states as Venice and Genoa to fight their naval battles for them. The price they paid was to lower and eventually eliminate the 10% import toll the Venetians and Genoese would normally pay.

This allowed them to undersell Byzantine goods, which lowered government revenues from trade as well as ruining the tightly run guilds of Byzantine artisans and craftsmen. The even lower revenues forced the Byzantines to rely even more on the Italians, who then got an even tighter stranglehold on the Byzantine economy, thus repeating the cycle.

This also fed back into the first feedback cycle as the loss of money from lower tolls forced the government to raise taxes further and create an even greater burden for the peasants. The

combined effects of these cycles led to growing internal decay within the empire and growing tensions with the Italian city-states who were taking over more of the empire's trade.

Along with these processes, events elsewhere were closing in on the Byzantines in the tenth and eleventh centuries. By 1070, a new and more aggressive enemy, the Seljuk Turks, had replaced the Arabs as the main Muslim threat to the Byzantines. In 107l, at the battle of Manzikert, the Byzantines found out that, besides being expensive, mercenaries can also be unreliable.

The result was a disastrous defeat when their Norman and Turkish mercenaries abandoned them without even fighting, leading to the loss of part of the Balkans and most of Asia Minor, the very heart of the empire. This, along with the declining economy described above, generated steady internal decay for the empire.

7.5.2 The First Crusade

Desperate for help, the new emperor, Alexius I, made a plea to Western Europe for mercenaries. What he got instead was the First Crusade, a religious war with the goal of taking Palestine and Jerusalem from the Seljuk Turks. Alexius skillfully handled this wave of half civilized Westerners as they passed through his empire on the way to Palestine.

He even managed to use them to recover part of Asia Minor. Alexius and his successors, John I and Manuel I did manage to stabilize the empire's frontiers and recover some ground. Unfortunately, in 1176, Manuel and his army were ambushed and severely defeated by the Turks at the battle of Myriocephalum. The lands regained over the last century were lost once again, showing how hollow the Byzantine recovery actually was.

Meanwhile, in addition to the Italian stranglehold on the Byzantine economy, growing cultural and religious differences led to rising tensions between the Byzantine East and Latin West. These tensions and the West's growing involvement in Byzantine affairs also helped lead to the First Crusade.

All the while, contact with the West kept growing, and with it friction between the two cultures. As the Italian city-states' stranglehold on the Byzantine Empire's trade grew, so did hostility against Italian merchants, who numbered some 60,000 in Constantinople alone.

Cultural differences, such as how the two cultures carried on war and diplomacy, and a religious schism which split the Roman Catholic and Greek Orthodox Churches permanently in 1054, just added to the mutual animosity. In the late 1100s riots broke out in various Byzantine cities, causing the massacre of numerous Italian merchants.

A major backlash came from Western Europe in 1204 when Venice directed the soldiers of the Fourth Crusade to Constantinople, which they stormed and brutally sacked. A short lived Crusader state was set up but the Byzantines recaptured Constantinople in 126l. However, irreparable damage had been done.

The Venetians still held strategic Aegean islands, and the Crusaders still controlled parts of Greece. Furthermore, much of the wealth and splendor of Constantinople had been hauled off to Venice and Western Europe.

7.5.3 The Fall: Ottoman Invasion

The energy and res the Byzantines used in recovering from this blow would have been better spent in meeting a potent new threat from the East: the Ottoman Turks. From 1300 onwards, the Ottomans steadily encroached on Byzantine lands in Asia Minor. In 1345 they crossed into Europe never to leave.

The Byzantine state crumbled piece by piece into a pathetic remnant of itself. Finally in 1453, Constantinople, the last remnant of the old Roman Empire, fell to the Turks after a desperate and heroic siege. With that siege went the last remnants of the Roman Empire.

Summary of Study Session 7

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. In 527Emperor **Justinian** got to the throne of the Eastern Empire and ruled almost all the territory that Rome had ever ruled.

2. He created a single, uniform code known as the Justinian Code thatserved the Byzantine Empire for 900 years.

3. Justinian launched the most ambitious public building program ever seen in the Roman world.

4. After Justinian's death in 565, the empire suffered countless setbacks. There were street riots, religious quarrels, palace intrigues, and foreign dangers. Each time the empire moved to the edge of collapse, it found some way to revive.

5. As the Eastern Empire became Byzantium and flourished, the Eastern Church begun to develop differently from the Western Christianity; those differences grew and ultimately split apart the Church.

6. Political and economic stability of the empire by 1000 A.D. led to a vicious cycle that, in turn, eventually wrecked the empire.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 7

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 7: For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

> • Justinian • Justinian Code • Hagia Sophia • patriarch • icon • excommunication
> • Cyrillic alphabet

SAQ 7.1 (tests learning outcome 7.1)

How did Justinian succeed in creating a New Rome?

SAQ 7.2 (tests learning outcome 7.2)

Identify and explain four works that the Justinian code consisted of?

SAQ 7.3 (tests learning outcome 7.3)

What the Plague of Justinian?

SAQ 7.4 (tests learning outcome 7.4)

What do you think was the most important issue dividing the two churches?

SAQ 7.5 (tests learning outcome 7.5)

Identify the factors responsible for the decline and fall of the Byzantine Empire

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 7

SAQ 7:
• **Justinian:** A high-ranking Byzantine nobleman who succeeded hisuncle to the throne of the Eastern Empire in 527.
• **Justinian Code:** A single, uniform code of law created from the Roman Law
• **Hagia Sophia:** The name of a church which had been destroyed in riots that swept Constantinople in 532 and was rebuilt by Justinian; many visitors hailed it as the most splendid church in the Christian world.
• **Patriarch** The leading bishop of the Eastern Church

• **Icon:** Religious images used by Eastern Christians to aid their devotions.

• **Excommunication:** To declare someone to be an outcast from the Church.

• **Cyrillic alphabet:** An alphabet for the Slavic languages invented by Saint Cyril and Saint Methodius

SAQ 7.1: Justinian in 533 sent his best general, Belisarius to recover North Africa from the invading Germanic tribes. Belisarius and hisforces quickly succeeded. Two years later, Belisarius attacked Rome and seized it from a group known asthe Ostrogoths. But the city faced repeated attacks by other Germanic tribes. Over the next 16 years, Rome changed hands six times. After numerous campaigns, Justinian's armies won nearly all of Italy and parts of Spain.

SAQ 7.2: 1. The *Code* contained nearly 5,000 Roman laws that were still considered useful for the Byzantine Empire.

2. The *Digest* quoted and summarized the opinions of Rome's greatest legal thinkers about the laws. This massive work ran to a total of 50 volumes.

3. The *Institutes* was a textbook that told law students how to use the laws.

4. The *Novellae*(New Laws) presented legislation passed after 534.

SAQ 7.3: It was a disease that Constantinople in the later years of Justinian's reign. The plague probably arrived from India on ships infested with rats. Historians estimate that in 542, the worst year of the plague, 10,000 people were dying every day. The illness broke out repeatedly until around 700, when it finally faded.

SAQ 7.4: The most important issue dividing the two churches was the issue of doctrine. In 1054, matters came to a head when the pope and the patriarch excommunicated each other in a dispute over religious doctrine. Shortly afterward, Christianity officially split between the Roman Catholic Church in the West and the Orthodox Church in the East.

SAQ 7.5:

- Greedinessof nobles over the farmlands controlled by the free peasantry.
- Decline of the free peasantry and army
- Hard times, such as famine
- Reliance on expensive foreign mercenaries.
- Increased tax burden on the peasants, which caused more of them to lose their lands, leading to more reliance on mercenaries.

- The rise of new more aggressive enemy, the Muslims

- Unreliability of mercenaries who abandoned them without even fighting

- Declining economy which generated steady internal decay for the empire.

- The Italian stranglehold on the Byzantine economy

- The Crusades

- The Ottoman invasion

Study Session 8: The Age of Faith and the Crusades

The Age of Faith

- Spiritual Revival
  - Starting in the 900s, monasteries help bring about a spiritual revival
  - Reformers help restore and expand Church power

Coat of Arms of Cluny Abbey: "Gules two keys in *saltire* the wards upwards and outwards or overall a sword in pale argent".

Founded in 910, this is the Benedictine Abbey of Cluny as it looked in 2004.

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about theage of faith and the crusades it inspired as well as the effects of the crusades. Some historians have called the period in Western Europe between 500 and 1000 a "dark age." Magyars seeking plunder pushed up from the Danube River region. Vikings raided western European church monasteries. These groups destroyed many of these centers of learning. Around the 900s, however, a new spirit invaded the church and brought about a spiritual revival in the clergy. Filled with new energy, the church began restructuring itself and started massive building programs to create new places of worship.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 8

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

8.1 Define and use correctly all the key words in bold

8.2 Explain the stages in the birth of a new age called the age of faith

8.3 Describe the rise of cathedrals as the representation of the City of God

8.4 Explain the stages as well as the goals of the crusades

8.5 Explain the events that led to the decline of the crusades

8.1 The Age of Faith

Monasteries led the spiritual revival. The monastery founded at Cluny in France in 910 was especially important. The reformers there wanted to return to the basic principles of the Christian religion. To do so, they established new religious orders

Influenced by the religious devotion and reverence for God shown by the new monasteries, the popes began to reform the Church. They restored and expanded its power and authority. A new age of religious feeling was born—the Age of Faith. Still, many problems troubled the Church.

Age of Faith

- The Church revival of this period began the "Age of Faith" (about 1000A.D.)
- **Three problems of the Church:**
1. **Priests were marrying**
2. **Simony-selling Church positions**
3. **Lay Investiture**
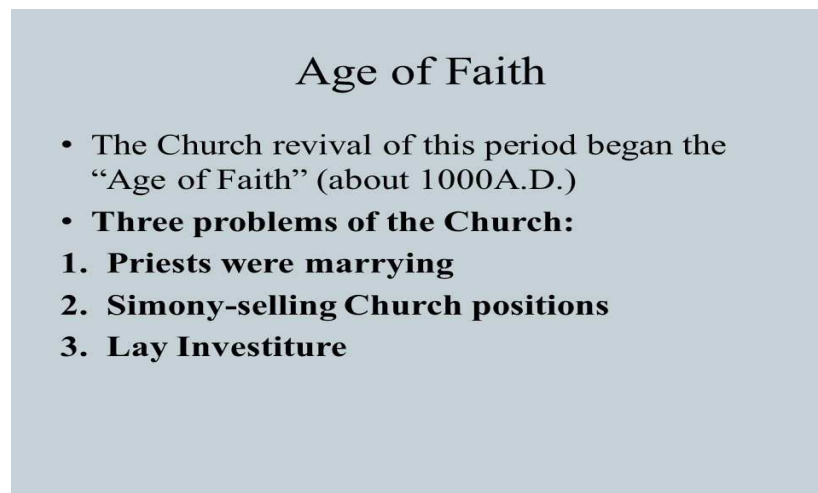
Figure 8.1: Age of Faith

8.1.1 Problems in the Church

Some priests were nearly illiterate and could barely read their prayers. Some of the popes were men of questionable morals. Many bishops and abbots cared more about their positions as feudal lords than about their duties as spiritual leaders. Reformers were most distressed by three main issues.

- Many village priests married and had families. Such marriages were against Church rulings.
- Bishops sold positions in the Church, a practice called **simony.**
- Using the practice of lay investiture, kings appointed church bishops.
- Church reformers believed the Church alone should appoint bishops.

8.1.2 Reform and Church Organization

Pope Leo IX and Pope Gregory VII enforced Church laws against simony and the marriage of priests. The popes who followed Leo and Gregory reorganized the Church to continue the policy of reform. In the 1100s and 1200s, the Church was restructured to resemble a kingdom, with the pope at its head. The pope's group of advisers was called the papal Curia.

The Curia also acted as a court. It developed canon law (the law of the Church) on matters such as marriage, divorce, and inheritance. The Curia also decided cases based on these laws. Diplomats for the pope traveled through Europe dealing with bishops and kings. In this way the popes established their authority throughout Europe. The Church collected taxes in the form of tithes.

These consumed one-tenth the yearly income from every Christian family. The Church used some of the money to perform social services such as caring for the sick and the poor. In fact, the Church operated most hospitals in medieval Europe.

In-text Question

Pope Leo IX and Pope Gregory VII enforced Church laws against simony and the marriage of priests. TRUE OR FALSE

In-text Answer

True

8.1.3 New Religious Orders

In the early 1200s, wandering friars traveled from place to place preaching and spreading the Church's ideas. Like monks, friars took vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience. Unlike monks, friars did not live apart from the world in monasteries. Instead, they preached to the poor throughout Europe's towns and cities.

Friars owned nothing and lived by begging. Dominic, a Spanish priest, founded the Dominicans, one of the earliest orders of friars. Because Dominic emphasized the importance of study, many Dominicans were scholars. Francis of Assisi, an Italian, founded another order of friars, the Franciscans. Francis treated all creatures, including animals, as if they were his spiritual brothers and sisters.

Women played an important role in the spiritual revival. Women joined the Dominicans, Benedictines, and Franciscans. In 1212, a woman named Clare and her friend Francis of Assisi founded the Franciscan order for women. It was known as the Poor Clares.

In Germany, Hildegard ofBingen, a mystic and musician, founded a Benedictine convent in 1147. Like friars, these women lived in poverty and worked to help the poor and sick. Unlike the friars, however, women were not allowed to travel from place to place as preachers.

8.2 Cathedrals—Cities of God

During the medieval period most people worshiped in small churches near their homes. Larger churches called cathedrals were built in city areas. The cathedral was viewed as the representation of the City of God. As such, it was decorated with all the richness that Christians could offer.

Between about 800 and 1100, churches were built in the Romanesque style. The churches had round arches and a heavy roof held up by thick walls and pillars. The thick walls had tiny windows that let in little light.

Figure 8.2 Medieval Cathedrals

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8.2.1 A New Style of Church Architecture

A new spirit in the church and access to more money from the growing wealth of towns and from trade helped fuel the building of churches in several European countries. In the early 1100s, a new style of architecture, known as **Gothic**, evolved throughout medieval Europe.

The term *Gothic* comes from a Germanic tribe named the Goths. Unlike the heavy, gloomy Romanesque buildings, Gothic cathedrals thrust upward as if reaching toward heaven. Light streamed in through huge stained glass windows. Other arts of the medieval world were evident around or in the Gothic cathedral—sculpture, woodcarvings, and stained glass windows.

All of these elements were meant to inspire the worshiper with the magnificence of God. Soon Gothic cathedrals were built in many towns of France. In Paris, the vaulted ceiling of the Cathedral of Notre Dame eventually rose to more than 100 feet. Then Chartres, Reims, Amiens, and Beauvais built even taller cathedrals. In all, nearly 500 Gothic churches were built between 1170 and 1270.

8.2.2 Gothic Architecture

The master builders in France, where the Gothic style originated, developed techniques of structural engineering that were key to Gothic architecture: ribbed vaults that supported the roof's weight, flying buttresses that transferred weight to thick, exterior walls, pointed arches that framed huge stained glasswindows, and tall spires that seemed to be pointing to heaven.

The cathedral of Chartres was a masterpiece of Gothic architecture. The cathedral has hundreds of sculptures. The stone carvings that frame every door illustrate Bible stories.

8.3 The Crusades

The Age of Faith also inspired wars of conquest. In 1093, the Byzantine emperor Alexius Comnenus sent an appeal to Robert, Count of Flanders. The emperor asked for help against the Muslim Turks. They were threatening to conquer his capital, Constantinople:

> Come then, with all your people and give battle with all your strength, so that all this treasure shall not fall into the hands of the Turks. . . .

Therefore act while there is still time lest the kingdom of the Christians shall vanish from your sight and, what is more important, the Holy Sepulcher [the tomb where Jesus was buried] shall vanish. And in your coming you will find your reward in heaven, and if you do not come, God will condemn you.

Pope **Urban II**also read that letter. Shortly after this appeal, he issued a call for what he termed a "holy war," a **Crusade**, to gain control of the Holy Land. Over the next 300 years, a number of such Crusades were launched.
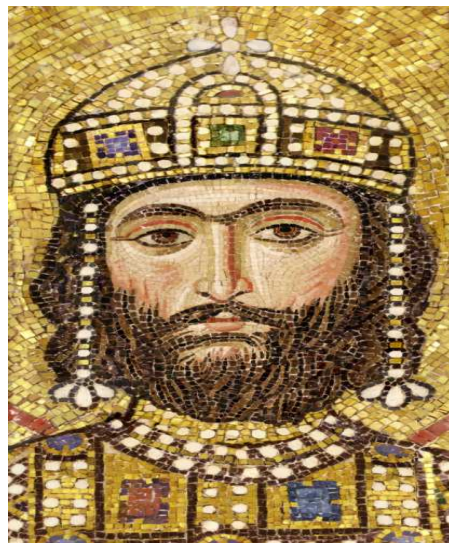
Figure 8.3   Byzantine emperor Alexius Comnenus

8.3.1 Goals of the Crusades

The Crusades had economic, social, and political goals as well as religious motives. Muslims controlled Palestine (the Holy Land) and threatened Constantinople. The Byzantine emperor in Constantinople appealed to Christians to stop Muslim attacks. In addition, the pope wanted to reclaim Palestine and reunite Christendom, which had split into Eastern and Western branches in 1054.

In addition, kings and the Church both saw the Crusades as an opportunity to get rid of quarrelsome knights who fought each other. These knights threatened the peace of the kingdoms, as well as Church property. Others who participated in the Crusades were younger sons who, unlike eldest sons, did not stand to inherit their father's property. They were looking for land and a position in society, or for adventure.

In the later Crusades, merchants profited by making cash loans to finance the journey. They also leased their ships for a hefty fee to transport armies over the Mediterranean Sea. In addition, the merchants of Pisa, Genoa, and Venice hoped to win control of key trade routes to India, Southeast Asia, and China from Muslim traders.

8.3.2 First and Second Crusades

Pope Urban's call brought a tremendous outpouring of religious feeling and support for the Crusade. According to the pope, those who died on Crusade were assured of a place in heaven. With red crosses sewn on tunics worn over their armor and the battle cry of "God wills it!" on their lips, knights and commoners were fired by religious zeal and became Crusaders.

By early 1097, three armies of knights and people of all classes had gathered outside Constantinople. Most of the Crusaders were French, but Bohemians, Germans, Englishmen, Scots, Italians, and Spaniards came as well. The Crusaders were ill-prepared for war in this First Crusade. Many knew nothing of the geography, climate, or culture of the Holy Land. They had no grand strategy to capture Jerusalem.

The nobles argued among themselves and couldn't agree on a leader. Finally an army of 12,000 (less than one-fourth of the original army) approached Jerusalem. The Crusaders besieged the city for over a month. On July 15, 1099, they captured the city. All in all, the Crusaders had won a narrow strip of land. It stretched about 650 miles from Edessa in the north to Jerusalem in the south.

Four feudal Crusader states were carved out of this territory, each ruled by a European noble. The Crusaders' states were extremely vulnerable to Muslim counterattack. In 1144, Edessa was conquered by the Turks. The Second Crusade was organized to recapture the city. But its armies straggled home in defeat. In 1187, Europeans were shocked to learn that Jerusalem itself had fallen to a Kurdish warrior and Muslim leader **Saladin**

8.3.3 The Third Crusade

The Third Crusade to recapture Jerusalem was led by three of Europe's most powerful monarchs. They were Philip II (Augustus) of France, German emperor Frederick I (Barbarossa), and the English king, **Richard the Lion-Hearted**. Philip argued with Richard and went home.

Barbarossa drowned on the journey. So, Richard was left to lead the Crusaders in an attempt to regain the Holy Land from Saladin. Both Richard and Saladin were brilliant warriors. After many battles, the two agreed to a truce in 1192. Jerusalem remained under Muslim control. In return, Saladin promised that unarmed Christian pilgrims could freely visit the city's holy places.

8.4 The Decline of the Crusading Spirit

In 1204, the Fourth Crusade to capture Jerusalem failed. The knights did not reach the Holy Land. Instead, they ended up looting the city of Constantinople. In the 1200s, four more Crusades to free the holy land were also unsuccessful. The religious spirit of the First Crusade faded, and the search for personal gain grew. In two later Crusades, armies marched not to the Holy Land but to Egypt.

The Crusaders intended to weaken Muslim forces there before going to the Holy Land. But none of these attempts conquered much land.

8.4.1 The Children's Crusade

The Children's Crusade took place in 1212. In two different movements, thousands of children set out to conquer Jerusalem. One group in France was led by 12-year-old Stephen of Cloyes. An estimated 30,000 children under 18 joined him. They were armed only with the belief that God would give them Jerusalem. On their march south to the Mediterranean, many died from cold and starvation.

The rest drowned at sea or were sold into slavery. In Germany, Nicholas of Cologne gathered about 20,000 children and young adults. They began marching toward Rome. Thousands died in the cold and treacherous crossing of the Alps. Those who survived the trip to Italy finally did meet the pope. He told them to go home and wait until they were older. About 2,000 survived the return trip to Germany. A few boarded a ship for the Holy Land and were never heard of again.

8.4.2 A Spanish Crusade

In Spain, Muslims (called Moors) controlled most of the country until the 1100s. The **Reconquista** was a long effort by the Spanish to drive the Muslims out of Spain. By the late 1400s, the Muslims held only the tiny kingdom of Granada. In 1492, Granada finally fell to the Christian army of Ferdinand and Isabella, the Spanish monarchs.

To unify their country under Christianity and to increase their power, Isabella and Ferdinand made use of the **Inquisition**. This was a court held by the Church to suppress heresy. Heretics were people whose religious beliefs differed from the teachings of the Church. Many Jews and Muslims in Spain converted to Christianity during the late 1400s. Even so, the inquisitors suspected these Jewish and Muslim converts of heresy.

A person suspected of heresy might be questioned for weeks and even tortured. Once suspects confessed, they were often burned at the stake. In 1492,the monarchs expelled all practicing Jews and Muslims from Spain.

8.5 The Effects of the Crusades

The Crusades are a forceful example of the power of the Church during the medieval period. The call to go to the Holy Land encouraged thousands to leave their homes and travel to faraway lands. For those who stayed home, especially women, it meant a chance to manage affairs on the estates or to operate shops and inns.

European merchants who lived and traded in the Crusader states expanded trade between Europe and Southwest Asia. The goods imported from Southwest Asia included spices, fruits, and cloth.

This trade with the West benefited both Christians and Muslims. However, the failure of later Crusades also lessened the power of the pope. The Crusades weakened the feudal nobility and increased the power of kings. Thousands of knights and other participants lost their lives and fortunes.

The fall of Constantinople weakened the Byzantine Empire. For Muslims, the intolerance and prejudice displayed by Christians in the Holy Land left behind a legacy of bitterness and hatred. This legacy continues to the present. For Christians and Jews who remained in the Muslim controlled region after the fall of the Crusader states, relations with the Muslim leadership worsened.

For Jews in Europe, the Crusades were a time of increased persecution. The Crusades grew out of religious fervor, feudalism, and chivalry, which came together with explosive energy. This same energy led to the growth of trade, towns, and universities in medieval Europe.

Summary of Study Session 8

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. A new age called The Age of Faith evolved inspiring new religious orders in Europe
2. A New Style of Church Architecture called gothic cathedrals also developed.
3. The Age of Faith also inspired wars of conquest called the Crusades.
4. The Crusades had economic, social, and political goals as well as religious motives.
5. In 1204, the Fourth Crusade to capture Jerusalem failed and this marked the beginning of the decline of the crusades.
6. The Crusades had both positive and negative effects on the church and the European states and societies.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 8

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 8: For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- simony • Gothic • Urban II • Crusade • Saladin • Richard the Lion-Hearted • Reconquista • Inquisition

SAQ 8.1 (tests learning outcome 8.1)

What were three main causes of the need to reform the Church?

SAQ 8.2 (tests learning outcome 8.2)

Which of the events of the Age of Faith do you think was most important to the Church? Explain.

SAQ 8.3 (tests learning outcome 8.3)

List the goals of the Crusades

SAQ 8.4 (tests learning outcome 8.4)

Which Crusade was the only successful one?

SAQ 8.5 (tests learning outcome 8.5)

What, if anything, had the Crusaders gained by the end of the Second Crusade?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 8

SAQ 8:

- **Simony:** A practice in which Bishops sold positions in the Church
- **Gothic:** A new style of architecture that evolved throughout medieval Europe in the early 1100s.
- **Urban II:** A Pope that issued a call for the Crusade.
- **Crusade:** A "holy war," fought by Europeans to gain control of the Holy Land.
- **Saladin:** Saladin was the most famous Muslim leader of the 1100s. His own people considered him a most devout man. Even the Christians regarded him as honest and brave. He wished to chase the Crusaders back into their own territories.
- He said: *I think that when God grants me victory over the rest of Palestine, I shall divide my territories, make a will stating my wishes, then set sail on this sea for their far-off lands and pursue the Franks there, so as to free the earth from anyone who does not believe in Allah, or die in the attempt.*
- **Richard the Lion-Hearted:**Richard was an English king noted for his good looks, charm, courage, grace—and ruthlessness. When he heard that Jerusalem had fallen to the Muslims, he was filled with religious zeal. He joined the Third Crusade, leaving others to rule England in his place. Richard mounted a siege on the city of Acre. Saladin's army was in the hills overlooking the city, but it was not strong enough to defeat the Crusaders.
- When finally the city fell, Richard had the Muslim survivors—some 3,000 men, women, and children—slaughtered. The Muslim army watched helplessly from the hills.
- **Reconquista:**A long effort by the Spanish to drive the Muslims out of Spain.
- **Inquisition:** A court held by the Church to suppress heresy in Spain in the 1400s

SAQ 8.1:

- Many village priests married and had families. Such marriages were against Church rulings.
- Bishops sold positions in the Church, a practice called simony.
- Using the practice of lay investiture, kings appointed church bishops.

SAQ 8.2:

The Crusades, because of its lasting legacy which continues to thepresent.

SAQ 8.3:

- To flush out Muslims from Palestine and reclaim it
- To reunite Christendom, which had split into Eastern and Western branches in 1054
- To get rid of quarrelsome knights who fought each other. These knights threatened the peace of the kingdoms, as well as Church property.
- It was an opportunity for younger sons who, unlike eldest sons, did not stand to inherit their father's property to obtain land and a position in society, or for adventure.
- In the later Crusades, merchants supported the crusades to make profit through cash loans to finance the journey. They also leased their ships for a hefty fee to transport armies over the Mediterranean Sea.
- In addition, the merchants of Pisa, Genoa, and Venice hoped to win control of key trade routes to India, Southeast Asia, and China from Muslim traders.

SAQ 8.4:

The Third Crusade to recapture Jerusalem led by three of Europe's most powerful monarchs: Philip II (Augustus) of France, German emperor Frederick I (Barbarossa), and the English king, Richard the Lion-Hearted.

SAQ 8.5:

- For those who stayed home, especially women, it meant a chance to manage affairs on the estates or to operateshops and inns.
- European merchants who lived and traded in the Crusader states expanded trade between Europe and Southwest Asia. The goods imported from Southwest Asia included spices, fruits, and cloth.

Study Session 9: Changes in Medieval Society

Changes in Medieval Society

- **A Growing Food Supply**
- **Development of Guilds**
- **The Commercial Revolution**
- **Urban Life Flourishes (Growth of Towns & Cities**
- **Revival of Learning**

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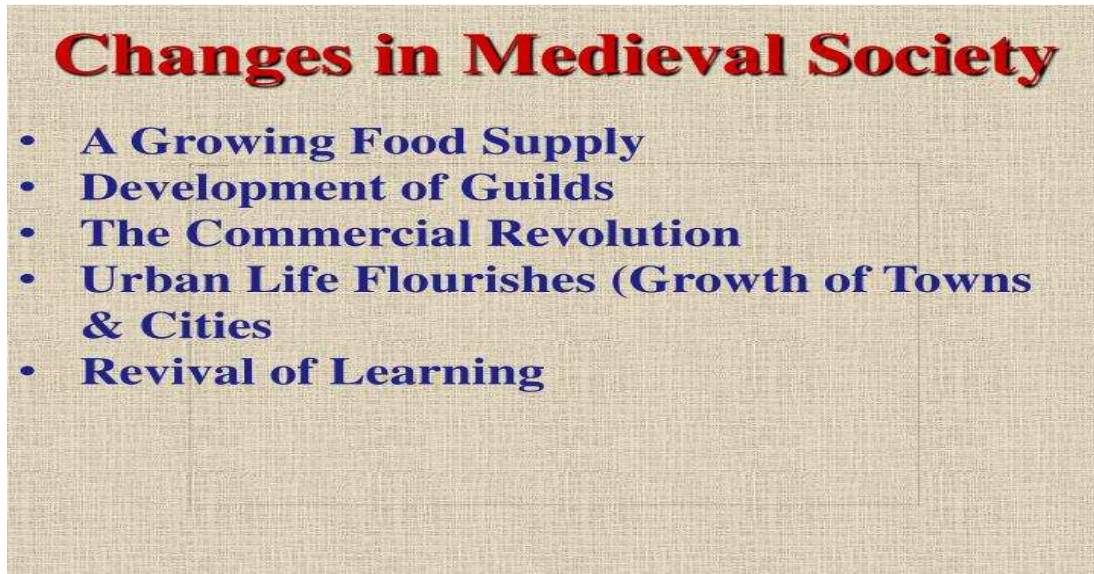
Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the socio-economic changes in medieval Europe, which includes commercial revolution, guilds that evolved in Europe among others.

While Church reform, cathedral building, and the Crusades were taking place, other important changes were occurring in medieval society. Between 1000 and 1300, agriculture, trade, and finance made significant advances as towns and cities grew. This was in part due to the growing population and territorial expansion of Western Europe.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 9

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

9.1 Describe the development new methods of growing food crops

9.2 Describe the types of guilds the evolved in Europe

9.3 Describe the new Commercial Revolution and the changes it brought about

9.4 Explain how Towns grew and flourished and the role played by merchants

9.5 Explain the factors that aided revival of learning

9.1 A Growing Food Supply

Europe's great revival would have been impossible without better ways of farming. Expanding civilization required an increased food supply. A warmer climate, which lasted from about 800 to 1200, brought improved farm production. Farmers began to cultivate lands in regions once too cold to grow crops. They also developed new methods to take advantage of more available land.

Figure 9.1: Food supply in medieval time

For hundreds of years, peasants had depended on oxen to pull their plows. Oxen lived on the poorest straw and stubble, so they were easy to keep. Horses needed better food, but a team of horses could plow three times as much land in a day as a team of oxen. Before farmers could use horses, however, a better harness was needed. Sometime before 900, farmers in Europe began using a harness that fitted across the horse's chest, enabling it to pull a plow.

As a result, horses gradually replaced oxen for plowing and for pulling wagons. All over Europe, axes rang as the great forests were cleared for new fields.

9.1.2 The Three-Field System

Around A.D. 800, some villages began to organize their lands into three fields instead of two. Two of the fields were planted and the other lay fallow (resting) for a year. Under this new **three-field system**, farmers could grow crops on two-thirds of their land each year, not just on half of it. As a result, food production increased.

Villagers had more to eat. Well-fed people, especially children, could better resist disease and live longer, and as a result the European population grew dramatically.

Box 9.1:Growing Food Supply
▪ Prior to changing from oxen to horses a new form of harness had to be invented
▪ Use of horses will replace the use of oxen
▪ Food production increased with the development of the three field system
▪ With more food the production grew stronger

9.2 The Guilds

A second change in the European economy was the development of the guild. A **guild** was an organization of individuals in the same business or occupation working to improve the economic and social conditions of its members. The first guilds were merchant guilds. Merchants banded together to control the number of goods being traded and to keep prices up. They also provided security in trading and reduced losses.

About the same time, skilled artisans, such as wheelwrights, glassmakers, winemakers, tailors, and druggists, began craft guilds. In most crafts, both husband and wife worked at the family trade. In a few crafts, especially for cloth making, women formed the majority. The guilds set standards for quality of work, wages, and working conditions.

For example, bakers were required to sell loaves of bread of a standard size and weight. The guilds also created plans for supervised training of new workers. By the 1000s, artisans and craftspeople were manufacturing goods by hand for local and long-distance trade.

More and better products were now available to buyers in small towns, in bigger cities, and at trade fairs. Guilds became powerful forces in the medieval economy. The wealth they accumulated helped them establish influence over the government and the economy of towns and cities.

Craft guilds formed an important part of town life during the medieval period. They trained young people in a skilled job, regulated the quality of goods sold, and were major forces in community life. Parents paid for the training of an apprentice; he lived with a master and his family.

He was required to obey the master and had to be trained between 2 and 7 years. He was not allowed to marry during training. When done with training he progressed to journeyman.

A Journeyman(Day Worker)worked for a master to earn a salary; he worked 6 days a week. He needed to produce a masterpiece (his finest work) to become a master. He had to be accepted by the guild to become a master. A master owned his own shop, worked with other masters to protect their trade and sometimes served in civic government.

In-text Question

A **guild** was an organization of individuals in the same business or occupation working to improve the economic and social conditions of its members. True or False.

In-text Answer

True

9.3 Commercial Revolution

Just as agriculture was expanding and craftsmanship changing, so were trade and finance. Increased availability of trade goods and new ways of doing business changed life in Europe. Taken together, this expansion of trade and business is called the **Commercial Revolution**.

Figure 9.2: Commercial revolution during the medieval

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9.3.1 Fairs and Trade

Most trade took place in towns. Peasants from nearby manors traveled to town on fair days, hauling items to trade. Great fairs were held several times a year, usually during religious festivals, when many people would be in town. People visited the stalls set up by merchants from all parts of Europe.

Cloth was the most common trade item. Other items included bacon, salt, honey, cheese, wine, leather, dyes, knives, and ropes. Such local markets met all the needs of daily life for a small community. No longer was everything produced on a self-sufficient manor. More goods from foreign lands became available.

Trade routes spread across Europe from Flanders to Italy. Italian merchant ships traveled the Mediterranean to ports in Byzantium such as Constantinople.

They also traveled to Muslim ports along the North African coast. Trade routes were opened to Asia, in part by the Crusades. Increased business at markets and fairs made merchants willing to take chances on buying merchandise that they could sell at a profit. Merchants then reinvested the profits in more goods.

9.3.2 Business and Banking

As traders moved from fair to fair, they needed large amounts of cash or credit and ways to exchange many types of currencies. Enterprising merchants found ways to solve these problems. For example, bills of exchange established exchange rates between different coinage systems. Letters of credit between merchants eliminated the need to carry large amounts of cash and made trading easier.

Trading firms and associations formed to offer these services to their groups. Merchants looked for new markets and opportunities to make a profit. Merchants first had to purchase goods from distant places. To do so they had to borrow money, but the Church forbade Christians from lending money at interest, a sin called usury.

So money lending and banking became the occupation of many of Europe's Jews. Over time, the Church relaxed its rule on usury and Christians entered the banking business. Banking became an important business, especially in Italy.

Figure 9.4: Business and Banking

9.3.3 Changes in Society

The changes brought about by the Commercial Revolution were slow, yet they had a major effect on the lives of Europeans. As you can see in the diagram, increased trade brought many changes to aspects of society. Two of the most important changes involved what people did to earn a living and where they lived. As towns attracted workers, the towns grew into cities. Life in the cities was different from life in the sleepy villages or on manors.

9.4 Flourishing of Urban Life

Scholars estimate that between 1000 and 1150, the population of Western Europe rose from around 30 million to about 42 million. Towns grew and flourished. Compared to great cities like Constantinople, European towns were unsophisticated and tiny. Europe's largest city, Paris, probably had no more than 60,000 people by the year 1200.

A typical town in medieval Europe had only about 1,500 to 2,500 people. Even so, these small communities became a powerful force for change in Europe.

Figure 9.5: Tree boost in urban life

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9.4.1 Trade and Towns

By the later middle Ages, trade was the very lifeblood of the new towns, which sprung up at ports and crossroads, on hilltops, and along rivers. As trade grew, towns all over Europe swelled with people.

The excitement and bustle of towns drew many people. But there were some drawbacks to living in a medieval town. Streets were narrow, filled with animals and their waste. With no sewers, most people dumped household and human waste into the street in front of the house.

Most people never bathed, and their houses lacked fresh air, light, and clean water. Because houses were built of wood with thatched roofs, they were a constant fire hazard. Nonetheless, many people chose to move to towns to pursue the economic and social opportunities they offered. People were no longer content with their old feudal existence on manors or in tiny villages. Even though legally bound to their lord's manor, many serfs ran away.

According to custom, a serf could now become free by living within a town for a year and a day. A saying of the time went, "Town air makes you free." Many of these runaway serfs, now free people, made better lives for themselves in towns.

9.4.2 Merchant Class and the Shift in Social Order

The merchants and craftspeople of medieval towns did not fit into the traditional medieval social order of noble, clergy, and peasant. At first, towns came under the authority of feudal lords, who used their authority to levy fees, taxes, and rents. As trade expanded, the **burghers**, or merchant-class town dwellers, resented this interference in their trade and commerce.

They organized themselves and demanded privileges. These included freedom from certain kinds of tolls and the right to govern the town. At times they fought against their landlords and won these rights by force.

9.5 The Revival of Learning

During the Crusades, European contact with Muslims and Byzantines greatly expanded. This contact brought a new interest in learning, especially in the works of Greek philosophers. The Muslim and Byzantine libraries housed copies of these writings. Most had disappeared during the centuries following the fall of Rome and the invasions of Western Europe.

In-text Question

During the Crusades, European contact with Muslims and Byzantines collapsed. True of False

In-text Answer

False

9.5.1 The Muslim Connection

In the 1100s, Christian scholars from Europe began visiting Muslim libraries in Spain. Few Western scholars knew Greek but most did know Latin. So Jewish scholars living in Spain translated the Arabic versions of works by Aristotle and other Greek writers into Latin. All at once, Europeans acquired a huge new body of knowledge.

This included science, philosophy, law, mathematics, and other fields. In addition, the Crusaders brought back to Europe superior Muslim technology in ships, navigation, and weapons.

9.5.2 Scholars and the University

At the center of the growth of learning stood a new European institution—the university. The word *university* originally referred to a group of scholars meeting wherever they could. People, not buildings, made up the medieval university. Universities arose at Paris and at Bologna, Italy, by the end of the 1100s.

Others followed at the English town of Oxford and at Salerno, Italy. Most students were the sons of burghers or well-to-do artisans. For most students, the goal was a job in government or the Church. Earning a bachelor's degree in theology might take five to seven years in school; becoming a master of theology took at least 12 years of study. New ideas and forms of expression began to flow out of the universities.

At a time when serious scholars and writers were writing in Latin, a few remarkable poets began using a lively **vernacular**, or the everyday language of their homeland. Some of these writers wrote masterpieces that are still read today. Dante Alighieri wrote The Divine Comedy (**1308–1314**) in Italian.

Geoffrey Chaucer wrote The Canterbury Tales (about **1386–1400**) in English. Christine de Pisan wrote The Book of The City of Ladies (1405) in French. Since most people couldn't read or understand Latin, these works written in the vernacular brought literature to many people.

Figure 9.6 The first officially recognized university Bologna in Italy

9.5.3 Aquinas and Medieval Philosophy

Christian scholars were excited by the ideas of Greek philosophers. They wondered if a Christian scholar could use Aristotle's logical approach to truth and still keep faith with the Bible. In the mid-1200s, the scholar **Thomas Aquinas** argued that the most basic religious truths could be proved by logical argument.

Between 1267 and 1273, Aquinas wrote the *Summa Theologicae.* Aquinas's great work, influenced by Aristotle, combined ancient Greek thought with the Christian thought of his time.

Aquinas and his fellow scholars who met at the great universities were known as schoolmen, or **scholastics**.

The scholastics used their knowledge of Aristotle to debate many issues of their time. Their teachings on law and government influenced the thinking of western Europeans, particularly the English and French. Accordingly, they began to develop democratic institutions and traditions.

Summary of Study Session 9

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. The development new methods of farming led to growing food supply

2. Different types of guilds the evolved in Europe

3. A Commercial Revolution led to expansion of trade and business

4. Towns grew and flourished As trade grew and it led to a shift in social order

5. There was revival of learning due to contact with Muslims and Byzantines

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 9

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 9.1 (tests learning outcome 9.1)

List the new methods of farming that led to the growth of food supply

SAQ 9.2 (tests learning outcome 9.2)

Identify and explain the types of guilds the evolved in medieval Europe

SAQ 9.3 (tests learning outcome 9.3)

What are the major characteristics of the Commercial Revolution?

SAQ 9.4 (tests learning outcome 9.4)

What impact did trade have on the growth of towns?

SAQ 9.5 (tests learning outcome 9.5)

What major factors were responsible for the revival of learning?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 9

SAQ 9:

• **Three-field system:** This was a system in which farmers could grow crops on two-thirds of their land each year, not just on half of it.

 • **Commercial Revolution:** This is the title given to expansion of trade and business in medieval Europe.

 • **Guild:** This was an organization of individuals in the same business or occupation working to improve the economic and social conditions of its members.

• **Burgher:** This is the name given to the merchant-class town dwellers.

• **Vernacular:** This was the everyday language of various homelands used instead of Latin.

• **Thomas Aquinas:** He was a scholar who argued that the most basic religious truths could be proved by logical argument. Between 1267 and 1273, he wrote the *Summa Theologicae.* His great work, influenced by Aristotle, combined ancient Greek thought with the Christian thought of his time.

• **Scholastics:** They were scholars or schoolmen who met at the great universities and used their knowledge of Aristotle to debate many issues of their time.

SAQ 9.1:
1. Shift to Horsepower: Sometime before 900, farmers in Europe began using a harness that fitted across the horse's chest, enabling it to pull a plow. A team of horses could plow three times as much land in a day as a team of oxen.
2. Three-field system: Around A.D. 800, some villages began to organize their lands into three fields instead of two. Two of the fields were planted and the other lay fallow (resting) for a year. Under this new system, farmers could grow crops on two-thirds of their land each year, not just on half of it.

SAQ 9.2:
1. Merchant guilds: Merchants banded together to control the number of goods being traded and to keep prices up. They also provided security in trading and reduced losses.
2. Craft guilds: These were skilled artisans, such as wheelwrights, glassmakers, winemakers, tailors, and druggists. In a few crafts, especially for cloth making, women formed the majority. In most crafts, both husband and wife worked at the family trade.

SAQ 9.3:
1. The rise of Fairs and Trade: Most trade took place in towns. Peasants from nearby manors traveled to town on fair days, hauling items to trade.
2. Beginning of Business and Banking: As traders moved from fair to fair, they needed large amounts of cash or credit and ways to exchange many types of currencies. Enterprising merchants found ways to solve these problems.

SAQ 9.4:
1. As trade grew, towns all over Europe swelled with people.
2. The excitement and bustle of towns drew many people.

3. People were no longer content with their old feudal existence on manors or in tiny villages.

4. Even though legally bound to their lord's manor, many serfs ran away.

5. Many of these runaway serfs, now free people, made better lives for themselves in towns.

SAQ 9.5:

1. The Muslim Connection: In the 1100s, Christian scholars from Europe began visiting Muslim libraries in Spain. Jewish scholars living in Spain translated the Arabic versions of works by Aristotle and other Greek writers into Latin. All at once, Europeans acquired a huge new body of knowledge. This included science, philosophy, law, mathematics, and other fields.

2. The evolution of Universities: At the center of the growth of learning stood a new European institution—the university. The word *university* originally referred to a group of scholars meeting wherever they could.

Study Session 10: The Age of Chivalry

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Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the age of chivalry. During the middle Ages, nobles constantly fought one another. Their feuding kept Europe in a fragmented state for centuries. Through warfare, feudal lords defended their estates, seized new territories, and increased their wealth.

Lords and their armies lived in a violent society that prized combatskills. By the 1100s, though, a code of behavior began to arise. High ideals guided warriors' actions and glorified their roles.

With this in mind you will learn about the development of knighthood code and literature of chivalry among others.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 10

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

10.1 Describe the historyknighthood in Europe

10.2 Describe the development of knighthood code of chivalry

10.3 Describe the literature of chivalry

10.4 Explain women's role in feudal society

10.1   Knights Warriors on Horseback

Soldiers mounted on horseback became valuable in combat during the reign of Charlemagne's grandfather, Charles Martel, in the 700s. Charles Martel had observed that the Muslim cavalry often turned the tide of battles. As a result, he organized Frankish troops of armored horsemen, or knights.

Figure 10.1: Warrior on horseback

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10.1.1   Changes in the Technology of Warfare

Leather saddles and stirrups changed the way warfare was conducted in Europe during the 700s. Both had been developed in Asia around 200 B.C. The saddle kept a warrior firmly seated on a moving horse. Stirrups enabled him to ride and handle heavier weapons. Without stirrups to brace him, a charging warrior was likely to topple off his own horse.

Frankish knights, galloping full tilt, could knock over enemy foot soldiers and riders on horseback. Gradually, mounted knights became the most important part of an army. Their warhorses played a key military role.

10.1.2 The Warrior's Role in Feudal Society

By the 11th century, Western Europe was a battleground of warring nobles vying for power. To defend their territories, feudal lords raised private armies of knights. In exchange for military service, feudal lords used their most abundant re—land. They rewarded knights, their most skilled warriors, with fiefs from their sprawling estates.

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Wealth from these fiefs allowed knights to devote their lives to war. Knights could afford to pay for costly weapons, armor, and warhorses.

As the lord's vassal, a knight's main obligation was to serve in battle. From his knights, a lord typically demanded about 40 days of combat a year. Knights' pastimes also often revolved around training for war. Wrestling and hunting helped them gain strength and practice the skills they would need on the battlefield.

10.2 Knighthood and the Code of Chivalry

Knights were expected to display courage in battle and loyalty to their lord. By the 1100s, the code of **chivalry**, a complex set of ideals, demanded that a knight fight bravely in defense of three masters. He devoted himself to his earthly feudal lord, his heavenly Lord, and his chosen lady.

The chivalrous knight also protected the weak and the poor. The ideal knight was loyal, brave, and courteous. Most knights, though, failed to meet all of these high standards. For example, they treated the lower classes brutally.

Figure 10.2: Knighthood and the code of chivalry
:

10.2.1 A Knight's Training

Sons of nobles began training for knighthood at an early age and learned the code of chivalry. At age 7, a boy would be sent off to the castle of another lord. As a page, he waited on his hosts and

began to practice fighting skills. At around age 14, the page reached the rank of squire. A squire acted as a servant to a knight. At around age 21, a squire became a full-fledged knight.

10.2.2 Siege Warfare and Tournaments

Attacking armies carefully planned how to capture a castle. Engineers would inspect the castle walls for weak points in the stone. Then, enemy soldiers would try to ram the walls, causing them to collapse. At the battle site, attackers often constructed the heavy and clumsy weapons. After being dubbed a knight, most young men traveled for a year or two.

The young knights gained experience fighting in local wars. Some took part in mock battles called **tournaments**. Tournaments combined recreation with combat training. Two armies of knights charged each other. Trumpets blared, and lords and ladies cheered. Like real battles, tournaments were fierce and bloody competitions. Winners could usually demand large ransoms from defeated knights.

10.2.3 Brutal Reality of Warfare

The small-scale violence of tournaments did not match the bloodshed of actual battles, especially those fought at castles. By the 1100s, massive walls and guard towers encircled stone castles. These castles dominated much of the countryside in Western Europe. Lord and lady, their family, knights and other men-at-arms, and servants made their home in the castle. The castle also was a fortress, designed for defense.

A castle under siege was a gory sight. Attacking armies used a wide range of strategies and weapons to force castle residents to surrender. Defenders of a castle poured boiling water, hot oil, or molten lead on enemy soldiers. Expert archers were stationed on the roof of the castle. Armed with crossbows, they fired deadly bolts that could pierce full armor.

In-text Question

The following are qualities of an ideal knight except?
   a. Brave
   b. Loyal
   c. Courteous
   d. All the above

In-text Answer
   d

10.3 The Literature of Chivalry

In the 1100s, the themes of medieval literature downplayed the brutality of knighthood and feudal warfare. Many stories idealized castle life. They glorified knighthood and chivalry, tournaments and real battles. Songs and poems about a knight's undying love for a lady were also very popular. **Epic Poetry** Feudal lords and their ladies enjoyed listening to epic poems. These poems recounted a hero's deeds and adventures.

Many epics retold stories about legendary heroes such as King Arthur and Charlemagne.

The Song of Roland is one of the earliest and most famous medieval epic poems. It praises a band of French soldiers who perished in battle during Charlemagne's reign. The poem transforms the event into a struggle.

A few brave French knights led by Roland battle an overwhelming army of Muslims from Spain. Roland's friend, Turpin the Archbishop, stands as a shining example of medieval ideals. Turpin represents courage, faith, and chivalry:

> And now there comes the Archbishop.
>
> He spurs his horse, goes up into a mountain,
>
> Summons the French; and he preached them a sermon:
>
> "Barons, my lords, [Charlemagne] left us in this place.
>
> We know our duty: to die like good men for our King.
>
> Fight to defend the holy Christian faith."
>
> From *The Song of Roland*

10.3.1 Love Poems and Songs

Under the code of chivalry, a knight's duty to his lady became as important as his duty to his lord. In many medieval poems, the hero's difficulties resulted from a conflict between those two obligations. **Troubadours** were traveling poet-musicians at the castles and courts of Europe. They composed short verses and songs about the joys and sorrows of romantic love. Sometimes troubadours sang their own verses in the castles of their lady.

They also sent roving minstrels to carry their songs to courts. A troubadour might sing about love's disappointments: "My loving heart, my faithfulness, myself, my world she deigns to take. Then leave me bare and comfortless to longing thoughts that ever wake."

Other songs told of lovesick knights who adored ladies they would probably never win: "Love of a far-off land/For you my heart is aching/And I can find no relief." The code of chivalry promoted a false image of knights, making them seem more romantic than brutal.

In turn, these love songs created an artificial image of women. In the troubadour's eyes, noblewomen were always beautiful and pure. The most celebrated woman of the age was Eleanor of Aquitaine (1122–1204). Troubadours flocked to her court in the French duchy of Aquitaine. Later, as queen of England, Eleanor was the mother of two kings, Richard the Lion-Hearted and John. Richard himself composed romantic songs and poems.

10.4 Women's Role in Feudal Society

Most women in feudal society were powerless, just as most men were. But women had the added burden of being thought inferior to men. This was the view of the Church and was generally accepted in feudal society. Nonetheless, women played important roles in the lives of both noble and peasant families.

Figure 10.3 Women's role in feudal society

10.4.1 Noblewomen

Under the feudal system, a noblewoman could inherit an estate from her husband. Upon her lord's request, she could also send his knights to war. When her husband was off fighting, the

lady of a medieval castle might act as military commander and a warrior. At times, noblewomen played a key role in defending castles. They hurled rocks and fired arrows at attackers. In reality, however, the lives of most noblewomen were limited.

Whether young or old, females in noble families generally were confined to activities in the home or the convent. Also, noblewomen held little property because lords passed down their fiefs to sons and not to daughters. The daily Life of a Noblewoman can be clearly understood in this quotation:"

She gets up at 7a.m., and her chaplain is waiting to say morning prayers . . . and when she has washed and dressed . . . she has breakfast, then she goes to the chapel, for another service, and then has lunch. . . . After lunch, she discusses business . . . then has a short sleep, then drinks ale or wine.

Then . . . she goes to the chapel for evening service, and has supper. After supper, she relaxes with her women attendants. . . . After that, she goes to her private room, and says nighttime prayers. By 8 p.m. she is in bed."

In-text Question

Under the feudal system, a noblewoman could inherit an estate from her husband. True or False

In-text Answer

True

10.4.2 Peasant Women

For the vast majority of women of the lower classes, life had remained unchanged for centuries. Peasant women performed endless labor around the home and often in the fields, bore children, and took care of their families. Young peasant girls learned practical household skills from their mother at an early age, unlike daughters in rich households who were educated by tutors. Females in peasant families were poor and powerless.

Yet, the economic contribution they made was essential to the survival of the peasant household. As you have read in this section, the Church significantly influenced the status of medieval women. The daily Life of a Peasant Woman is depicted by this quotation:"I get up early . . . milk our cows and turn them into the field. . . . Then I make butter. . . . Afterward I make cheese.

. . .   Then the children need looking after. . . . I give the chickens food . . . and look after the young geese. . . . I bake, I brew. . . . I twist rope. . . . I tease out wool, and card it, and spin it on a wheel. . . . I organize food for the cattle, and for ourselves. . . . I look after all the household."

Summary of Study Session 10

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. Knighthood was introduced into Europe by Charles Martelin the 700s
2. Knighthood could be attained through training, tournament and warfare
3. The literature of chivalry glorified knighthood and chivalry, tournaments and real battles.
4. Women played important roles in the lives of both noble and peasant families in feudal society

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for study session 10

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 10.1 (tests learning outcome 10.1)

What important a role did knights play in the feudal system?

SAQ 10.2 (tests learning outcome 10.2)

What is the code of chivalry?

SAQ 10.3 (tests learning outcome 10.3)

What were some of the themes of medieval literature?

SAQ 10.4 (tests learning outcome 10.4)

In what ways were the lives of a noblewoman and a peasant woman the same?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for study session 10

SAQ 10:

- **Chivalry**: virtue of devotion and bravery that a knight was supposed to display towards to his earthly feudal lord, his heavenly Lord, and his chosen lady. The chivalrous knight also protected the weak and the poor. The ideal knight was loyal, brave, and courteous.
- **Tournament**: These were fierce and bloody competitions also known as mock battles. Winners could usually demand large ransoms from defeated knights.
- **Epic Poetry** These were poems that recounted a hero's deeds andadventures. Many epics retold stories about legendary heroes such as King Arthur and Charlemagne
- **Troubadour**: These were traveling poet-musicians at the castles and courts of Europe. They composed short verses and songs about the joys and sorrows of romantic love.

SAQ 10.1: Knight's main obligation was to serve in battle. From his knights, a lord typically demanded about 40 days of combat a year. Knights' pastimes also often revolved around training for war.

SAQ 10.2: Code of chivalry was a complex set of ideals that demanded that a knight fight bravely in defense of three masters. He devoted himself to his earthly feudal lord, his heavenly Lord, and his chosen lady.

SAQ 10.3: Epic Poetry which recounted stories about legendary heroes such as King Arthur and Charlemagne; Love Poems and Songs which promoted a false image of knights, making them seem more romantic than brutal and in turn, created an artificial image of women.

SAQ 10.4: Both women in feudal society were powerless and were thought to be inferior to men.

Study Session 11: The Black Death and its Impact, 1300-1450

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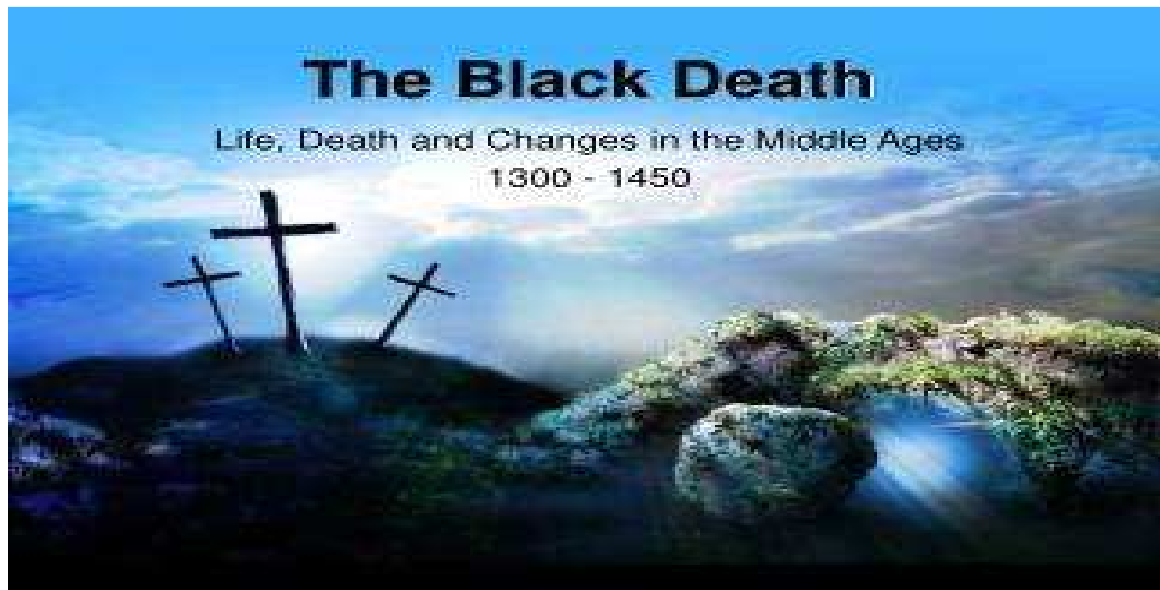
Introduction

In this study session you will learn the Black Death otherwise called the Bubonic Plague which ravaged the whole of Europe from the 1340s. In the 1300s, Europe entered a period of turmoil that shook of medieval civilization to its foundations and paved the way for such aspects of the modern world as nation states, capitalism, and the Protestant Reformation.

Such periods of transition are rarely easy to endure, and this was no exception. It was a period which saw recurring famines, outbreaks of plague, peasant and worker revolts, the rise of religious heresies, challenges to the Church's authority, and long drawn out wars, in particular the Hundred Years War between France and England. Ironically, the problems were largely the result of better farming methods.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 11

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

11.1 Describe the signs of growing stress in rising population and change in climate

11.2 Describe the coming of the plague and its spread across Europe

11.3 Describe the result of the plague and its impact on Europe

11.1 Signs of Growing Stress

The High Middle Ages had been a time of growth and prosperity. New agricultural techniques had caused a dramatic rise in population, which in turn led to rising demands for food and fuel. This generated inflation and a strain on the environment, which led people to clear more new lands for cultivation. That, in turn, triggered more population growth, and so on

Aggravating these problems was a change of climate. Apparently, the climate in the High Middle Ages was good, thus making possible that period's prosperity. However, in the 1300's the climate turned colder and wetter than usual, resulting in floods and early frosts. s spoke of great famines in 1316 and 1317 and of reports that the Baltic Sea froze over in 1303 and 1316.

The resulting malnutrition of the early 1300s made people born during that time especially susceptible to disease, since our immunological systems develop during childhood. This in turn set up the worst of the middle Ages: the Black Death.

11.2 The Coming of the Plague

The Black Death, also known as Bubonic plague, appears to have arisen in Central Asia in the early 1300's. The most likely scenario for its spread points to Mongol rulers in Asia who had settled down from their rampages to establish stable caravan routes from China to the Black Sea where Italian merchants would trade for the silks and spices so highly valued in Europe. Ironically, these trade routes were also the invasion routes of a very different sort.

Apparently, the Asian black rats, which carry the fleas that carry the plague, burrowed into the caravan's grain sacks and hitched a free ride across Asia. Rumors had already filtered westward of a terrible plague that depopulated whole regions of China and India. Rumor became reality for Europe in 1347 when a Genoese ship pulled into the Sicilian port of Messina with half its crew dead or dying from plague. The Black Death had arrived.

The Plague quickly spread death and terror across Europe, sweeping through Italy in 1347, France in 1348, and the Low Countries, England, and Scandinavia in 1349. Its pattern was to flare up in the summer and taper off in the winter, only to flare up again and sweep onwards the next summer. By 1350, it had pretty well passed on, leaving in its wake a population decimated by its effects.

Cities, with their crowded unsanitary conditions, generally suffered worse than the countryside. Although contemporary accounts generally exaggerated the toll, it was certainly was staggering. Supposedly 800 people died in Paris each day, 500 a day in Pisa, and up to 600 a day in Vienna. Some cities lost anywhere from 50-70% of their populations. Monasteries, also being crowded, suffered similar death rates. In the countryside where people were more spread out, maybe 20-30% of the population perished.

All across Europe black flags flew over towns to warn travelers that the plague was there. Church bells rang constantly to announce the deaths of citizens until town councils voted to silence their demoralizing clangor. The Hundred Years War was interrupted by the plague, and construction on the cathedral in Siena, Italy stopped and never resumed, a grim memorial to the plague's power.

People, having no idea then of the existence of microbes, were completely ignorant of the plague's cause. Some, seeing a correlation between fleas and plague, killed dogs and cats, just giving the black rats more freedom to spread the disease. Most explanations of the Black Death concerned divine retribution. This gave rise to the flagellants, people who would march from town to town whipping themselves to atone for society's sins.

However, as they spread penitence, they also spread the plague. Therefore, the authorities outlawed them, as much for the social unrest they seemed to stir up as for the disease they were spreading.

The most effective way of avoiding the plague was to avoid people who might carry it, causing those rich enough to flee the towns during the plague's height in the summer months. In fact, a virtual panic seized people as husbands abandoned wives, parents abandoned their children, and even priests and doctors refused to see their patients. It seemed as if the whole fabric of society was coming unraveled.

In the absence of any effective remedies, people looked for scapegoats. Many blamed the Jews whose religion dictated a bit cleaner lifestyle, which in turn meant less incidence of rats, fleas, and plague. In some peoples' minds, however, the Jews had poisoned the wells or made a pact with the devil to cause the Black Death.

The resulting disturbances resembled those accompanying the First Crusade, with Jews being massacred or burned in their synagogues. Germany and the Low Countries saw especially bad outbreaks of such violence, and, by 1350, few Jews remained in those areas.

The plague hit Europe six more times by 1450, each time with less severity than before, since more survivors were immune to it. And those without resistance were weeded out by natural selection. Still, some 30-40% of Europe's population was lost. Census figures in England fell from 3.7 million in 1348 to 2.1 million by 1430. Even then, Europe was not free from the Black Death's ravages, suffering recurrent outbreaks until the early 1700's.

Why it receded is also a matter of controversy, with such theories as the European brown rat driving out the Asian black rat, tile roofs replacing thatched ones where rats often lived, and the more deadly plague microbe, which more readily killed off its host and left itself no place to go, being replaced by a less deadly version.

In-text Question

The Black Death, also known as _____

      a. Bubonic plague

      b. Medieval Plague

      c. Culture plague

      d. Economic plague

In-text Answer

      a

11.3 The results of the Black Death

Along with an obsession with death that worked its way into European culture for generations to come, one can see the long term effects of the Black Death following three lines of development: a higher standard of living for those who survived problems for nobles and clergy who were land owners, and revolts by peasants and urban workers.

First of all, the Black Death had raised the standard of living of many survivors who inherited estates from the plague's victims. One sign of this was that peasant families, who, before the plague, were so poor that they sat at the dinner table on a common bench and ate from a common

plate, now, had individual stools and plates. This higher standard of living would lead to a more even wealth distribution and the recovery of the economy after 1450.

11.3.1 Popular Uprisings

Peasant and urban worker revolts were a sign of the times in the 1300's and 1400's for two main reasons. First of all the plague created a labor shortage, especially in the cities where up to 70% of the inhabitants had died. As a result, workers and peasants demanded higher wages for their labor, something nobles and guild masters strongly opposed. A second problem was that the Black Death had severely depleted the tax base of the medieval state.

This caused kings to raise taxes drastically to meet expenses coming from the chronic warfare of the age, in particular the Hundred Years War raging between France and England. Frustration from these thwarted demands and the heavier tax burden triggered a series of urban and peasant revolts across Europe.

Typically, war, plague, high taxes, or a combination of these would spark a sudden uprising. At first it would take the authorities by surprise, and they would either be killed or flee to the safety of the local towns or castles. In the case of peasant revolts, the unexpected success of an uprising would encourage other peasants to join and vent their frustrations on their own lords with incredible ferocity and cruelty.

The rebellion would sweep through the countryside like wildfire, destroying any opposition in its path. However, the sudden nature of such outbursts also carried the seeds of their destruction, because they had very little, if any, organization or planning. Eventually, the authorities would gather their forces and crush the rebellion, since the rebels were poorly armed and trained compared to the professional warriors facing them.

The aftermath would often see massacres and executions as retribution against the rebels and to discourage any further uprisings. In the cities, workers tried to form their own protective organizations to win higher wages and better working conditions. This alarmed the guilds, which outlawed such organizations. That in turn enraged the workers who resorted to violence.

The first such revolts occurred even before the Black Death hit Europe. The plague and its results merely intensified an already existing crisis.

The most serious of these, that of poor laborers known as the Ciompi, took place in Florence (1378) and followed a course similar to other popular revolts of the time: initial success (which in this case lasted four years), eventual victory for the authorities, and severe reprisals which only added to existing bitterness.

The savagery of such revolts and the atmosphere of fear and hatred they created led the ruling classes in the cities to support princes and tyrants who could establish law and order.

In Flanders, the dukes of Burgundy also established law and order under their strong autocratic rule. The greater security plus the collection of power and wealth in the hands of these rulers would be important factors supporting the cultural flowering of the Renaissance

Two revolts typified peasant uprisings, one in France and one in England. The Jacqueline, named after the popular name for French peasants, broke out in 1358, ten years after the Black and in the midst of the Hundred Years War with its destruction, high taxes, and forced labor to repair fortifications.

On May 28, about 100 peasants in the village of St. Leu assaulted the nearest manor house and massacred the lord and his family. From there, the revolt spread quickly across the countryside with the usual atrocities and a reported 160 castles burned. Many towns, either out of sympathy or fear of the peasants, opened their gates to them.

The turning point came when some nobles returning from crusade in Eastern Europe came across and defeated some peasants at the town of Meaux. This encouraged them to organize and gather their forces against the main peasant force. The nobles then lured the peasant leader, Guillaume Cale, into a parley and murdered him. Deprived of their leader, the peasants were easy prey in the battle that followed.

Hundreds were burned in a local monastery, and thousands more were hanged in their doorways as a warning against future revolts. Less than a month after the start of the revolt, it was over, although the fear and bitterness it bred lived on. The Wat Tyler rebellion broke out in England in 1381.

The immediate causes were much the same as those of the Jacquerie: high war taxes, a recent outbreak of plague, and a resulting agricultural crisis.

The course of events was also similar. The rebels advanced all the way to London, looting and pillaging as they came. They even managed to seize and murder several of the king's officials.

However, a daring ride in front of the rebels by the boy king, Richard II, who offered them concessions and supposedly his leadership in the revolt, settled them down.

A parley was then arranged with the peasants' leader, Wat Tyler, which ended in his murder. This demoralized the peasants and allowed the nobles to defeat them and restore order in England much as the French nobles had in France.

However, despite their ultimate defeats, the popular revolts of the day had two important results. First, they damaged the nobles' military reputations and power and paved the way for the emergence of kings and the modern nation state. Secondly, workers' and peasants' wages did rise, also leading to a more even distribution of wealth.

11.3.2 Decline of the Church and nobles

The Black Death also created problems for the nobles and clergy in two main ways. First, the huge population loss in the cities' caused a virtual collapse of the urban grain markets, a major of income for noble and church landlords with surplus grain to sell.

This especially hurt the nobles and clergy, whose incomes were still based on land and who relied on selling surplus grain in the towns for badly needed cash. There were two main strategies for making up for this lost income.

Both nobles and clergy resorted to selling freedom to their serfs. This raised some quick cash, but it also deprived them of future revenues, which contributed to their decline and the corresponding rise of kings and nation states. At the same time, the serfs were now transformed into a free peasantry with more incentive to work harder since they were working more for themselves.

This also helped lead to a more even distribution of wealth which contributed to a revival of agriculture, towns, and trade, especially after 1450 when the climate seems to have improved. But with the guilds and nobles weakened by the turmoil of the last 150 years, a new broader consumer market evolved, but one where the average person had less money to spend than the average noble beforehand would have had.

Since these people could not afford the guilds' expensive goods and the guilds refused to adapt to this market, rich merchants established cottage industries and sold their goods outside of the guilds' jurisdiction. The profits they made and the absence of the guilds' restrictive regulations

helped these merchants establish a new economic system, capitalism, which would replace the guild system and lead the way into the modern world.

The Church had several other fund raising options in addition to selling serfs their freedom: selling church offices (simony), letting one man buy several offices at the same time, charging fees for all sorts of church services, and selling indulgences to buy time out of Purgatory after one died.

These practices plus the Church's inability to cope with the crisis of the Black Death led to growing public discontent. As a result, the Church would experience serious challenges to its authority in the Later Middle Ages.

11.3.3 Effects of the Plague

The economic and social effects of the plague were enormous. The old manorial system began to crumble. Some of the changes that occurred included these:

- Town populations fell.

- Trade declined and prices rose.

- The serfs left the manor in search of better wages.

- Nobles fiercely resisted peasant demands for higher wages, causing peasant revolts in England, France, Italy, and Belgium.

- Jews were blamed for bringing the plague. All over Europe, Jews were driven from their homes or, worse, massacred.

Bye and large, the Church suffered a loss of prestige when its prayers failed to stop the onslaught of the bubonic plague and priests abandoned their duties. The bubonic plague and its aftermath disrupted medieval society, hastening changes that were already in the making. The society of the middle Ages was collapsing. The century of war between England and France was that society's final death struggle.

Summary of Study Session 11

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

The signs of growing stress showed in the rising population and change in climate

The origin of the plague and its spread across Europe started in Italy in 1347

The result of the plague and its impact on Europe extremely disastrous

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 11

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 11.1 (tests learning outcome 11.1)

What are the two major sign of growing stress that aided the spread of the plague?

SAQ 11.2 (tests learning outcome 11.2)

When and how did the bubonic plague start?

SAQ 11.2 (tests learning outcome 11.3)

What were three effects of the bubonic plague?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 11

SAQ 11.1:

a. There was a dramatic rise in population, which in turn led to rising demands for food and fuel. This generated inflation and a strain on the environment.

b. There was also a change of climate resulting in floods and early frosts which caused great famines in 1316 and 1317 thus resulting to malnutrition of the early 1300s made people born during that time especially susceptible to disease.

SAQ 11.2:

The Bubonic Plague started in 1347 when a fleet of Genoese merchant ships arrived in Sicily carrying the plague, also known as the Black Death.The disease swept through Italy. From there it followed trade routes to Spain, France, Germany, England, and other parts of Europe and North Africa.

SAQ 11.3

a. Town populations fell.

b. Trade declined and prices rose

c. The serfs left the manor in search of better wages.

d. Nobles fiercely resisted peasant demands for higher wages, causing peasant revolts in England, France, Italy, and Belgium.

e. Jews were blamed for bringing the plague. All over Europe, Jews were driven from their homes or, worse, massacred.

Study Session 12: The Hundred Years War, 1337-1453

Introduction

Nothing better epitomizes the turmoil of the Later Middle Ages than the prolonged and desperate struggle between France and England known as the Hundred Years War. Technically, this was a series of wars intermittently separated by periods of uneasy peace, but the fact that it took over a century to resolve this struggle justifies treating it as one war.

Although, on the surface, the issues involved just concerned who held certain territories and the French throne, there were deeper processes going on that gave this struggle an importance far beyond its battles. The main process taking place was the painful separation of the two nations from a feudal and dynastic concept of the state that had kept French and English histories intertwined with one another since the Norman conquest of England in 1066.

The growing use of the English language throughout the war especially illustrated this process. Whereas French was the primary language of the English court at the start of the war, by the end it was English. Also, Geoffrey Chaucer had written Canterbury Tales, one of the first great works of English literature, and John Wycliffe had translated the Bible into English, all this showing a growing sense of an English nation and culture.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 12

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

12.1 Describe the causes of the hundred years' war between France and England

12.2 Describe the changing nature of warfare introduced during the war

12.3 Describe the course of the war in four phases

12.4 Explain the impact of the war on the whole of Europe.

12.1   Causes of the war between France and England

Three main factors set France and England on a collision course in the 1300's. Over the last two centuries, the French monarchy had gradually brought nearly all of France under its effective rule. In the early 1200's, John I had lost most of England's lands in France. However, two rich wine producing areas in the southwest of France, Gascony and Guienne, remained in English hands, a fact which greatly irked the French kings.

Another of concern to the French kings was England's flourishing wool trade in the north with Flanders, which was part of France. When the Flemish workers revolted in 1302, they looked to England for support. Although the French put down the revolt, they were still suspicious of English intentions in Flanders.

But the issue taking center stage was Edward III of England's claim to the French throne when the childless Charles IV died. Edward was Charles' nephew, while the next closest male claimant to the throne was a cousin, named Philip. However, the French did not want an Englishman on the French throne, and thereby chose Philip VI as their king.

Edward, feeling slighted by this decision and being concerned about his hold on Gascony and Guienne, decided to fight for the throne. The Hundred Years War was on.

Figure 12.1

12.2 The New Face of War

One of the most dramatic signs of the transition from the medieval to modern world was the changing nature of warfare. The English were especially innovative in this regard, probably because they faced a much larger and more powerful enemy and thus felt more of a need to experiment with new ways of fighting.

The armies of the Hundred Years War would differ from the armies of the Dark Ages in three major ways. One change was that, for the most part, these were not feudal armies of noble vassals fighting to fulfill their personal obligations to their lords. Rather, they were largely collections of mercenary companies containing many members of the lower classes and even criminal element.

Their captains would contract their services to a king in return for the promise of pay, plunder, and ransoms for any captured enemies. Such armies may have been more stable and reliable than the old feudal armies, but they also created serious problems.

Since they were rarely paid in full or on time and their ranks were often filled with the more disreputable types in society, they were prone to desertion, plundering, and violence against the civilian populace.

Two other big changes had to do with weaponry. One was the longbow, adopted from the Welsh by Edward I in the late 1200's. This was a specialized weapon that took a full year to make and years to master. As a result, only richer free peasants (yeomen) and professional mercenaries had the leisure time for practice.

The longbow was both powerful and had a rapid rate of fire. Formations of English long-bowmen, protected by rows of sharpened stakes and intervening formations of English knights, could unleash ten to twelve volleys of arrows per minute, a devastating rate of fire as the French would find out.

Another weapon that would assume greater importance as the war continued was gunpowder. Both the English and, later on, the French would use cannons effectively to demolish castle walls and the medieval order they stood for.

Figure12.2

12.3 The Course of the War

While the history of the war was long, it followed a basic pattern. At first, the English, with strong leaders and new weapons and tactics, would win striking victories against much larger French armies. This would continue until weak leaders would take power in England and more decisive one would take over in France.

Then the French would adapt to the English weapons and tactics and gradually recover their lands. However, England would once again see strong leaders while France would suffer weak

ones again and the pattern would start all over. This pattern cycled around two times, dividing the war into four basic phases.

12.3.1 Phase I: England Ascendant 1337-1369

The first major battle of the war, Sluys (1340), was a naval battle and determined who would control the English Channel. Naval battles in the Atlantic were rare, since the seas were too rough for oar driven galleys, and the square sail then in use could not tack well into the wind. Therefore, one navy or the other was usually confined to port, depending on the wind.

Without the use of oars, ramming and clipping enemy ships was impractical, so naval battles were mainly land battles fought at sea, with each side trying to grapple and board the other side's ships.

In such a battle, the English had a definite advantage, since their longbows provided the firepower to clear enemy decks and let English soldiers storm their ships. As a result, the Battle of Sluys was a decisive victory for the English and gave them the freedom to raid France while securing their own coasts from seaborne raids.

For several years, small English armies would raid and plunder French territory while being careful to avoid any large French forces, since the English themselves were not sure of how effective their longbows would be against French knights.

However, in 1346 a large French army succeeded in cornering a much smaller English army and forcing it to fight at Crecy. Lined up behind protective wooden stakes, the English long-bowmen launched volley after volley of arrows as "thick as snow", first mowing down enemy crossbowmen and then bringing succeeding waves of charging French knights crashing to the ground.

By sundown, the English had won a stunning victory against what seemed like insurmountable odds, considering enemy numbers and the high regard in which French knights were held all over Europe. Crecy opened the French countryside to the English, allowing them to seize the port of Calais, which they held until the 1550's.

However, the French refused to recognize that the outcome at Crecy using these new tactics of long-bowmen in coordination with knights was anything besides a fluke. Therefore, after an interlude in the fighting brought on by the Black Death, they went after the English army again. This time they tracked down Edward the Black Prince and an army of some 8000 men at Poitiers (**1356**).

Once again the French knights charged the English lines, and once again the hissing volleys of English arrows littered the field with French dead and wounded. Among the numerous prisoners held for ransom was the French king. Poitiers confirmed Crecy's verdict that the balance of power on the battlefields of Europe was clearly shifting away from the heavily armored knight.

The aftermath of Poitiers saw the English conquer large areas of France in the western coastal areas. Meanwhile, peasant revolts, such as the Jacquerie, were challenging new taxes and the nobles' power in society. Given all this turmoil and their inability to beat English armies, the French concluded the Treaty of Bretigny in 1360, recognizing Edward's new conquests in return for his relinquishing any claim to the French crown.

However, peace did not return to France, because the English did not want to disband their so-called free companies of mercenaries in England where they could raise all sorts of havoc. Instead, they turned them loose in France where they continued to loot and pillage as if peace had never been signed. One free company made a living from capturing castles and then selling them back to their original owners.

Another company, under Sir Robert Knollys (knighted by Edward for his exploits and atrocities in France), controlled forty castles and plundered at will from Orleans to Vezelay. In response to these ravages, French peasants fortified their churches, slept on islands in local rivers, and dug tunnels to escape the English. Seeing no apparent difference between peace and war, the French resumed the war in 1369.

12.3.2 Phase II: The French Resurgence (1369-1413)

By now, the French had learned to avoid open battle against the English long-bowmen, choosing instead to bolster town and castle fortification, cut off any isolated raiding parties, and deny the English the plunder that made the war worthwhile to them. Thanks to this strategy, the French recovered most of their lands from the English.

This, the return of the Black Death, and then the Wat Tyler rebellion in 1381 all combined to make the war very unpopular in England. Therefore, in 1396, it was the English turn to ask for peace, giving up most of their French possessions in the process.

However, the tide soon turned back to favor the English for a couple reasons. First of all, the rule of the mentally unstable French king, Charles VI (1380-1422), unleashed factional strife between the noble houses of Orleans and Burgundy over who would control the king and French

policies. Therefore, France was in a state of turmoil and open to attack. Also, about this time, a warlike English king, Henry V, took the throne and decided to launch a new campaign in France.

12.3.3 Phase III: The English Resurgence (1413-1428)

Henry entered France with a small army of 1000 knights and 6000 long-bowmen. Like Edward III and the Black Prince before him, Henry was trapped by a much larger French army that forced his tired and hungry army to fight at Agincourt (1415). By this time, knights were wearing suits of plate armor weighing up to 65 pounds, a much harder shell for the longbow arrows to penetrate.

Despite this, the longbow still played a vital role in winning Agincourt. For whatever reasons, the French chose to avoid the formations of long-bowmen and instead attacked the groups of English knights in between. This had the effect of cramming the French into ever-narrower spaces that gave them no room to raise their weapons.

Meanwhile, their comrades in back, unaware of this, kept pushing forward, creating even more of a crush up front that the English knights exploited mercilessly. At the same time, the English long-bowmen were hitting the French from the sides. This combination of being unable to maneuver and being attacked from three sides made Agincourt as much of a disaster for the French as Crecy and Poitiers had been.

Agincourt unleashed an avalanche of misfortunes upon France. The Duke of Burgundy, bitter over the murder of his father by the Duke of Orleans, defected to the English side. Paris fell to the enemy, while famine and turmoil stalked the land. Equally decisive and portentous for the future was another new weapon that was changing the face of warfare: gunpowder. Cannons had been used as early as Crecy in 1346, but mainly as glorified noisemakers.

However, by the early 1400's, the English had a large and effective siege train of cannons that pulverized the old medieval fortifications of towns and castles. By 1420, the English and their Burgundian allies had control of the northern half of France, forcing the French to agree to the Treaty of Troyes, by which Henry would take the French throne after Charles VI died.

However, Henry died shortly before Charles and was succeeded by the infant, Henry VI. The French refused to give the throne to this child, and war resumed.
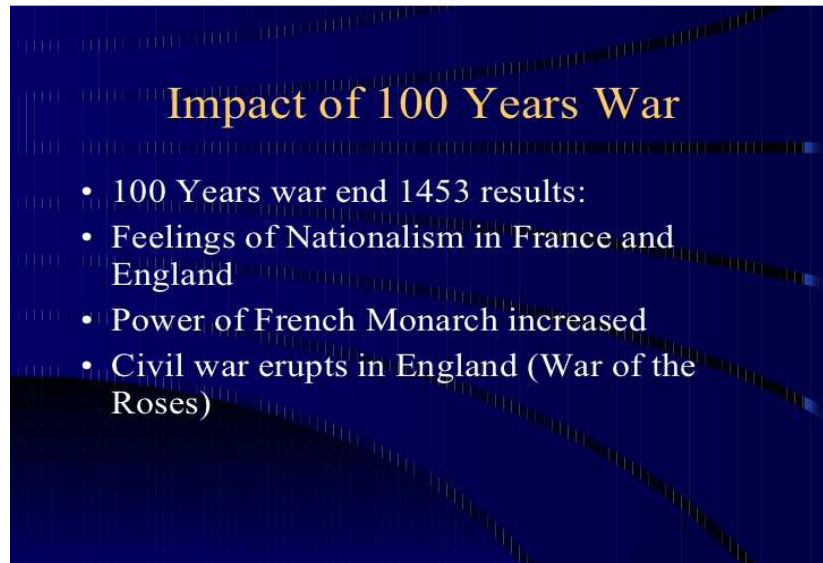
Figure 12.3

12.4 Joan of Arc and the Final French Triumph (1428-53)

At first, the Duke of Bedford, regent for the young Henry VI, ably continued the English advance against the pale and feeble Charles VII. It was then that a remarkable peasant girl, known to history as Joan of Arc, came to the French court, claiming divine voices had told her to lead France to victory.

Despite the snickering at this simple peasant girl by the court, her persistence and genuine faith in her mission persuaded Charles to let her accompany the French army trying to relieve the city of Orleans. For whatever reasons, the French succeeded in saving Orleans, thus opening the road to Reims where Charles could officially be crowned.

To the soldiers, Joan was a symbol of French defiance, and her example restored the army's spirit. However, her luck soon ran out. In 1430, the Burgundians captured Joan and sold her to the English who tried her as a witch for hearing demonic voices.

After a long and exhausting trial, she was convicted by a French church court and burned at the stake in the market place of Rouen in 1431. Years later the Church would reverse its decision and declare Joan a saint. She was only 19 years old when she died.

Joan's death backfired against the English in much the same way as the execution of the Hussite leader, Jan Hus, had backfired against the Church a few years before. Charles VII took heart and led a vigorous offensive against the English, while the French people agreed to a war tax to pay for soldiers and artillery to free their land of the now hated English.

Now it was the French turn to use cannons to demolish English fortifications and sweep through France.

Meanwhile, high war taxes and the lack of plunder to pay for the war made it increasingly unpopular in England. As a result, Parliament cut most funds for fighting in France. In 1451, at the Battle of Castillon, the French, using another experimental weapon, primitive firearms, defeated the last English army in France.

Two years later in 1453, the same year the Ottoman Turks used artillery to help them storm the walls of Constantinople; the English were out of France except for the port of Calais. The Hundred Years War was over.

Figure 12.4: Joan of Arc

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12.5 The Impact of the Hundred Years' War

The long, exhausting war finally ended in 1453. Each side experienced major changes.

A feeling of nationalism emerged in England and France. Now people thought of the king as a national leader, fighting for the glory of the country, not simply a feudal lord. The power and prestige of the French monarch increased. The English suffered a period of internal turmoil known as the War of the Roses, in which two noble houses fought for the throne.

Some historians consider the end of the Hundred Years' War in 1453 as the end of the middle Ages. The twin pillars of the medieval world, religious devotion and the code of chivalry, both crumbled. The Age of Faith died a slow death. This death was caused by the Great Schism, the scandalous display of wealth by the Church, and the discrediting of the Church during the bubonic plague. The Age of Chivalry died on the battlefields of Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt

In conclusion, what had all this accomplished? The main significance of the Hundred Years War was that France and England, bound together for centuries by outmoded feudal ties and concepts, were now wrenched apart, leaving in their wake two distinct nations free to follow their own destinies.

The Hundred Years War also symbolized far reaching military and social changes. Although nobles would be around for centuries to come, the longbow and gunpowder showed that their days were numbered.

Gunpowder in particular meant that nobles were no longer safe, either on the battlefield or behind their own castle walls. And with their military dominance went the nobles' unchallenged social preeminence. Gunpowder technology was also expensive.

As a result, only kings and princes were able to afford armies with cannons and firearms, thus stripping nobles of even more of their power and prestige, leaving the way open for the rise of the modern nation state.

Summary of Study Session 12

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. The hundred years' war was caused by conflict of interest
2. The war brought about notable changes in the nature of warfare
3. The war was fought in four phases with the English winning twice and the French also winning twice.

4. Joan of arc aided the French to obtain the final victory in 1453.

The war had a great impact on Europe.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study session 12

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 12.1 (tests learning outcome 12.1)

What were the three causes of the Hundred Years' War?

SAQ 12.2 (tests learning outcome 12.2)

What were the changes introduced into the nature of the hundred years' war?

SAQ 12.3 (tests learning outcome 12.3)

Briefly summarize the history of the war in three phases.

SAQ 12.4 (tests learning outcome 12.4)

What was the role of Joan of Arc?

SAQ 12.5 (tests learning outcome 12.5)

State three effects of the war.

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 12

SAQ 12.1:

a. The French kings were eager to dispossess England of two rich wine producing areas in Gascony and Guienne.

b. They were also suspicious of English intentions in Flanders, a French territory because of the flourishing English wool trade with the Flanders.

c. When Charles IV of France died childless, the French did not want an Englishman on the French throne, thereby choosing Philip VI as their king. Edward III of England, feeling slighted by this decision and being concerned about his hold on Gascony and Guienne, decided to fight for the throne.

SAQ 12.2:

The changes include:

    a. The use of mercenary companies instead of the old feudal armies.

    b. The introduction of new weapons like the longbowadopted from the Welsh by Edward I in the late 1200s, gunpowder and cannons.

SAQ 12.3:

Phase 1: The English recorded several victories because of the use of the longbow thus forcing the French to surrender and concluded the Treaty of Bretigny in 1360, recognizing Edward's new conquests in return for his relinquishing any claim to the French crown.

However, the free companies of mercenary were turned loose in France where they continued to loot and pillage as if peace had never been signed. They made a living they from capturing castles and then selling them back to their original owners.Seeing no apparent difference between peace and war, the French resumed the war in 1369.

Phase 2: In the second phase, the French recorded victories against the French because they had learned to avoid open battle with the English long-bowmen and also because of the Black Death as well as Wat Tyler rebellion which made the war to become unpopular in England.

Phase 3: The French were defeated at Agincourt and this unleashed an avalanche of misfortunes upon France.

SAQ 12.4: Joan was a symbol of French defiance, and her example restored the army's spirit.

SAQ 12.5:

    a. A feeling of nationalism emerged in England and France. Now people thought of the king as a national leader, fighting for the glory of the country, not simply a feudal lord.

    b. The power and prestige of the French monarch increased.

    c. The English suffered a period of internal turmoil known as the War of the Roses, in which two noble houses fought for the throne.

    d. Some historians consider the end of the Hundred Years' War in 1453 as the end of the Middle Ages. The twin pillars of the medieval world, religious devotion and the code of chivalry, both crumbled. The Age of Faith died a slow death.

This death was caused by the Great Schism, the scandalous display of wealth by the Church, and the discrediting of the Church during the bubonic plague. The Age of Chivalry died on the battlefields of Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt.

Study Session 13: Schism & Heresies in Late Medieval Europe, 1347-1450

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the controversy that emerged between the church and the king and degenerate into what is known as the Great Schism. At the beginning of the 1300s, the Age of Faith still seemed strong. Soon, however, both the pope and the Church were in desperate trouble. In 1300, Pope Boniface VIII attempted to enforce papal authority on kings as previous popes had.

When King Philip IV of France asserted his authority over French bishops, Boniface responded with an official document. It stated that kings must always obey popes. Philip merely sneered at this statement. In fact, one of Philip's ministers is said to have remarked that "my master's sword is made of steel; the pope's is made of [words]." Instead of obeying the pope, Philip had him held prisoner in September 1303.

The king planned to bring him to France for trial. The pope was rescued, but the elderly Boniface died a month later. Never again would a pope be able to force monarchs to obey him.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 13

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

13.1 Describe the event called the great schism

13.2 Describe the origins and impact of the bubonic plague thatinfected Europe

13.1 The Avignon Papacy or "Babylonian Captivity" (1309-77)

The Later Middle Ages were a time of turmoil for the Catholic Church, as the growing power of kings and popes in the High Middle Ages led to rising tensions over various forms of authority

and jurisdiction. Although they had largely won their struggle with the emperors in Germany, the popes were less successful in dealing with the rising power of the French and English monarchies.

Problems centered on control of two things: the local clergy and Church taxes. The popes had a habit of rewarding their Italian supporters with church offices all across Europe. Both common people and local native clergy resented this and looked to the king for help against these Italian clergy. As a result, the popes found much of their own local clergy aligned against them and with the kings.

Meanwhile, during their struggle with the Holy Roman Empire, the popes had granted kings the right to collect church taxes in return for aid against the German rulers, justifying their actions by declaring these wars crusades. But when war broke out in 1294 between France and England, both countries' kings used the precedent of collecting church taxes for the popes' wars to justify collecting church taxes for their own wars.

When Pope Boniface VIII refused to let Philip IV of France do this, Philip and his agent, Nogaret, planned to subject the pope to the inquisition for crimes he allegedly had committed. When this plan failed, Nogaret and the pope's enemies in Rome kidnapped Boniface. Although he was soon rescued by loyal followers, he died a few days later.

The College of Cardinals, probably feeling pressure from the highhanded acts of the French king and his agents, elected a Frenchman, Clement V, as the new pope. Clement set out for Rome, but never made it there, stopping at Avignon, a papal city close to French territory. For the next 70 years (1309-77), the popes, all of who were French born, stayed in Avignon.

During this period (known as the Babylonian Captivity after the 70 years of captivity the Old Testament Jews had spent in Babylon), the popes came under increasing criticism for being corrupt and under the thumb of the French kings. Whatever the truth of these charges, the

The kings' increasing ability to claim the loyalty of the local clergy and to collect church taxes helped create several quasi-national churches that officially were part of the Roman Catholic Church but were increasingly under royal control. The Babylonian Captivity, along with the Hundred Years War then going on, also triggered challenges to papal authority from two other directions: church councils and popular heresies.

Figure 13.1: Avignon Papacy

13.2   The Great Schism and Conciliar Movement

The resentment that the Babylonian Captivity aroused against the Church grew worse when the popes tried to move back to Rome. By the 1370's, the turmoil of the Hundred Years War was making life at Avignon increasingly dangerous. The capture and ransoming of Pope Innocent VI by a company of English mercenaries (who had little use for a French pope, anyway) convinced Pope Gregory XI to move to Rome.

However, at this time, Rome was a more dangerous place to live in during times of "peace" than France was during war. It took Gregory three attempts to get into Rome, and once he got in, he quickly decided he wanted to leave and return to Avignon. Unfortunately, Gregory died before he could get out.

For the first time in 70 years, Rome was the scene of a papal election, and the Roman mob clamored outside for an Italian pope. Under such pressure, the College of Cardinals elected an Italian, Urban VI, as the next pope. Unfortunately, Urban was something of a violent and bigoted man whose actions drove all but three cardinals back to Avignon where they elected a second pope.

Thus began the Great Schism, a period of turmoil when the Church was divided in its loyalty between two lines of popes, one French and one Italian. To no one's surprise, each pope refused to recognize the other and even excommunicated him and his followers. This led to enormous

anxiety among devout Christians, who found themselves supposedly excommunicated by one pope or the other. With neither pope willing to resign, something had to be done.

The most popular suggestion was a general church council such as the ones summoned to solve major disputes in the past. There were several problems with this solution. First of all, popes traditionally called such councils, and neither pope was willing to call such a council. This made the legality of such a council questionable if not called by at least one pope. Second, different rulers in Europe supported particular popes, largely for political reasons.

Such political divisions made it almost impossible to get people to agree on the site of a council, not to mention the deeper issues involved. Finally, the whole issue of a Church council raised the question: if a council could depose the pope, who was the real head of the Church? This was a question that lingered on long after the Great Schism had faded away.

At last, a council was called at Pisa, Italy in 1409. It deposed the two rival popes and elected a third. Unfortunately, neither original pope recognized the council's power to depose a pope, so now the Church had three popes. However, by this time, people were committed to the idea of a church council, and another one was called at Constance, Switzerland. All three popes were deposed, and a fourth, Martin V, was elected.

Although one of the deposed popes held on in Avignon until 1429, the Great Schism ended here. Its effects did not, because it caused people all over Western Europe to question the authority of the pope in the Church. Although a single pope once again ruled the Church, his reputation and authority were permanently undermined.

13.3 The Challenge from Below: The Lollard and Hussite Heresies

Besides discontent within the ranks of the clergy, the Babylonian Captivity also caused popular discontent in the form of heresies. During the Hundred Years War, the French popes at Avignon were especially unpopular in England, and it was here that the first of these heresies emerged. Its leader was an Oxford scholar, John Wycliffe (called Wicked Life by his enemies).

Figure 13.2: John Wycliffe

His main point was that the Bible is the sole of religious truth, and therefore anything not in the Bible did not belong in the Christian faith or practice. In Wycliffe's view this meant that such mainstays of Catholic practice as confession, penance, pilgrimages, veneration of saintly relics, excommunication, Church ownership of property, and the gap in status between the clergy and laity (non-clergy) should all be abolished since there was no mention of them in the Bible.

Possibly Wycliffe's most revolutionary act was translating the Latin Vulgate Bible into English so the common people could read it for themselves. Such an act made it much more difficult for the Church to keep its monopoly on religious truth.

It also led to a variety of interpretations of the Bible by some of Wycliffe's followers known as Lollards (meaning mumblers or babblers).

The more radical Lollards did such things as chopping up images of saints for firewood, holding mock masses, and eating communion bread with onions to show it was no different from regular bread because of England's hostility to the French and the popes at Avignon, initial reaction to the Lollards was mild until the Wat Tyler Rebellion broke out in 1381.

After that, the authorities were much sterner with the heresy, burning some fifty Lollards at the stake over the next 40 years. Wycliffe himself was mildly reprimanded. He died peacefully in 1384. However, his heresy did not.

Among the Lollards were a number of influential people, including Queen Anne, who came from Bohemia (modern Czech Republic). She sent several copies of Wycliffe's writings home where the heresy caught on. In addition to this heresy, there was also a growing national consciousness among the Bohemians aimed mainly against the German ruling class.

This combination of heresy and a growing national consciousness would prove to be a devastating force in the events about to unfold. Public sermons in the streets of Prague criticized Church corruption while translators produced 33 handwritten copies of the Bible in the Czech language.

At the center of all this turmoil was Jan Hus, a popular preacher and professor who was heavily influenced by Wycliffe. Hus' writing and preaching stirred up more and more anti-church and anti-German feeling. This led to a condemnation of Hus' works, which in turn provoked a wave of riots and protests across Bohemia.

Faced with the possibility of a full-scale rebellion against the Church, the pope and the Council of Constance summoned Hus, under promise of a safe conduct, to defend his views. The council unwisely went back on its word, had Hus declared a heretic, and burned him at the stake. Rather than depriving the Bohemians of a leader, this act provided them with a martyr around whom they could rally.

The resulting Hussite Wars (1420-36) showed how powerful a combination nationalist feeling and popular piety could be. The Church launched five crusades against the Hussites, all of them dismal failures. The Hussites combined new firearms technology with the ancient Bohemian tactic of making circular walls of wagons (wagenburgs) to create a seemingly invincible army.

Hussite armies even invaded Germany, plundering at will all the way to the Baltic Sea. By 1433, the Church had had enough and opened negotiations with the Hussites to keep them from spreading their heresy across Europe.

The Hussites, not ready for a complete break with the Catholic Church that had led the faith for centuries, were also willing to compromise. The Church allowed certain religious liberties in return for the Hussites' allegiance to the Church.

Although the Hussites had returned to the Church, their importance lived on. For, just across the border in Saxony some 85 years later, another reformer by the name of Martin Luther would lead another revolt against the Church, raising many of the same points Wycliffe and the Hussites had raised. Only this time, the break, known as the Protestant Reformation, would be permanent and alter the course of European and world history.

Summary of Study Session 13

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. The signs of growing stress showed in the rising population and change in climate the origin of the plague and its spread across Europe started in Italy in 1347

2. The result of the plague and its impact on Europe extremely disastrous. It led to popular discontent in the form of heresies.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 13

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 13.1 (tests learning outcome 13.1)

What are the two major sign of growing stress that aided the spread of the plague?

SAQ 13.2 (tests learning outcome 13.2)

When and how did the bubonic plague start?

SAQ 13.2 (tests learning outcome 13.3)

What were three effects of the bubonic plague?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs)

SAQ 13.1:
- There was a dramatic rise in population, which in turn led to rising demands for food and fuel. This generated inflation and a strain on the environment.

- There was also a change of climate resulting in floods and early frosts which caused great famines in 1316 and 1317 thus resulting to malnutrition of the early 1300s made people born during that time especially susceptible to disease.

SAQ 13.2:

- The Bubonic Plague started in 1347 when a fleet of Genoese merchant ships arrived in Sicily carrying the plague, also known as the Black Death.The disease swept through Italy. From there it followed trade routes to Spain, France, Germany, England, and other parts of Europe and North Africa.

SAQ 13.3

- Town populations fell.
- Trade declined and prices rose
- The serfs left the manor in search of better wages.
- Nobles fiercely resisted peasant demands for higher wages, causing peasant revolts in England, France, Italy, and Belgium.
- Jews were blamed for bringing the plague. All over Europe, Jews were driven from their homes or, worse, massacred.

Study Session 14: The Italian Renaissance, 1400-1500

Introduction

In this study session you will learn about the renaissance that began in Italy. During the late middle Ages, Europe suffered from both war and plague. Those who survived wanted to celebrate life and the human spirit.

They began to question institutions of the middle Ages, which had been unable to prevent war or to relieve suffering brought by the plague. Some people questioned the Church, which taught Christians to endure suffering while they awaited their rewards in heaven.

In northern Italy, writers and artists began to express this new spirit and to experiment with different styles. These men and women would greatly change how Europeans saw themselves and their world.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 14

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

14.1 Describe the reasons why Italy the renaissance started in Italy

14.2 Explain the meaning of the Renaissance

14.3 Describe the new pattern of thought that emerge with the renaissance

14.4 Describe the Renaissance literature and learning

14.5 Explain the changes in Renaissance Art

14.6 Describe the impact of the renaissance.

14.1 Why Italy?

On rare occasion one comes across a period of such dynamic cultural change that it is seen as a major turning point in history. Ancient Greece, and especially Athens, in the fifth century B.C. was such a turning point in the birth of Western Civilization. The Italian Renaissance was

another. Both were drawing upon a rich cultural heritage. For the Greeks, it was the ancient Near East and Egypt.

For the Italian Renaissance, it was ancient Rome and Greece. Both ages broke the bonds of earlier cultural restraints and unleashed a flurry of innovations that have seldom, if ever, been equaled elsewhere. Both ages produced radically new forms and ideas in a wide range of areas: art, architecture, literature, history, and science.

Both ages shined brilliantly and somewhat briefly before falling victim to violent ends, largely of their own making. Yet, despite their relative briefness, both ages passed on a cultural heritage that is an essential part of our own civilization. There were three important factors making Italy the birthplace of the Renaissance:

1. Italy's geographic location. Renaissance Italy was drawing upon the civilizations of ancient Greece and especially Rome, upon whose ruins it was literally sitting. During the Middle Ages, Italians had neglected and abused their Roman heritage, even stripping marble and stone from Roman buildings for their own constructions.

    However, by the late Middle Ages, they were becoming more aware of the Roman civilization surrounding them. Italy was also geographically well placed for contact with the Byzantines and Arabs who had preserved classical culture. Both of these factors combined to make Italy well suited to absorb the Greek and Roman heritage

2. The recent invention of the printing press spread new ideas quickly and accurately. This was especially important now since many Renaissance ideas were not acceptable to the Church. However, with the printing press, these ideas were very hard to suppress.

3. Renaissance Italy, like the ancient Greeks, thrived in the urban culture and vibrant economy of the city-state. This helped in two ways. First, the smaller and more intimate environment of the city-state, combined with the freedom of expression found there, allowed a number of geniuses to flourish and feed off one another's creative energies.

Unfortunately, the city-state could also be turbulent and violent, as seen in the riot scene that opens Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet. Secondly, the Italian city-states, especially trading and banking centers such as Venice and Florence, provided the money to patronize the arts.

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Therefore, the wealth and freedom of expression thriving in the urban culture of Italy both helped give birth to the Renaissance.

In-text Question

Ancient Greece, and especially Athens, in the fifth century B.C. was such a turning point in the birth of Western Civilization .True or False

In-text Answer

True.

14.2 The Meaning Renaissance

Renaissance literally means rebirth, in this case the rebirth of classical Greek and Roman culture. The traditional view of the Renaissance was that it suddenly emerged as a result of the fall of Constantinople in 1453, which drove Greek scholars to seek refuge in Italy and pass classical culture to Italy.

Historians now take this as too simplistic an explanation. For one thing, knowledge of Greek and Roman culture had never completely died out in medieval Europe, being kept alive during the Dark Ages in the monasteries, and during the High Middle Ages in the growing universities. Secondly, a revived interest in classical culture can be traced back to the Italian authors, Dante and Petrarch, in the early 1300's.

Thus the Italian Renaissance was more the product of a long evolution rather than a sudden outburst.

Still, the term "renaissance" has some validity, since its conscious focus was classical culture.

The art and architecture drew heavily upon Greek and Roman forms. Historical and political writers used Greek and Roman examples to make their points.

And renaissance science, in particular, relied almost slavishly upon Greek and Roman authorities, which was important, since it set up rival authorities to the Church and allowed Western Civilization to break free from the constraints of medieval thought and give birth to the Scientific Revolution during the Enlightenment.

In-text Question

Renaissance literally means _____

      a. Rebirth

      b. Civilization

      c. History

      d. Revolution

In-text Answer

      a

14.3 New Patterns of Thought

Whether one sees the Renaissance as a period of originality or just drawing upon older cultures, it did generate four ideas that have been and still are central to Western Civilization: secularism, humanism, individualism, and skepticism.

14.3.1 Secularism

Secularism comes from the word secular, meaning of this world. Medieval civilization had been largely concerned with religion and the next world. The new economic and political horizons and opportunities that were opening up for Western Europe in the High and Late Middle Ages got people more interested in this world. During the Renaissance people saw this life as worth living for its own sake, not just as preparation for the next world.

The art in particular exhibited this secular spirit, showing detailed and accurate scenery, anatomy, and nature, whereas medieval artists generally ignored such things since their paintings were for the glory of God.

This is not to say that Renaissance people had lost faith in God. Religion was still the most popular theme for paintings. But during the Renaissance people found other things worth living for besides the afterlife.

14.3.2 Humanism

Humanism goes along with secularism in that it makes human beings, not God, the center of attention. The quotation at the top of this reading certainly emphasizes this point. So did Renaissance art, which portrayed the human body as a thing of beauty in its own right, not like some medieval "comic strip" character whose only reason to exist was for the glory of God.

Along those lines, Renaissance philosophers saw humans as intelligent creatures capable of reason (and questioning authority) rather than being mindless pawns helplessly manipulated by God.

Even the term for Renaissance philosophers, "humanists", shows how the focus of peoples' attention had shifted from Heaven and God to this world and human beings. It also described the group of scholars who drew upon the more secular Greek and Roman civilizations for inspiration.

14.3.3 Individualism

Individualism takes humanism a step further by saying that individual humans were capable of great accomplishments. The more communal, group oriented society and mentality of the middle Ages was giving way to a belief in the individual and his achievements.

The importance of this was that it freed remarkable individuals and geniuses, such as Leonardo da Vinci to live up to their potential without being held back by a medieval society that discouraged innovation.

Besides the outstanding achievements of Leonardo, one sees individualism expressed in a wide variety of ways during the Renaissance.

Artists started signing their paintings, thus showing individualistic pride in their work. Also, the more communal guild system was being replaced by the more individualistic system of capitalism, which encouraged private enterprise.

14.3.4 Skepticism

Skepticism, which promoted curiosity and the questioning of authority, was largely an outgrowth of the other three Renaissance ideas. The secular spirit of the age naturally put Renaissance humanists at odds with the Church and its purely religious values and explanations of the universe.

Humanism and individualism, with their belief in the ability of human reason, raised challenges to the Church's authority and theories, which in turn led to such things as the Protestant Reformation, the Age of Exploration and the Scientific Revolution, all of which would radically alter how Western Europe views the world and universe.

These four new ideas of secularism, humanism, individualism, and skepticism led to innovations in a variety of fields during the Renaissance, the most prominent being literature and learning, art, science, the Age of Exploration, and the Protestant Reformation.

14.4 Renaissance Literature and Learning

Literature and learning throughout the middle Ages were centered on the Church. Consequently, most books were of a religious nature. There were Greek and Roman texts stashed away in the monasteries, but few people paid much attention to them. All that changed during the Renaissance.

For one thing, increased wealth and the invention of the printing press created a broader public that could afford an education and printed books.

Most of these newly educated people were from the noble and middle classes. Therefore, they wanted a more practical and secular education and books to prepare them for the real world of business and politics.

In response to this, new schools were set up to give the sons of nobles and wealthy merchants an education with a broader and more secular curriculum than the Church provided: philosophy, literature, mathematics, history, and politics. Naturally much of the basis for this new curriculum was Greek and Roman culture.

Classical authors such as Demosthenes and Cicero were used to teach students how to think, write, and speak clearly. Greek and Roman history were used to teach object lessons in politics. This curriculum provided the skills and knowledge seen as essential for an educated man back then, and served as the basis for school curriculums well into the twentieth century.

Only in recent decades has a more technical education largely replaced the curriculum established for us in the Renaissance. Along the same lines, a more secular literature largely replaced the predominantly religious literature of the middle Ages.

History, as a study of the past (Greek and Roman past in particular) in order to learn lessons for the future, was emerging. So was another emerging new discipline deeply rooted in history: political science. The father of this discipline was Nicolo Machiavelli (1469-1527).

In-text Question

Literature and learning throughout the middle Ages were centered on the Church. True or False

In-text Answer

True

14.4.1 Machiavelli

The Prince (1513), by Niccolò Machiavelli, also examines the imperfect conduct of human beings. It does so by taking the form of a political guidebook. In *The Prince,* Machiavelli examines how a ruler can gain power and keep it in spite of his enemies. In answering this question, he began with the idea that most people are selfish, fickle, and corrupt.

To succeed in such a wicked world, Machiavelli said, a prince must be strong as a lion and shrewd as a fox. He might have to trick his enemies and even his own people for the good of the state. In *The Prince,* Machiavelli was not concerned with what was morally right, but with what was politically effective. He pointed out that most people think it is praiseworthy in a prince to keep his word and live with integrity.

Nevertheless, Machiavelli argued that in the real world of power and politics a prince must sometimes mislead the people and lie to his opponents. As a historian and political thinker, Machiavelli suggested that in order for a prince to accomplish great things, he must be crafty enough to not only overcome the suspicions but also gain the trust of others:

From this arises the question whether it is better to be loved more than feared, or feared more than loved. The reply is, that one ought to be both feared and loved, but as it is difficult for the two to go together, it is much safer to be feared than loved, if one of the two has to be wanting.

For it may be said of men in general that they are ungrateful, voluble [changeable], dissemblers [liars], anxious to avoid danger, and covetous of gain; as long as you benefit them, they are entirely yours; they offer you their blood, their goods, their life, and their children, as I have before said, when the necessity is remote; but when it approaches, they revolt. And the prince who has relied solely on their words, without making preparations, is ruined.

14.4.2 Petrarch and Boccaccio

Francesco Petrarch was one of the earliest and most influential humanists. Some have called him the father of Renaissance humanism. He was also a great poet. Petrarch wrote both in Italian and in Latin. In Italian, he wrote sonnets—14-line poems. They were about a mysterious woman named Laura, who was his ideal. (Little is known of Laura except that she died of the plague in 1348.) In classical Latin, he wrote letters to many important friends.

Another book of a secular nature was the *Decameron* by the Italian writer Giovanni Boccaccio, a series of realistic, sometimes off-color stories. The stories are supposedly told by a group of worldly young people waiting in a rural villa to avoid the plague sweeping through Florence:

In the year of Our Lord 1348 the deadly plague broke out in the great city of Florence, most beautiful of Italian cities. Whether through the operation of the heavenly bodies or because of our own iniquities [sins] which the just wrath of God sought to correct, the plague had arisen in the East some years before, causing the death of countless human beings. It spread without stop from one place to another, until, unfortunately, it swept over the West.

Neither knowledge nor human foresight availed against it, though the city was cleansed of much filth by chosen officers in charge and sick persons were forbidden to enter it, while advice was broadcast for the preservation of health.

The *Decameron* presents both tragic and comic views of life. In its stories, the author uses cutting humor to illustrate the human condition. Boccaccio presents his characters in all their individuality and all their folly.

Castiglione's The Courtier, which spelled out the ideal education and qualities of a nobleman attending a prince's court. Unlike the usually illiterate and rough mannered medieval noble, Castiglione's courtier should be versed in manners (such as not cleaning one's teeth in public with one's finger). This ideal of the well-rounded "Renaissance Man" hearkens back to the Greek ideal of a well-rounded man and has continued to this day.

14.5 Renaissance Art

Art is the one field most people associate with the Renaissance since it saw the most radical innovations and breaks with the Middle Ages. Medieval art was religious in tone and for the glory of God.

As a result, artists neglected mundane details, thus making the art flat and lifeless. Faces and bodies were cartoon like, having no individual features or anything approaching anatomical detail. Other details such as background, perspective, proportion, and individuality were all virtually unknown.

Renaissance art contrasted sharply with medieval art in all these respects. More paintings were on secular themes, especially portraits. And even the religious paintings paid a great deal of attention to glorifying the human form and accomplishments. Starting with Giotto in the early 1300's, Renaissance artists increasingly perfected and used such things as background, perspective, proportion, and individuality.

In fact, Leonardo's detail was so good that botanists today can identify the kinds of plants he put into his paintings. Although painting was especially prominent during the Renaissance, other art forms also flourished. For example, architecture broke somewhat with the medieval Gothic style during the Renaissance.

However, it was less innovative and relied more heavily on classical forms, in particular columns, arches, and domes as well as building on a massive scale.

Possibly the supreme example of this is the dome of St. Peter's in Rome which was designed by Michelangelo and towers 435 feet from the floor. Music in the Renaissance saw developments that would later blossom into classical music. Instruments were improved and the whole family of violins was developed. Counterpoint (the blending of two melodies) and polyphony (interweaving several melodic lines) also emerged during this period.

Supported by patrons like Isabella d'Este, dozens of artists worked in northern Italy. As the Renaissance advanced, artistic styles changed. Medieval artists had used religious subjects to convey a spiritual ideal. Renaissance artists often portrayed religious subjects, but they used a realistic style copied from classical models. Greek and Roman subjects also became popular. Renaissance painters used the technique of perspective, which shows three dimensions on a flat surface.

14.5.1 Realistic Painting and Sculpture

Following the new emphasis on individuals, painters began to paint prominent citizens. These realistic portraits revealed what was distinctive about each person. In addition, artists such as the sculptor, poet, architect, and painter Michelangelo Buonarroti used a realistic style when

depicting the human body. Donatello also made sculpture more realistic by carving natural postures and expressions that reveal personality.

He revived a classical form in his statue of David, a boy who, according to the Bible, became a great king. Donatello's statue was created in the late 1460s. It was the first European sculpture of a large, free-standing nude since ancient times. For sculptors of the period, including Michelangelo, David was a favorite subject.

14.5.2 Leonardo, Renaissance Man

Leonardo da Vinci was a painter, sculptor, inventor, and scientist. A true "Renaissance man," he was interested in how things worked. He studied how a muscle moves and how veins are arranged in a leaf. He filled his notebooks with observations and sketches. Then he incorporated his findings in his art.

Among his many masterpieces, Leonardo painted one of the best-known portraits in the world, the *Mona Lisa*. The woman in the portrait seems so real that many writers have tried to explain the thoughts behind her smile. Leonardo also produced a famous religious painting, *The Last Supper*. It shows the personalities of Jesus' disciples through facial expressions.

14.5.3 Raphael Advanced Realism

Raphael Sanzio was younger than Michelangelo and Leonardo. He learned from studying their works. One of Raphael's favorite subjects was the Madonna and child. Raphael often portrayed their expressions as gentle and calm. He was famous for his use of perspective. In his greatest achievement, Raphael filled the walls of Pope Julius II's library with paintings.

One of these, *School of Athens*, conveys the classical influence on the Renaissance. Raphael painted famous Renaissance figures, such as Michelangelo, Leonardo, and himself, as classical philosophers and their students.

14.5.4 Anguissola and Gentileschi

Renaissance society generally restricted women's roles. However, a few Italian women became notable painters. Sofonisba Anguissola was the first woman artist to gain an international reputation. She is known for her portraits of her sisters and of prominent people such as King Philip II of Spain.

Artemisia Gentileschi was another accomplished artist. She trained with her painter father and helped with his work. In her own paintings, Gentileschi painted pictures of strong, heroic women.

14.6 Impact

Science saw little advancement, but it was also important for future developments. In particular, classical authorities were discovered who contradicted Aristotle, whose works were accepted by the Church almost as gospel. Finding conflicting authorities forced Renaissance humanists to ask questions that would lead to developing new theories, which in turn would lead to the birth of modern science in the 1600's and 1700's.

The Age of Exploration also showed Renaissance ideas at work. It was secular in its interest in the world. It certainly displayed skepticism by challenging accepted ideas about the world. And the fact that it pitted individual captains against the forces of nature shows it was both humanistic and individualistic.

The Protestant Reformation was one other result of the Italian Renaissance. The spirit of skepticism challenged the authority of the Church, thus opening the way for much more serious challenge later posed by the Protestants. The Protestant Reformation, in turn, would pave the way for new patterns of thought in social, political, economic, and scientific matters.

Political disunity attracted a devastating round of wars and invasions that ended its most innovative cultural period. However, in the process, the invaders took the ideas of the Italian Renaissance back to Northern Europe and sparked what is known as the Northern Renaissance.

Summary of Study Session 14

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. The renaissance started in Italy for various reasons
2. The Renaissance has many definitions
3. The Renaissance created four new patterns of thought
4. The Renaissance produced literatures
5. Changes in Renaissance Art were very pronounced
6. The renaissance had a lasting impact on Europe.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 14

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 14.1 (tests learning outcome 14.1)

Why was Italy the birthplace for the commencement of the Renaissance?

SAQ 14.2 (tests learning outcome 14.2)

Give a brief definition of renaissance.

SAQ 14.3 (tests learning outcome 14.3)

What are the four new patterns of thought that became prominent during the renaissance?

SAQ 14.4 (tests learning outcome 14.4)

Name three writers that featured prominently during the renaissance.

SAQ 14.5 (tests learning outcome 14.5)

Mention four of the renaissance artists

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 14

SAQ 14.1:

a. Italy became the birthplace for the renaissance because of its geographical location. Italy was geographically well placed for contact with the Byzantines and Arabs who had preserved classical culture.

b. The invention of the printing press spread new ideas quickly and accurately.

c. The rise of urban culture and vibrant economy of the city-state.Italian city-states, especially trading and banking centers such as Venice and Florence, provided the money to patronize the arts.

SAQ 14.2:

Renaissance literally means rebirth, in this case the rebirth of classical Greek and Roman culture.

SAQ 14.3: Secularism; Humanism; Individualism; and Skepticism

SAQ 14.4: Niccolo Machiavelli; Francesco Petrarch; Giovanni Boccaccio

SAQ 14.5: Michelangelo Buonarroti; Leonardo da Vinci; Raphael Sanzio; SofonisbaAnguissola

Study Session 15: The Age of Discovery

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Introduction

By the early 1400s, Europeans were ready to venture beyond their borders. This spirit of adventure, along with several other important reasons, prompted Europeans to explore the world around them.

This study session describe how these explorations began a long process that would bring together the peoples of many different lands and permanently change the world.

Learning Outcomes for Study Session 15

When you have studied this session, you should be able to:

15.1 Describe the reasons why Italy the renaissance started in Italy

15.2 Explain the meaning of the Renaissance

5.3 Describe the new pattern of thought that emerge with the renaissance

15.4 Describe the Renaissance literature and learning

15.5 Explain the changes in Renaissance Art

15.1 For "God, Glory, and Gold"

Europeans had not been completely isolated from the rest of the world before the 1400s. Beginning around 1100, European crusaders battled Muslims for control of the Holy Lands in Southwest Asia. In 1275, the Italian trader Marco Polo reached the court of Kublai Khan in China.

For the most part, however, Europeans had neither the interest nor the ability to explore foreign lands. That changed by the early 1400s. The desire to grow rich and to spread Christianity, coupled with advances in sailing technology, spurred an age of European exploration.

Figure 15.1 Gold

15.1.1 Europeans Seek New Trade Routes

The desire for new s of wealth was the main reason for European exploration. Through overseas exploration, merchants and traders hoped ultimately to benefit from what had become a profitable business in Europe: the trade of spices and other luxury goods from Asia. The people of Europe had been introduced to these items during the Crusades, the wars fought between Christians and Muslims from 1096 to 1270.

After the Crusades ended, Europeans continued to demand such spices as nutmeg, ginger, cinnamon, and pepper, all of which added flavor to the bland foods of Europe. Because demand for these goods was greater than the supply, merchants could charge high prices and thus make great profits.

The Muslims and the Italians controlled the trade of goods from East to West. Muslims sold Asian goods to Italian merchants, who controlled trade across the land routes of the Mediterranean region. The Italian merchants resold the items at increased prices to merchants throughout Europe.

Other European traders did not like this arrangement. Paying such high prices to the Italians severely cut into their own profits. By the 1400s, European merchants—as well as the new monarchs of England, Spain, Portugal, and France—sought to bypass the Italian merchants. This meant finding a sea route directly to Asia.

15.1.2 The Spread of Christianity

The desire to spread Christianity also motivated Europeans to explore. The Crusades had left Europeans with a taste for spices, but more significantly with feelings of hostility between Christians and Muslims. European countries believed that they had a sacred duty not only to continue fighting Muslims, but also to convert non-Christians throughout the world. Europeans hoped to obtain popular goods directly from the peoples of Asia.

They also hoped to Christianize them. **Bartolomeu Dias**, an early Portuguese explorer, explained his motives: "To serve God and His Majesty, to give light to those who were in darkness and to grow rich as all men desire to do."

15.1.3 Technology Made Exploration Possible

While "God, glory, and gold" were the primary motives for exploration, advances in technology made the voyages of discovery possible. During the 1200s, it would have been nearly impossible for a European sea captain to cross 3,000 miles of ocean and return again. The main problem was that European ships could not sail against the wind. In the 1400s, shipbuilders designed a new vessel, the caravel.

The caravel was sturdier than earlier vessels. In addition, triangular sails adopted from the Arabs allowed it to sail effectively against the wind. Europeans also improved their navigational techniques. To better determine their location at sea, sailors used the astrolabe, which the Muslims had perfected.

The astrolabe was a brass circle with carefully adjusted rings marked off in degrees. Using the rings to sight the stars, a sea captain could calculate latitude, or how far north or south of the equator the ship was. Explorers were also able to more accurately track direction by using a magnetic compass, a Chinese invention.

15.2 Portugal the Trail blazer

The leader in developing and applying these sailing innovations was Portugal. Located on the Atlantic Ocean at the southwest corner of Europe, Portugal was the first European country to establish trading outposts along the west coast of Africa. Eventually, Portuguese explorers pushed farther east into the Indian Ocean.

15.2.1 The Portuguese Exploration of Africa

Portugal took the lead in overseas exploration in part due to strong government support. The nation's most enthusiastic supporter of exploration was **Prince Henry**, the son of Portugal's king. Henry's dreams of overseas exploration began in 1415 when he helped conquer the Muslim city of Ceuta in North Africa.

There, he had his first glimpse of the dazzling wealth that lay beyond Europe. In Ceuta, the Portuguese invaders found exotic stores filled with pepper, cinnamon, cloves, and other spices. In addition, they encountered large supplies of gold, silver, and jewels.

Figure 15.2 Prince Henry of Wales

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15.2.2 The Tools of Exploration

Out on the open seas, winds easily blew ships off course. With only the sun, moon, and stars to guide them, few sailors willingly ventured beyond the sight of land. In order to travel to distant places, European inventors and sailors experimented with new tools for navigation and new designs for sailing ships, often borrowing from other cultures.

Henry returned to Portugal determined to reach the of these treasures in the East. The prince also wished to spread the Christian faith. In 1419, Henry founded anavigation school on the southwestern coast of Portugal. Mapmakers, instrument makers, shipbuilders, scientists, and sea captains gathered there to perfect their trade.

Within several years, Portuguese ships began sailing down the western coast of Africa. By the time Henry died in 1460, the Portuguese had established a series of trading posts along western Africa's shores. There, they traded with Africans for such profitable items as gold and ivory. Eventually, they traded for African captives to be used as slaves.

Having established their presence along the African coast, Portuguese explorers plotted their next move. They would attempt to find a sea route to Asia.

15.2.3 Portuguese Sailors in Asia

The Portuguese believed that to reach Asia by sea, they would have to sail around the southern tip of Africa. In 1488, Portuguese captain Bartolommeo Dias ventured far down the coast of

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Africa until he and his crew reached the tip. As they arrived, a huge storm rose and battered the fleet for days.

When the storm ended, Dias realized his ships had been blown around the tip to the other side. Dias explored the southeast coast of Africa and then considered sailing to India. However, his crew was exhausted and food supplies were low. As a result, the captain returned home. With the tip of Africa finally rounded, the Portuguese continued pushing east.

In 1497, Portuguese explorer **Vasco da Gama** began exploring the east African coast. In 1498, he reached the port of Calicut, on the southwestern coast of India. Da Gama and his crew were amazed by the spices, rare silks, and precious gems that filled Calicut's shops.

The Portuguese sailors filled their ships with such spices as pepper and cinnamon and returned to Portugal in 1499. Their cargo was worth 60 times the cost of the voyage. Da Gama's remarkable voyage of 27,000 miles had given Portugal a direct sea route to India.

In-text Question

In 1497, Portuguese explorer _____ began exploring the east African coast

      a. Vasco da Gama

      b. Vasco de Gamal

      c. Vasco Enrique

      d. Vasco Calicut

In-text Answer

a

15.2.4 Portugal's Trading Empire

In the years following da Gama's voyage, Portugal built a bustling trading empire throughout the Indian Ocean. As the Portuguese moved into the region, they took control of the spice trade from Muslim merchants. In 1509, Portugal extended its control over the area when it defeated a Muslim fleet off the coast of India, a victory made possible by the cannons they had added aboard their ships.

Portugal strengthened its hold on the region by building a fort at Hormuz in 1514. It established control of the Straits of Hormuz, connecting the Persian Gulf and Arabian Sea, and helped stop Muslim traders from reaching India. In 1510, the Portuguese captured Goa, a port city on India's

west coast. They made it the capital of their trading empire. They then sailed farther east to Indonesia, also known as the East Indies.

In 1511, a Portuguese fleet attacked the city of Malacca on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. In capturing the town, the Portuguese seized control of the Strait of Malacca. Seizing this waterway gave them control of the Moluccas.

These were islands so rich in spices that they became known as the Spice Islands. In convincing his crew to attack Malacca, Portuguese sea captain Afonso de Albuquerque stressed his country's intense desire to crush the Muslim-Italian domination over Asian trade:

If we deprive them [Muslims] of this their ancient market there, there does not remain for them a single port in the whole of these parts, where they can carry on their trade in these things. . . . I hold it as very certain that if we take this trade of Malacca away out of their hands, Cairo and Mecca are entirely ruined, and to Venice will no spiceries . . .[be] . . . conveyed except that which her merchants go and buy in Portugal.

Portugal did break the old Muslim-Italian domination on trade from the East, much to the delight of European consumers. Portuguese merchants brought back goods from Asia at about one-fifth of what they cost when purchased through the Arabs and Italians. As a result, more Europeans could afford these items. In time, Portugal's success in Asia attracted the attention of other European nations.

As early as 1521, a Spanish expedition led by Ferdinand Magellan arrived in the Philippines. Spain claimed the islands and began settling them in 1565. By the early 1600s, the rest of Europe had begun to descend upon Asia. They wanted to establish their own trade empires in the East.

15.3 Other Nations Challenged the Portuguese

Beginning around 1600, the English and Dutch began to challenge Portugal's dominance over the Indian Ocean trade. The Dutch Republic, also known as the Netherlands, was a small country situated along the North Sea in northwestern Europe.

Since the early 1500s, Spain had ruled the area. In 1581, the people of the region declared their independence from Spain and established the Dutch Republic. In a short time, the Netherlands became a leading sea power.

By 1600, the Dutch owned the largest fleet of ships in the world—20,000 vessels. Pressure from Dutch and also English fleets eroded Portuguese control of the Asian region. The Dutch and English then battled one another for dominance of the area. Both countries had formed an East India Company to establish and direct trade throughout Asia.

These companies had the power to mint money, make treaties, and even raise their own armies. The **Dutch East India Company** was richer and more powerful than England's company. As a result, the Dutch eventually drove out the English and established their dominance over the region.

15.3.1 The Emergence of Spain

As the Portuguese were establishing trading posts along the west coast of Africa, Spain watched with increasing envy. The Spanish monarchs also desired a direct sea route to Asia. In 1492, an Italian sea captain, Christopher Columbus, convinced Spain to finance a bold plan: finding a route to Asia by sailing west across the Atlantic Ocean. In October of that year, Columbus reached an island in the Caribbean.

He was mistaken in his thought that he had reached the East Indies. But his voyage would open the way for European colonization of the Americas—a process that would forever change the world. The immediate impact of Columbus's voyage, however, was to increase tensions between Spain and Portugal. The Portuguese believed that Columbus had indeed reached Asia.

Portugal suspected that Columbus had claimed for Spain lands that Portuguese sailors might have reached first. The rivalry between Spain and Portugal grew more tense. In 1493, Pope Alexander VI stepped in to keep peace between the two nations. He suggested an imaginary dividing line, drawn north to south, through the Atlantic Ocean.

All lands to the west of the line, known as the Line of Demarcation, would be Spain's. These lands included most of the Americas. All lands to the east of the line would belong to Portugal. Portugal complained that the line gave too much to Spain. So it was moved farther west to include parts of modern-day Brazil for the Portuguese.

In 1494, Spain and Portugal signed the **Treaty of Tordesillas**, in which they agreed to honor the line. The era of exploration and colonization was about to begin in earnest.

Figure 15.3: Pope Alexander VI

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15.3.2 Dutch Trade Outposts

In 1619, the Dutch established their trading headquarters at Batavia on the island of Java. From there, they expanded west to conquer several nearby islands. In addition, the Dutch seized both the port of Malacca and the valuable Spice Islands from Portugal.

Throughout the 1600s, the Netherlands increased its control over the Indian Ocean trade. With so many goods from the East traveling to the Netherlands, the nation's capital, Amsterdam, became a leading commercial center.

By 1700, the Dutch ruled much of Indonesia and had trading posts in several Asian countries. They also controlled the Cape of Good Hope on the southern tip of Africa, which was used as a resupply stop.

15.3.3 British and French Traders

By 1700 also, Britain and France had gained a foothold in the region. Having failed to win control of the larger area, the English East India Company focused much of its energy on establishing outposts in India. There, the English developed a successful business trading Indian cloth in Europe. In 1664, France also entered the Asia trade with its own East India Company. It struggled at first, as it faced continual attacks by the Dutch.

Eventually, the French company established an outpost in India in the 1720s. However, it never showed much of a profit. As the Europeans battled for a share of the profitable Indian Ocean trade, their influence inland in Southeast Asia remained limited. European traders did take control of many port cities in the region.

But their impact rarely spread beyond the ports. From 1500 to about 1800, when Europeans began to conquer much of the region, the peoples of Asia remained largely unaffected by European contact.

Summary of Study Session 15

In this study session, you have learnt the following:

1. The renaissance started in Italy for various reasons
2. The Renaissance has many definitions
3. The Renaissance created four new patterns of thought
4. The Renaissance produced literatures
5. Changes in Renaissance Art were very pronounced
6. The renaissance had a lasting impact on Europe.

Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session 15

Now that you have completed this study session, you can assess how well you have achieved its Learning Outcomes by answering these questions. You can check your answers with the Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions at the end of this Module.

SAQ 15 (tests learning outcome 15)

For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

Bartolomeu Dias • Prince Henry • Vasco da Gama • Treaty of Tordesillas • Dutch East India Company

SAQ 15.1 (tests learning outcome 15.1)

How might the phrase "God, glory, and gold" summarize the Europeans' motives for exploration?

SAQ 15.2 (tests learning outcome 15.2)

What was Prince Henry's goal and who actually achieved it?

SAQ 15.3 (tests learning outcome 15.3)

What European countries were competing for Asian trade during the age of exploration?

Notes on the Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs) for Study Session

AQ 15:

- **Bartolomeu Dias:**He was an early Portuguese explorer who explained the motives of the Europeans in this phrase: "To serve God and His Majesty, to give light to those who were in darkness and to grow rich as all men desire to do."

- **Prince Henry:** Prince Henry, the son of Portugal's king was the nation's most enthusiastic supporter of exploration.

- **Vasco da Gama:** Vasco da Gama was aPortuguese explorer who began exploring the east African coast in 1497. In 1498, he reached the port of Calicut, on the southwestern coast of India.

- **Treaty of Tordesillas:** Treaty of Tordesillas was a treaty signed by Spain and Portugal in 1494 in which they agreed to honor an imaginary dividing line, drawn north to south, through the Atlantic Ocean. The line was drawn to settle the rivalry between Spain and Portugal. in 1493 by Pope Alexander VI who interenedto keep peace between the two nations. He suggested All lands to the west of the line, known as the Line of Demarcation, would be Spain's. These lands included most of the Americas. All lands to the east of the line would belong to Portugal. Portugal complained that the line gave too much to Spain. So it was moved farther west to include parts of modern-day Brazil for the Portuguese.

- **Dutch East India Company:**Dutch East India Companywas established in 1602 by the Dutch to engage in the exploration of the eastern world. This company was richer and more powerful than England's company.

SAQ 15.1:

In the phrase 'God, glory, and gold',gold represent the desire to grow rich. God represent the desire to spread Christianity, and glory represent the technological advancement the Europeans desired to show.

SAQ 15.2:

The goal of Prince Henry was to direct access to the dazzling wealth that lay beyond Europe. The prince also wished to spread the Christian faith. The man who helped him to achieve it was Vasco da Gama a Portuguese explorer who began exploring the east African coast in 1497. In 1498, he reached the port of Calicut, on the southwestern coast of India.

SAQ 15.3: Portugal, Spain, Holland, France and England.

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