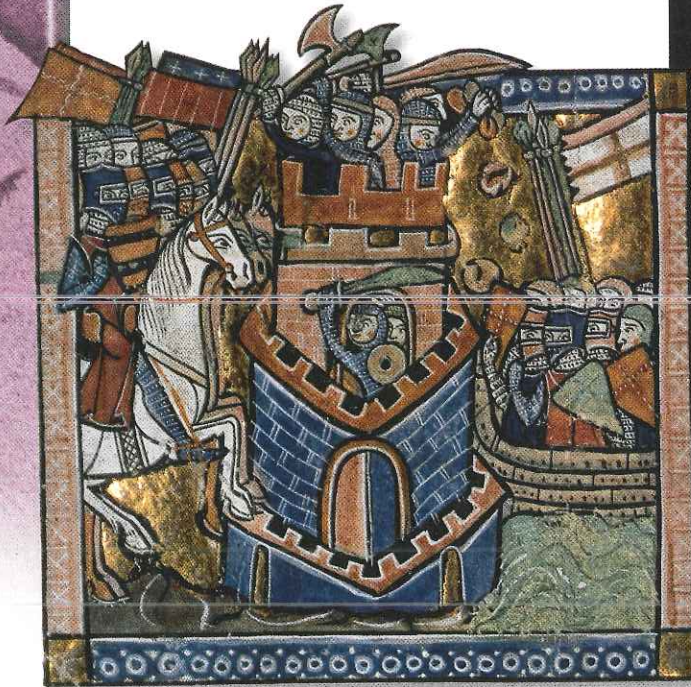


The High Middle Ages

1050–1450

Chapter Preview

- 1** Growth of Royal Power in England and France
- 2** The Holy Roman Empire and the Church
- 3** Europeans Look Outward
- 4** Learning, Literature, and the Arts
- 5** A Time of Crisis



1215

King John, shown above, signs the Magna Carta limiting royal power in England.

1096

Christians launch the First Crusade. The siege of Antioch is shown above.

CHAPTER EVENTS

1000

GLOBAL EVENTS

1000s Kilwa, Sofala, and other East African port cities thrive on trade.

1100

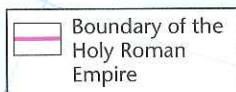
1200

1192 Minamoto Yoritomo establishes the Kamakura shogunate in Japan.

Europe About 1300



By the 1300s, monarchs in Western Europe were increasing their power and building strong united kingdoms.



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SECTION 1

Growth of Royal Power in England and France

Reading Focus

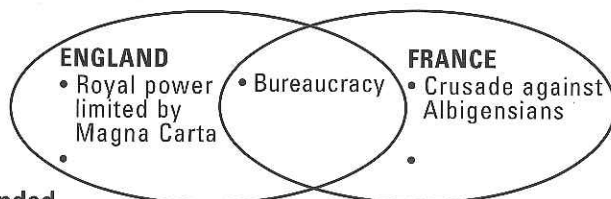
- How did monarchs gain power over nobles and the Church?
- What traditions of government developed under John and later English monarchs?
- How did strong monarchs succeed in unifying France?

Vocabulary

exchequer
common law
jury

Taking Notes

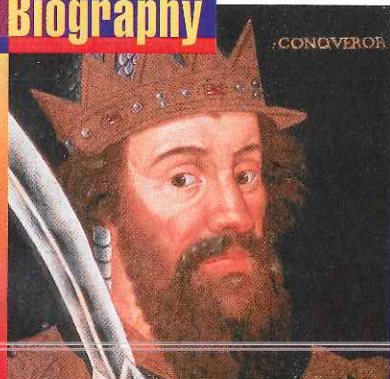
Copy this incomplete Venn diagram. As you read, write key facts about royal power in England and France in the appropriate sections. Write common characteristics in the overlapping section.



Main Idea

In England and France, monarchs expanded royal authority and laid the foundations for united nation-states.

Biography



William of Normandy
1028–1087

From the time he became Duke of Normandy at age seven, William's life and position were in constant danger, mostly from jealous relatives. Four of his guardians were murdered—one in the very room in which William lay sleeping.

As an adult, William did all that he could to get and keep power. At age 20, he led an army to defeat a rebellious cousin. When an abbot condemned his marriage to Matilda of Flanders because they were too closely related, an enraged William burned down a monastery. But when the pope validated the marriage, William had a new abbey built.

Theme: Impact of the Individual How did William's experience as duke prepare him to be king of England?

Setting the Scene

A monarch could not always count on the loyalty of powerful nobles and Church officials. A medieval chronicle tells of the difficulties faced by one English king in the 1100s:

"King Stephen . . . seized . . . Alexander, bishop of Lincoln, and Roger, the chancellor, his nephew, and he kept them all in prison. . . . They had done homage to him, and sworn oaths, but they . . . broke their allegiance, for every rich man built his castles, and defended them against him."

—*Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*

During the Middle Ages, monarchs struggled to exert royal authority over nobles and churchmen. Bit by bit over many centuries, they built the framework for what would become the European nation-states of today.

Monarchs, Nobles, and the Church

Feudal monarchs in Europe stood at the head of society, but had limited power. While they ruled their own domains, they relied on vassals for military support. Nobles and the Church had as much—or more—power as the monarch. Both nobles and the Church had their own courts, collected their own taxes, and fielded their own armies. They jealously guarded their rights and privileges against any effort by rulers to increase royal authority.

Monarchs used various means to centralize power. They expanded the royal domain and set up a system of royal justice that undermined feudal or Church courts. They organized a government bureaucracy, developed a system of taxes, and built a standing army. Monarchs strengthened ties with the middle class. Townspeople, in turn, supported royal rulers, who could impose the peace and unity that were needed for trade.

Strong Monarchs in England

During the early Middle Ages, Angles, Saxons, and Vikings invaded and settled in England. Although feudalism developed, English rulers generally kept their kingdoms united.

In 1066, the Anglo-Saxon king Edward died without an heir. A council of nobles chose Edward's brother-in-law Harold to rule. But Duke William of Normandy, a tough, ruthless descendant of the Vikings, also claimed the English throne. The answer to the rival claims lay on the battlefield.

Norman Conquest Duke William raised an army and won the backing of the pope. He then sailed across the English Channel. At the Battle of Hastings, William and his Norman knights triumphed over Harold. On Christmas Day 1066, William the Conqueror, as he was now called, assumed the crown of England.

Although William's French-speaking nobles dominated England, the country's Anglo-Saxon population survived. Over the next 300 years, a gradual blending occurred of Norman French and Anglo-Saxon customs, languages, and traditions.

Growth of Royal Power William exerted firm control over his new lands. Like other feudal monarchs, he granted fiefs to the Church and his Norman lords, or barons, but he kept a large amount of land for himself. He monitored who built castles and where. He required every vassal to swear first allegiance to him rather than to any other feudal lord.

To learn about his kingdom, William had a complete census taken in 1086. The result was the *Domesday Book* (pronounced "doomsday"), which listed every castle, field, and pigpen in England. As the title suggests, the survey was as thorough and inevitable as doomsday, believed to be God's final day of judgment that no one could escape. Information in the *Domesday Book* helped William and later English monarchs build an efficient system of tax collecting.

William's successors continued to increase royal authority. In the area of finance, they created the royal **exchequer**, or treasury, to collect taxes. Into the exchequer flowed fees, fines, and other dues.

A Unified Legal System In 1154, an energetic, well-educated king, Henry II, inherited the throne. He broadened the system of royal justice.

As a ruler, he could not simply write new laws but had to follow accepted customs. Henry found ways to expand customs into law. He then sent out traveling justices to enforce royal laws. The decisions of the royal courts became the foundation of English **common law**, a legal system based on custom and court rulings. Unlike local feudal laws, common law applied to all of England. In time, people chose royal courts over those of nobles or the Church. Because royal courts charged fees, the exchequer benefited from the growth of royal justice.

Under Henry II, England also developed an early jury system. When traveling justices visited an area, local officials collected a **jury**, or group of men sworn to speak the truth. (The word *jury* is derived from the French *juré*, meaning "sworn on oath.") These early juries determined which cases should be brought to trial and were the ancestors of today's grand jury. Later, another jury evolved that was composed of 12 neighbors of an accused. It was the ancestor of today's trial jury.

Conflict With the Church Henry's efforts to extend royal power led to a bitter dispute with the Church. Henry claimed the right to try clergy in royal courts. Thomas Becket, the archbishop of Canterbury and once a close friend of Henry's, fiercely opposed the king's move. The conflict simmered for years.

At last, Henry's fury exploded. "What a pack of fools and cowards I have nourished," he cried, "that not one of them will avenge me of this turbulent priest." Four hot-headed knights took Henry at his word. In 1170, they murdered the archbishop in his own cathedral. Henry denied any part in the attack. Still, to make peace with the Church,

FACT FINDER

Evolution of English Government

1066	Norman Conquest William of Normandy defeats Anglo-Saxons at Hastings.
1086	Domesday Book William I uses this survey as a basis for taxation.
1160s–1180s	Common Law Henry II lays foundation for English legal system.
1215	Magna Carta John signs this document limiting royal power and extending rights.
1295	Model Parliament Edward I summons Parliament, which includes representatives of common people.

Skills Assessment

Chart Traditions of English government and law evolved during the Middle Ages. **How did the *Domesday Book* benefit William I? How did the Magna Carta affect English government?**



he eased his attempts to regulate the clergy. Becket, meantime, was honored as a martyr and declared a saint. Pilgrims flocked to his tomb at Canterbury, where miracles were said to happen.

Evolving Traditions of English Government

Later English rulers repeatedly clashed with nobles and the Church. Most battles developed as a result of efforts by the monarch to raise taxes or to impose royal authority over traditional feudal rights. Out of those struggles evolved traditions of government that would influence the modern world.

John's Troubles Henry's son John was a clever, greedy, cruel, and untrustworthy ruler. During his reign, he faced three powerful enemies: King Philip II of France, Pope Innocent III, and his own English nobles. He lost his struggles with each.

Ever since William the Conqueror, Norman rulers of England had held vast lands in France. In 1205, John suffered a major setback when he lost a war with Philip II and had to give up English-held lands in Anjou and Normandy.

Next, John battled with Innocent III over selecting a new archbishop of Canterbury. When John rejected the pope's nominee, the pope responded by excommunicating him. He also placed England under the interdict—as you recall, a papal order that forbade Church services in an entire kingdom. Even the strongest ruler was likely to give in to that pressure. To save himself and his crown, John had to accept England as a fief of the papacy and pay a yearly fee to Rome.

The Magna Carta Finally, John angered his own nobles with oppressive taxes and other abuses of power. In 1215, a group of rebellious barons cornered John and forced him to sign the Magna Carta, or great charter. In this document, the king affirmed a long list of feudal rights.

Besides protecting their own privileges, the barons included a few clauses recognizing the legal rights of townspeople and the Church. Among the most significant of these was a clause protecting every freeman from arbitrary arrest, imprisonment, and other legal actions, except “by legal judgment of his peers or by the law of the land.” This famous clause formed the basis of the right now known as “due process of law.”

The king also agreed not to raise new taxes without first consulting his Great Council of lords and clergy. Many centuries later, American colonists would claim that those words meant that any taxation without representation was unjust. In 1215, though, neither the king nor his lords could have imagined such an idea.

The Magna Carta contained two very important ideas that in the long run would shape government traditions in England. First, it asserted that the nobles had certain rights. Over time, the rights that had been granted to nobles were extended to all English citizens. Second, the Magna Carta made it clear that the monarch must obey the law.

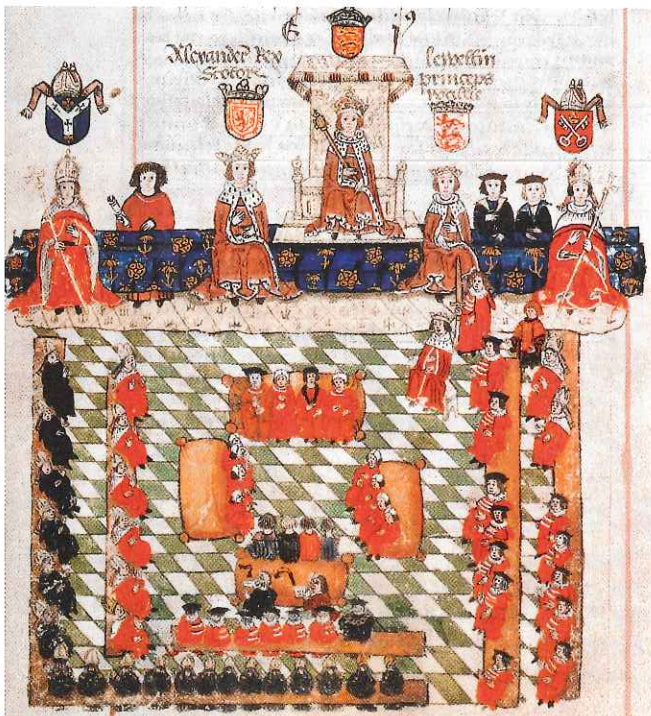
Development of Parliament In keeping with the Magna Carta, English rulers often called on the Great Council for advice. During the 1200s, this body evolved into Parliament. Its name comes from the French word *parler*, meaning “to talk.” As Parliament acquired a larger role in government, it helped unify England.

In 1295, Edward I summoned Parliament to approve money for his wars in France. “What touches all,” he declared, “should be approved by all.” He had representatives of the “common people” join with the lords and clergy. The

Edward I and Parliament

In this scene, King Edward I presides over what was later called the Model Parliament. On both sides of him are his vassals, the rulers of Scotland and Wales. Clergy sit on the left, and lords sit on the right.

Theme: Political and Social Systems What other social class was represented in the Model Parliament?





Analyzing Primary Sources

Magna Carta

King John of England was forced to sign the Magna Carta, which means "Great Charter," in 1215. Ideas from the Magna Carta still influence the systems of government in many countries around the world. Below are excerpts from 5 of the 63 articles of this important document.

1. We also have granted to all the freemen of our kingdom, for us and for our heirs forever, all the underwritten liberties, to be had and holden by them and their heirs, of us and our heirs forever. . . .
12. No scutage [tax] or aid shall be imposed in our kingdom, unless by the general council of our kingdom; except for ransoming our person, making our eldest son a knight and once for marrying our eldest daughter; and for these there shall be paid no more than a reasonable aid.
14. And for holding the general council of the kingdom concerning the assessment of aids, except in the three cases aforesaid, and for assessing of scutage, we shall cause to be summoned the archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, and greater barons of the realm, singly by our letters. And furthermore, we shall cause to be summoned generally, by our sheriffs and bailiffs all others who hold of us in chief, for a certain day, that is to say, forty days before the meeting at least, and to a certain place. And in all letters of such summons we will declare the cause of such summons. And summons being thus made, the business shall proceed on the day appointed, according to the advice of such as shall be present, although all that were summoned come not.
39. No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned, or diseised [deprived], or outlawed, or banished, or in any way destroyed . . . unless by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.
40. We will sell to no man, we will not deny to any man, either justice or right.

—Magna Carta



A group of nobles forced King John to sign the Magna Carta at Runnymede.

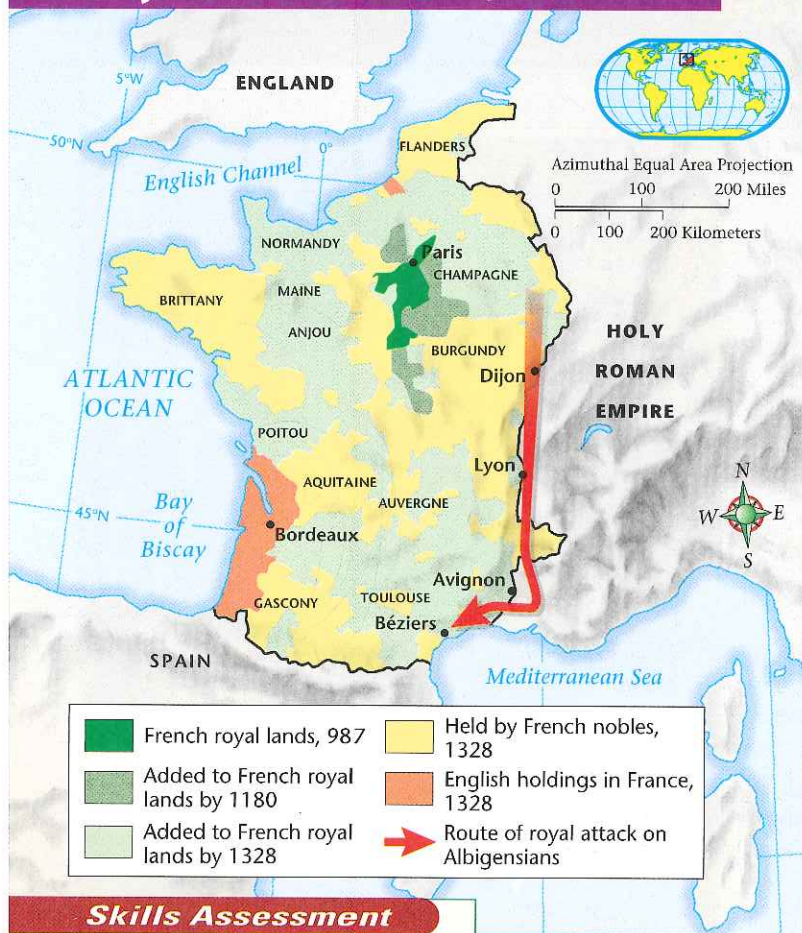
Skills Assessment

1. In Article 1, who is granted the rights described elsewhere in the Magna Carta?
A only the king and his heirs
B only the general council
C all freemen and their heirs
D only nobles assembled at the signing
2. Approval by the general council was not required for any tax that would
E fund the building of roadways.
F pay for schools.
G support the general council.
H ransom the king.
3. **Critical Thinking Making Inferences** (a) What do Articles 14 and 40 suggest about royal abuse of power during this period of English history? (b) Think about the membership of the general council, as described in Article 14. Who is *not* included? What can you infer from this?

Skills Tip

Very old documents often contain unfamiliar words. Sometimes they are explained in brackets. Others, however, require the reader to consult a dictionary. This helps the reader both to understand the words themselves and to understand the full meaning of the document.

Royal Lands in France, 987–1328



Skills Assessment

Geography From a small area around the city of Paris, Capetian monarchs gradually extended royal control over almost all of France.

- 1. Location** On the map, locate (a) Paris, (b) Normandy, (c) Avignon.
- 2. Place** What territories were held by the English in 1328?
- 3. Critical Thinking**

Identifying Main Ideas
What main idea does the map show about royal lands in France between 987 and 1328?

“commons” included two knights from each county and representatives of the towns.

Much later, this assembly became known as the Model Parliament because it set up the framework for England’s legislature. In time, Parliament developed into a two-house body: the House of Lords with nobles and high clergy and the House of Commons with knights and middle-class citizens.

Looking Ahead Like King Edward I, later English monarchs summoned Parliament for their own purposes. Over the centuries, though, Parliament gained the crucial “power of the purse.” That is, it won the right to approve any new taxes. With that power, Parliament could insist that the monarch meet its demands before voting for taxes. In this way, it could check, or limit, the power of the monarch.

Successful Monarchs in France

Unlike William the Conqueror in England, monarchs in France did not rule over a unified kingdom. The successors to Charlemagne had little power over a patchwork of French territories ruled by great feudal nobles.

The Capetians In 987, these feudal nobles elected Hugh Capet, the count of Paris, to fill the vacant throne. They probably chose him because he was too weak to pose a threat to them. Hugh’s

own lands around Paris were smaller than those of many of his vassals.

Hugh and his heirs slowly increased royal power. First, they made the throne hereditary, passing it from father to son. Fortunately, the Capetians enjoyed an unbroken succession for 300 years. Next, they added to their lands by playing rival nobles against each other. They also won the support of the Church.

Perhaps most important, the Capetians built an effective bureaucracy. Government officials collected taxes and imposed royal law over the king’s domain. By establishing order, they added to their prestige and gained the backing of the new middle class of townspeople.

Philip Augustus An outstanding French king of this period was Philip II, often called Philip Augustus. A bald, red-faced man who ate and drank too much, Philip was a shrewd and able ruler. He strengthened royal government in many ways. Instead of appointing nobles to fill government positions, he used paid middle-class officials who would owe their loyalty to him. He granted charters to many new towns, organized a standing army, and introduced a new national tax.

Philip also quadrupled royal land holdings. Through trickery, diplomacy, and war, he brought English-ruled lands in Normandy, Anjou, and elsewhere under his control. He then began to take over southern France. Informed by the pope that the Albigensian (al buh JEHN see uhn) heresy had sprung up in the south, he sent his knights to suppress it and add this vast area to his domain. Before his death in 1223, Philip had become the most powerful ruler in Europe.

Louis IX, King and Saint Perhaps the most admired French ruler of this time was Louis IX. Louis, who ascended to the throne in 1226, embodied

the ideal of the perfect medieval monarch—generous, noble, and devoted to justice and chivalry. Within 30 years of his death, he was declared a saint. A knight at Louis's court praised the king's charity:

"The king daily gave countless generous alms, to poor religious, to poor hospitals, to poor sick people, to other poor convents, to poor gentlemen and gentlewomen and girls . . . and to poor minstrels who from old age or sickness were unable to work."

—John of Joinville, *The Life of St. Louis*

Saint Louis was a deeply religious man, and he pursued religious goals that were acceptable to Christians in his day. He persecuted heretics and Jews and led thousands of French knights in two wars against Muslims.

Louis did much to improve royal government. Like Charlemagne, he sent out roving officials to check on local officials. He expanded the royal courts, outlawed private wars, and ended serfdom in his lands. To ensure justice, he even heard cases himself under a tree in the royal park of Vincennes. His enormous personal prestige helped create a strong national feeling among his subjects. By the time of his death in 1270, France was an efficient centralized monarchy.

Philip IV Clashes With the Pope Louis's grandson, Philip IV, ruthlessly extended royal power. To raise cash, he tried to collect new taxes from the clergy. These efforts led to a clash with Pope Boniface VIII.

Declaring that "God has set popes over kings and kingdoms," Pope Boniface VIII forbade Philip to tax the clergy without papal consent. Philip countered by threatening to arrest any clergy who did not pay up. As their quarrel escalated, Philip sent troops to seize Boniface. The pope escaped, but he was badly beaten and died soon afterward.

Shortly after, a Frenchman was elected pope. He moved the papal court to Avignon (ah veen YOHN) on the border of southern France, ensuring that future French rulers would control religion within their own kingdoms.

The Estates General During this struggle with the pope, Philip rallied French support by setting up the Estates General in 1302. This body had representatives from all three estates, or classes: clergy, nobles, and townspeople. Although later French kings consulted the Estates General, it did not develop the same role that the English Parliament did. It never gained the power of the purse or otherwise served as a balance to royal power.

SECTION 1 Assessment

Recall

1. **Identify:** (a) *Domesday Book*, (b) Henry II, (c) Thomas Becket, (d) Parliament, (e) Louis IX, (f) Philip IV, (g) Estates General.
2. **Define:** (a) exchequer, (b) common law, (c) jury.

Comprehension

3. (a) How were nobles and the Church obstacles for monarchs who wanted more power? (b) How did William increase royal power in England?
4. What principles were established by the Magna Carta?

5. How did the Capetians increase royal power in France?

Critical Thinking and Writing

6. **Analyzing Information** (a) Based on the map in this section, identify three groups of people who stood in the way of expanding royal power in France. (b) Which of the three do you think was the most difficult challenge for French kings? Explain.
7. **Linking Past and Present** How is the jury system important to us today?

Activity

Writing an Editorial

Write a newspaper editorial supporting or opposing the actions of one of the following kings: Henry II of England, John of England, Louis IX of France, or Philip IV of France. Be sure to identify clearly which royal action you are discussing.

The Holy Roman Empire and the Church

Reading Focus

- Why did Holy Roman emperors fail to build a unified state in Germany?
- How did power struggles and rivalry in Italy affect popes and emperors?
- What powers did the Church have at its height?

Vocabulary

lay investiture
annul
crusade

Taking Notes

As you read, complete this table listing the actions of Holy Roman emperors and popes. Add as many rows as needed to finish the table.

POPE OR EMPEROR	ACTIONS	EFFECTS
OTTO I	• Cooperated with Church • Helped pope defeat Roman nobles	• Pope crowned Otto emperor
GREGORY VII		
HENRY IV		

Main Idea

With secular and religious rulers advancing rival claims to power, explosive conflicts erupted between monarchs and popes.

Setting the Scene

The Church, you will recall, spread its influence across Europe during the early Middle Ages. By the High Middle Ages, both popes and monarchs were extending their authority. In the early 1200s, Pope Innocent III claimed broad powers:

“Just as the moon gets her light from the sun, and is inferior to the sun in quality, quantity, position, and effect, so the royal power gets the splendor of its dignity from the papal authority.”

—Letter of Innocent III to Nobles of Tuscany, 1198

With secular rulers advancing their own claims to power, explosive conflicts erupted between monarchs and Church officials. The longest and most destructive struggle pitted popes against Holy Roman emperors who ruled vast lands from Germany to Italy.



Imperial Crown

Holy Roman emperors first wore this crown around the 900s. Some, however, claimed that Charlemagne had worn it almost two centuries earlier.

Theme: Continuity and Change Why do you think emperors wanted people to believe that Charlemagne had worn the crown?

The Holy Roman Empire

In the early Middle Ages, as you have learned, the emperor Charlemagne had brought much of present-day France and Germany under his rule. After Charlemagne's death, his empire dissolved into a number of separate states. In time, the dukes of Saxony extended their power over neighboring German lands. In 936, Duke Otto I of Saxony took the title King of Germany.

Like Charlemagne, Otto I worked closely with the Church. He appointed bishops to top government jobs. He also took an army into Italy to help the pope defeat rebellious Roman nobles. In 962, a grateful pope crowned Otto emperor. Later, Otto's successors took the title Holy Roman emperor—“holy” because they were crowned by the pope, “Roman” because they saw themselves as heirs to the emperors of ancient Rome.

German emperors claimed authority over much of central and eastern Europe as well as parts of France and Italy. In fact, the real rulers of these lands were the emperor's vassals—hundreds of nobles and Church officials. For German emperors, the challenge was to control their vassals. In the end, as you will see, it was a challenge they never met.

Another problem for the emperors was conflict with the popes over the appointment of Church officials. Like other monarchs, the Holy Roman emperors often decided who would become bishops and abbots within their realm. As the Cluny reforms strengthened the Church, popes tried to end such outside interference from secular rulers.

Conflict Between Popes and Emperors

Under the reforming pope Gregory VII, the conflict between emperors and the Church burst into flames. Gregory was one of the greatest medieval popes. He was also among the most controversial.

Pope Gregory VII Few Europeans of the time had a neutral view of Pope Gregory VII. Many admired and revered him. Among his enemies, however, he probably aroused more hatred and contempt than did any other pope of this time period.

Gregory was determined to make the Church independent of secular rulers. To do so, he banned the practice of **lay investiture**. Under this practice, the emperor or another lay person (a person who is not a member of the clergy) “invested,” or presented, bishops with the ring and staff that symbolized their office. Only the pope, said Gregory, had the right to appoint and install bishops in office.

Emperor Henry IV Pope Gregory’s ban brought an angry response from the Holy Roman emperor Henry IV. He argued that bishops held their lands as royal fiefs. Since he was their overlord, Henry felt entitled to give them the symbols of office. The feud heated up as the two men exchanged insulting notes. Meanwhile, rebellious German princes saw a chance to undermine Henry by supporting the pope.

The Struggle Intensifies In 1076, Gregory excommunicated Henry, freeing his subjects from their allegiance to the emperor. The pope then headed north to crown a new emperor. Faced with revolts at home, Henry was forced to make peace with the pope. In January 1077, Henry crossed the icy Alps to Canossa. There, “with bare feet and clad only in a wretched woolen garment,” he presented himself to the pope as a repentant sinner.

Gregory knew that Henry was just trying to save his throne. Still, as a priest, Gregory had no choice but to forgive a confessed sinner. He lifted the order of excommunication, and Henry quickly returned to Germany to subdue his rebellious nobles. In later years, he took revenge on Gregory when he led an army to Rome and forced the pope into exile.

Concordat of Worms The struggle over investiture dragged on for almost 50 years. Finally, in 1122, both sides accepted a treaty known as the Concordat of Worms (VOHRMS). In it, they agreed that the Church had the sole power to elect and invest bishops with spiritual authority. The emperor, however, had the right to invest them with fiefs.

The Struggle for Italy

Although the investiture struggle was over, new battles were soon raging between popes and emperors. During the 1100s and 1200s, ambitious German emperors sought to master Italy. As they did so, they came into conflict with popes and with the wealthy towns of northern Italy.

Frederick Barbarossa The emperor Frederick I, called Barbarossa, or “Red Beard,” dreamed of building an empire from the Baltic to the Adriatic. For years, he fought to bring the wealthy cities of northern Italy under his control. With equal energy, they resisted. By joining forces with the pope in the Lombard League, they managed to defeat Barbarossa’s armies.

Barbarossa did succeed, however, in arranging a marriage between his son Henry and Constance, heiress to Sicily and southern Italy. That move entangled German emperors even more deeply in Italian affairs.

Frederick II The child of Henry and Constance, Frederick II, was raised in southern Italy. He was an able, arrogant leader, willing to use any means to achieve his ends.

Primary Source

A Pope Deposes a King

On February 22, 1076, Pope Gregory VII issued this decree against Henry IV:

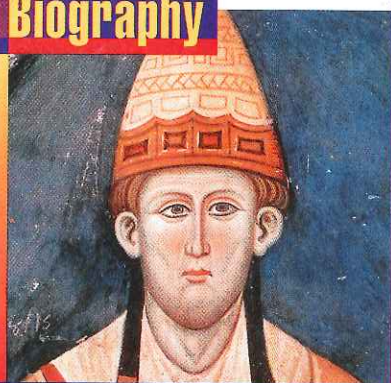
“O St. Peter, chief of the apostles . . . I withdraw, through thy power and authority, from Henry the king, . . . who has risen against thy church with unheard of insolence, the rule over the whole kingdom of the Germans and over Italy. And I absolve all Christians from the bonds of the oath which they have made . . . to him; and I forbid anyone to serve him as king. For it is fitting that he who strives to lessen the honour of thy church should himself lose the honour which belongs to him. And since he has scorned to obey . . . my commands which . . . I issued to him for his own salvation . . . I bind him in thy stead with the chain of [excommunication].”

—Gregory VII, First Deposition and Banning of Henry IV

Skills Assessment

Primary Source What reasons does Gregory give for excommunicating Henry?

Biography



Innocent III 1160(?)–1216

Lotario de' Conti grew up in an influential Roman family. Several of his uncles were leading Church figures, including one pope. Lotario attended the finest schools of Europe, studying theology in Paris and law in Bologna. He became a leading expert on canon law and rose quickly through Church ranks. In 1198, he was elected pope, just one month before he was ordained a priest.

One of Innocent's most lasting achievements was to convene an important Church council in Rome. There, more than 1,000 Church officials established several practices that are still followed by Catholics today, such as regular confession of sins.

Theme: Impact of the Individual How did Innocent's background prepare him to assume the role of pope?

As Holy Roman emperor, Frederick spent little time in Germany. Instead, he pursued his ambitions in Italy. There, he clashed repeatedly and unsuccessfully with several popes. Like his grandfather, Frederick also tried but failed to subdue the cities of northern Italy.

Effects on Germany and Italy While Frederick was embroiled in Italy, German nobles grew more independent. The Holy Roman Empire survived, but it remained fragmented into many feudal states. The German people paid a high price for their emperors' ambitions. Unlike France and England, Germany would not achieve unity for another 600 years.

Southern Italy and Sicily also faced centuries of upheaval. There, popes turned to the French to overthrow Frederick's heirs. A local uprising against French rule in Sicily led to 200 years of chaos as French and Spanish rivals battled for power. The region that had once been a thriving center of culture was left in ruins.

The Height of Church Power

Pope Innocent III, who took office in 1198, embodied the triumph of the Church. As head of the Church, he claimed supremacy over all other rulers. The pope, he said, stands "between God and man, lower than God but higher than men, who judges all and is judged by no one."

Innocent clashed with all the powerful rulers of his day. More often than not, the pope came out ahead. As you have read, when King John of England dared to appoint an archbishop of Canterbury without the pope's approval, Innocent excommunicated the king and placed his kingdom under interdict. Innocent ordered the same punishment for France when Philip II tried unlawfully to **annul**, or invalidate, his marriage. The Holy Roman emperor Frederick II also felt the wrath of the powerful pope.

In 1209, Innocent, aided by Philip II, launched a brutal **crusade**, or holy war, against the Albigensians in southern France. The Albigensians wanted to purify the Church and return to the simple ways of early Christianity. Tens of thousands of people were slaughtered in the Albigensian Crusade.

After Innocent's death, popes continued to press their claim to supremacy. During this period, though, the French and English monarchies were growing stronger. In 1296, Philip IV of France successfully challenged Pope Boniface VIII on the issue of taxing the clergy. After Philip engineered the election of a French pope, the papacy entered a period of decline.

SECTION 2 Assessment

Recall

- Identify:** (a) Holy Roman Empire, (b) Gregory VII, (c) Henry IV, (d) Concordat of Worms, (e) Frederick II, (f) Innocent III, (g) Albigensian Crusade.
- Define:** (a) lay investiture, (b) annul, (c) crusade.

Comprehension

- Why was the power of German emperors limited?
- How did conflicts between popes and emperors affect (a) the Holy Roman Empire, and (b) Italy?

- How did Pope Innocent III assert the power of the Church?

Critical Thinking and Writing

- Comparing** (a) How did the political development of the Holy Roman Empire differ from that of England and France? (b) What were the causes of these differences?
- Analyzing Primary Sources** Review the words of Innocent III at the beginning of this section. (a) To what does Innocent compare a monarch? (b) What point was he trying to make?

Activity

Making a Map

On an outline map of Europe, label the places that you have read about in this section. Illustrate your map to show what happened in each location.

Reading Focus

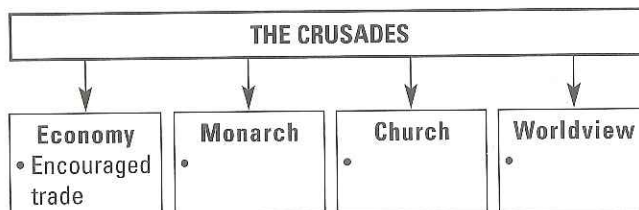
- What advanced civilizations flourished around the world in 1050?
- What were the causes and effects of the Crusades?
- How did Christians in Spain carry out the Reconquista?

Vocabulary

schism
levy
religious toleration

Taking Notes

As you read, complete the following chart showing the effects that the Crusades had on life in Europe.



Main Idea

The Crusades stimulated economic and political change in Europe and broadened Europeans' view of the world.

Setting the Scene Nearly 23 weeks after departing France, Count Stephen of Blois reached the city of Antioch in Syria. There, in March 1098, he composed a letter to his wife, Adele. He described the battles he had fought and the riches he had won. Stephen proudly told Adele that he and his fellow knights were "full of fury" and "prepared to die for Christ."

Stephen of Blois was one of thousands of Europeans who took part in a series of wars known as the Crusades. In these wars, which began in 1096, Christians battled Muslims for control of lands in the Middle East. As they streamed eastward over the next 200 years, Western Europeans learned that the world was much larger than they had ever dreamed. Their encounters outside Europe would serve to stimulate the pace of change.

The World in 1050

In 1050, as Western Europe was just emerging from a period of isolation, civilizations were thriving elsewhere. These civilizations are described in detail in other chapters. What follows here is an overview of the world at the time that medieval Europe was first beginning to test its strength.

During Europe's Middle Ages, Islam had given rise to a brilliant new civilization that stretched from Spain to India. Muslim traders and scholars spread goods and ideas even further. Trading caravans regularly crossed the Sahara to West Africa. Arab ships visited East African ports and sailed to India and East Asia.

Although India was politically divided, it was a land of thriving cities. Hindu and Buddhist traditions flourished, and wealthy princes built stunning temples and palaces. Indian mathematicians invented a number system, which Arabs adapted and eventually passed to Europeans.

China had a strong central government. Under the Tang and Song dynasties, China's culture flourished and influenced neighboring peoples. The Chinese made amazing advances in technology, inventing paper, printing, and gunpowder. In dozens of cities, traders used coins and paper money, unknown to medieval Europeans.

In West Africa, the Soninke people were building the great trading empire of Ghana. Its merchants traded goods, especially gold, across the Sahara to North Africa, the Middle East, and even Europe.

Across the Atlantic, in the Americas, the Mayas had cleared rain forests and built cities dominated by towering temples. In Peru, Native Americans were building empires and creating great works of art, including elegant



Global Connections

A Mongol Alliance?

Later during the Crusades, Pope Innocent IV sent a diplomatic mission to the Mongols in Central Asia. The pope hoped that the Mongol khan would halt his invasions of Christian lands, convert to Christianity, and join European Christians in their struggle against the Muslims. In a letter written in Mongol, Arabic, and Latin, the khan rejected the pope's proposal.

The pope's mission failed to win an alliance, but it did bring the Europeans new knowledge about the world. Giovanni da Pian del Carpine, the monk who had led the mission, wrote a text based on his extensive travels. His book on the Mongol empire consisted of chapters on climate, customs, religion, character, history, policy, and tactics.

Theme: Global Interaction

How can increased knowledge of other cultures improve international relations?

Connections to Today

A Holy City

Today, Jews, Christians, and Muslims still consider Jerusalem sacred. Each year, the city's population is swelled by thousands of pilgrims who arrive to visit places that are holy to their faiths. Christian pilgrims make certain to visit the Church of the Holy Sepulcher, believed to be the site of Jesus' resurrection. Equally sacred to Muslims is the Dome of the Rock, from which the Prophet Muhammad is believed to have ascended to heaven. Jewish pilgrims join in prayer at the Old City's western wall, all that remains of the city's ancient temple.

Theme: Religions and Value Systems Why do Muslims consider Jerusalem a holy city?

pottery, textiles, and jewelry. The civilizations of the Americas, however, remained outside the contacts that were taking place among Africans, Europeans, and Asians.

Closer to Western Europe, the Byzantine empire was generally prosperous and united. Byzantine scholars still studied ancient Greek and Roman writings. In Constantinople, Byzantine and Muslim merchants mingled with traders from Venice and other Italian cities.

In the 1050s, the Seljuk Turks invaded the Byzantine empire. The Turks had migrated from Central Asia into the Middle East, where they converted to Islam. By 1071, the Seljuks had overrun most Byzantine lands in Asia Minor (present-day Turkey). The Seljuks also extended their power over Palestine to the Holy Land* and attacked Christian pilgrims.

The Crusades

The Byzantine emperor Alexius I urgently asked Pope Urban II for Christian knights to help him fight the Turks. Although Roman popes and Byzantine emperors were longtime rivals, Urban agreed.

At the Council of Clermont in 1095, Urban incited bishops and nobles to action. "From Jerusalem and the city of Constantinople comes a grievous report," he began. "An accursed race . . . has violently invaded the lands of those Christians and has depopulated them by pillage and fire." Urban then called for a crusade to free the Holy Land:

"Both knights and footmen, both rich and poor . . . strive to help expel [the Seljuks] from our Christian lands before it is too late. . . . Christ commands it. Remission of sins will be granted for those going thither."

—Fulcher of Chartres, *Chronicle of the First Crusade*

Motives "God wills it!" roared the assembly. By 1096, thousands of knights were on their way to the Holy Land. As the crusading spirit swept through Western Europe, armies of ordinary men and women inspired by fiery preachers left for the Holy Land, too. Few returned.

Religious zeal and other factors motivated the crusaders. Many knights hoped to win wealth and land. Some crusaders sought to escape troubles at home. Others yearned for adventure.

The pope, too, had mixed motives. Urban hoped to increase his power in Europe and perhaps heal the **schism**, or split, between the Roman and Byzantine churches. (See the next chapter.) He also hoped that the Crusades would set Christian knights to fighting Muslims instead of one another.

Victories and Defeats Only the First Crusade came close to achieving its goals. After a long, bloody campaign, Christian knights captured Jerusalem in 1099. They capped their victory with a massacre of Muslim and Jewish residents of the city.

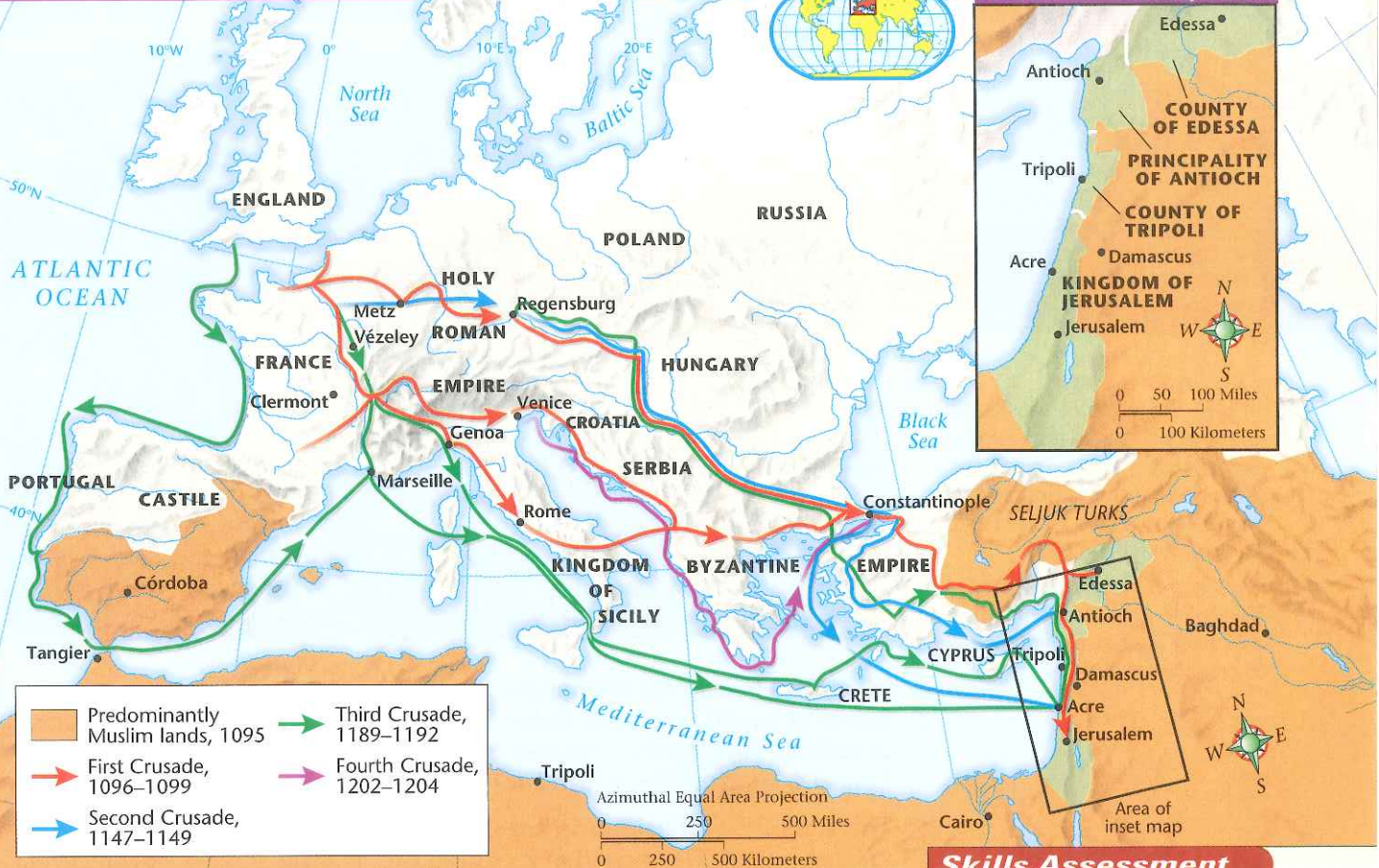
The Crusades continued, off and on, for over 200 years. The crusaders divided their captured lands into four small states. The Muslims repeatedly sought to destroy these Christian kingdoms, prompting Europeans to launch new crusades. By 1187, Jerusalem had fallen to the able Muslim leader Salah al-Din, known to Europeans as Saladin. On the Third Crusade, Europeans tried but failed to retake Jerusalem. After negotiations, though, Saladin did reopen the holy city to Christian pilgrims.

Europeans also mounted crusades against other Muslim lands, especially in North Africa. All ended in defeat. During the Fourth Crusade, the crusaders were diverted from fighting Muslims to fighting Christians. After

*Christians called Jerusalem and other places in Palestine where Jesus had lived and taught the Holy Land. Jerusalem was also a holy place for Jews and Muslims.

Crusades, 1096–1204

Crusader States, 1099



helping Venetian merchants defeat their Byzantine trade rivals in 1204, crusaders captured and looted Constantinople, the Byzantine capital.

Muslim armies, meanwhile, overran the crusader states. By 1291, they captured the last Christian outpost, the port city of Acre. As in Jerusalem 200 years earlier, the victors massacred their defeated enemies. This time, the victims were Christians.

Effects of the Crusades on Europe

The Crusades left a bitter legacy of religious hatred behind them. In the Middle East, both Christians and Muslims committed appalling atrocities in the name of religion. In Europe, crusaders sometimes turned their religious fury against Jews, massacring entire communities.

Though the Crusades failed to conquer the Holy Land, they did have significant effects on life in Europe. The wars helped to quicken the pace of changes already underway.

Economic Expansion Even before the Crusades, Europeans had a taste for luxuries from the Byzantine empire. The Crusades increased trade. Crusaders introduced fabrics, spices, and perfumes from the Middle East to Europe.

Merchants in Venice and other northern Italian cities built large fleets to carry crusaders to the Holy Land. They later used those fleets to carry on trade with the Middle East. Our words *sugar*, *cotton*, and *rice*, borrowed from Arabic, show the range of trade goods involved.

The Crusades further encouraged the growth of a money economy. To finance a journey to the Holy Land, nobles needed money. They allowed peasants to pay rents in money rather than in grain or labor, which helped undermine serfdom.

Geography Urged on by Pope Urban II, thousands of Europeans joined the Crusades to expel the Muslims from the Holy Land.

- Location** On the map, locate (a) Holy Roman Empire, (b) Kingdom of Jerusalem, (c) Acre, (d) Constantinople.
- Movement** What route did English crusaders take to the Holy Land?
- Critical Thinking**
Drawing Conclusions Based on the map, why was it difficult for Europeans to defend the Crusader states?



Virtual Field Trip

www.phschool.com

University of Calgary
Calgary, Canada

For more images and information about the Reconquista and the history of Spain, use the Internet address above to link to the department of history at the University of Calgary.

The Reconquista

In 1492, the fall of the Muslim city of Granada completed the Christian reconquest of Spain. This Spanish woodcarving shows Granada surrendering to Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand.

Theme: Economics and Technology How were Granada and other medieval towns designed to provide defense?



Increased Power for Monarchs The Crusades helped to increase the power of feudal monarchs. Rulers won new rights to **levy**, or collect, taxes in order to support the Crusades. Some rulers, including the French king Louis IX, led crusades, which added greatly to their prestige.

The Church Enthusiasm for the Crusades brought papal power to its greatest height. This period of enhanced prestige was short-lived, however. As we have seen, popes were soon involved in bitter clashes with feudal monarchs. Also, the Crusades did not end the split between the Roman and Byzantine churches. In fact, Byzantine resentment against the West hardened as a result of the Fourth Crusade.

A Wider Worldview Contacts with the Muslim world led Christians to realize that millions of people lived in regions they had never known existed. Soon, a few curious Europeans visited far-off places like India and China.

In 1271, a young Venetian, Marco Polo, set out for China with his merchant father and uncle. After many years in China, he returned to Venice full of stories about the wonders of Chinese civilization. Doubting Europeans called Marco Polo the “prince of liars.” To them, his tales of a government-run mail service and black stones (coal) that were burned to heat homes were totally untrue.

The experiences of crusaders and of travelers like Marco Polo expanded European horizons. They brought Europe into a wider world from which it had been cut off since the fall of Rome. By the 1400s, a desire to trade directly with India and China led Europeans to a new age of exploration.

The Reconquista in Spain

The crusading spirit continued long after the European defeat at Acre. It flourished especially in Spain, where Christian warriors had been battling Muslims for centuries. Muslims had conquered most of Spain in the 700s. Several tiny Christian kingdoms survived in the north, however. As they slowly expanded their borders, they sought to take over Muslim lands. Their campaign to drive the Muslims from Spain became known as the Reconquista, or “reconquest.”

Christian Advances Efforts by Christian warriors to expel the Muslims began in the 700s. Their first real success did not come, however, until 1085, when they recaptured the city of Toledo. During the next 200 years, Christian forces pushed slowly and steadily southward. By 1300, Christians controlled the entire Iberian Peninsula except for Granada. Muslim influences remained strong, though, and helped shape the arts and literature of Christian Spain.

Ferdinand and Isabella In 1469, Isabella of Castile married Ferdinand of Aragon. This marriage between the rulers of two powerful kingdoms opened the way for a unified state. Using their combined forces, the two monarchs made a final push against the Muslim stronghold of Granada. In 1492, Granada fell. The Reconquista was complete.

Isabella and Ferdinand tried to impose unity on their diverse peoples. They joined forces with townspeople against powerful nobles. Isabella was determined to bring religious as well as political unity to Spain.

Under Muslim rule, Spain had enjoyed a tradition of **religious toleration**, that is, a policy of allowing people to worship as they choose. Christians, Jews, and Muslims lived there in relative peace. Isabella ended that policy of toleration. With the support of the Inquisition, a Church court set up to try people accused of heresy, Isabella launched a brutal crusade against Jews and Muslims. Often, those who refused to convert to Christianity were burned at the stake.

The queen achieved religious unity but at a high price. More than 150,000 people fled Spain. Many of these exiles were skilled, educated people who had contributed much to Spain's economy and culture.

Cause *and* Effect

Long-Term Causes

- Growth of strong monarchs
- Growth of towns and cities
- Growth of representative bodies
- Crusades
- Increased trade
- Population decline

Immediate Causes

- Economic revival
- New technology and agricultural productivity
- Development of universities
- Wider worldview

Western European Emergence From Isolation

Immediate Effects

- Population growth
- End of feudalism
- Centralized monarchies
- Growth of Italian trading centers
- Increased productivity

Long-Term Effects

- Renaissance
- Age of Exploration
- Scientific Revolution
- Western European colonies in Asia, Africa, and the Americas

Connections to Today

- Growth of strong central governments
- Spread of representative government
- Capitalism and powerful business classes
- Influence of Western European culture around the world
- Influence of technology on everyday life

Skills Assessment

Chart During the late Middle Ages, Europe was emerging from a period of isolation. **How did the Crusades contribute to economic revival?**

SECTION 3 Assessment

Recall

- 1. Identify:** (a) Crusades, (b) Council of Clermont, (c) Saladin, (d) Reconquista, (e) Ferdinand and Isabella.
- 2. Define:** (a) schism, (b) levy, (c) religious toleration.

Comprehension

- 3.** What advanced civilizations existed around the world at the time of the First Crusade?
- 4. (a)** Why did Europeans join the Crusades? **(b)** What were three results of the Crusades?

- 5.** How did Spain achieve political and religious unity?

Critical Thinking and Writing

- 6. Analyzing Information** How did the Crusades reflect the growing strength of medieval Europe?
- 7. Making Generalizations** (a) How was the Reconquista part of the crusading spirit that appealed to many Europeans? (b) How were the goals of Ferdinand and Isabella similar to the goals of other monarchs in Europe?

Activity

Expressing Different Points of View

Write two articles reporting on the First Crusade: one from the point of view of a Christian knight, and another from the point of view of a Muslim living in Jerusalem.

Reading Focus

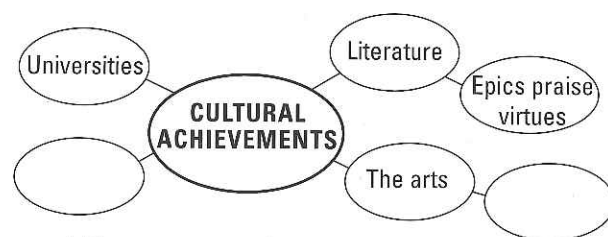
- How did medieval universities advance learning?
- How did “new” learning affect medieval thought?
- What styles of literature, architecture, and art developed in the High Middle Ages?

Vocabulary

scholasticism
vernacular
epic
flying buttress
illumination

Taking Notes

Copy this concept web. As you read, complete the web. Add circles as needed.



Main Idea

As economic and political conditions improved, Europeans made notable achievements in learning, literature, and the arts.

Setting the Scene

By the 1100s, Europe was experiencing dynamic changes. No longer was everyone preoccupied with the daily struggle to survive. Improvements in agriculture were creating a steadier food supply. The revival of trade and the growth of towns were signs of increased prosperity. Within the towns and cities of medieval Europe, a few people were acquiring wealth. In time, towns contributed a vital spark that ignited the cultural flowering of the High Middle Ages.

Medieval Universities

As economic and political conditions improved in the High Middle Ages, the need for education expanded. The Church wanted better-educated clergy. Royal rulers also needed literate men for their growing bureaucracies. By getting an education, the sons of wealthy townspeople might hope to qualify for high jobs in the Church or royal governments.

Academic Guilds By the 1100s, schools had sprung up around the great cathedrals to train the clergy. Some of these cathedral schools evolved into the first universities. They were organized like guilds with charters to protect the rights of members and set standards for training.

Salerno and Bologna in Italy boasted the first universities. Paris and Oxford soon had theirs. In the 1200s, other cities rushed to organize universities. Students often traveled from one university to another. They might study law in Bologna, medicine in Montpellier, and theology, or religion, in Paris.

Student Life University life offered few comforts. A bell wakened students at about 5 A.M. for prayers. Students then attended classes until 10 A.M., when they had their first meal of the day—perhaps a bit of beef and soup mixed with oatmeal. Afternoon classes continued until 5 P.M. Students usually ate a light supper and then studied until it was time for bed.

Because medieval universities did not have permanent buildings, classes were held in rented rooms or in the choir loft of a church. Students sat for hours on hard benches as the teacher dictated and then explained Latin texts. Students were expected to memorize what they heard.

University of Paris

Students listened as teachers read aloud five logic books and two grammar books, as part of the course of study for a bachelor of arts.

Theme: Economics and Technology Why do you think there was not a book for each student?



A program of study covered the seven liberal arts: arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, music, grammar, rhetoric, and logic. To show that they had mastered a subject, students took an oral exam. Earning a degree as a bachelor of arts took between three and six years. Only after several more years of study could a man qualify to become a master of arts and a teacher.

Women and Education Women were not allowed to attend the universities. This exclusion seriously affected their lives. Without a university education, they could not become doctors, lawyers, administrators, church officials, or professors. They were also deprived of the mental stimulation that was an important part of university life.

An exception was Christine de Pizan (duh pee ZAHN), an Italian-born woman who came to live in the French court. De Pizan was married at 15, but her husband died before she was 25. Left with three children to raise, De Pizan earned her living as a writer, an unusual occupation for a woman of that time.

De Pizan used her pen to examine the achievements of women. In *The City of Ladies*, she questions several imaginary characters about men's negative views of women. She asks Lady Reason, for example, whether women are less capable of learning and understanding, as men insist. Lady Reason replies: "If it were customary to send daughters to school like sons, and if they were then taught the same subjects, they would learn as thoroughly and understand the subtleties of all arts and sciences as well as sons."

Still, men continued to look on educated women as oddities. Women, they felt, should pursue their "natural" gifts at home, raising children, managing the household, and doing needlework, and leave books and writing to men.

Europeans Acquire "New" Learning

Universities received a further boost from an explosion of knowledge that reached Europe in the High Middle Ages. Many of the "new" ideas had originated in ancient Greece but had been lost to Western Europeans after the fall of Rome.

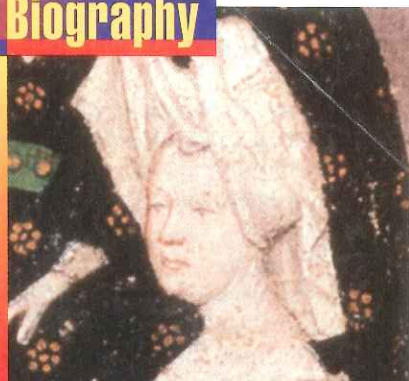
Spread of Learning In the Middle East, Muslim scholars had translated the works of Aristotle and other Greek thinkers into Arabic, and their texts had spread across the Muslim world. In Muslim Spain, Jewish scholars translated these works into Latin, the language of Christian European scholars. By the 1100s, these new translations were seeping into Western Europe. There they set off a revolution in the world of learning.

Philosophy The writings of the ancient Greeks posed a challenge to Christian scholars. Aristotle taught that people should use reason to discover basic truths. Christians, however, accepted many ideas on faith. They believed that the Church was the final authority on all questions. How could they use the logic of Aristotle without undermining their Christian faith?

Christian scholars, known as scholastics, tried to resolve the conflict between faith and reason. Their method, known as **scholasticism**, used reason to support Christian beliefs. Scholastics studied the works of the Muslim philosopher Averroës (ah VEHR oh eez) and the Jewish rabbi Maimonides (mī MAHN uh deez). These thinkers, too, used logic to resolve the conflict between faith and reason.

The writings of these thinkers influenced the scholastic Thomas Aquinas (uh KWĭ nuhs). In a monumental work, *Summa Theologica*, Aquinas examined Christian teachings in the light of reason. Faith and reason, he concluded, existed in harmony. Both led to the same truth, that God ruled over an orderly universe. He thus brought together Christian faith and classical Greek philosophy.

Biography



Christine de Pizan

1364(?)–1430(?)

Christine de Pizan was more educated than most men of her time. Her father, a physician and astronomer in the French court of Charles V, had seen that she received an excellent education. She spoke French, Italian, and possibly Latin as well.

To support her family, De Pizan wrote poems, songs, and ballads. Her work was supported by lords and ladies, by King Charles VI of France, and by his wife, Queen Isabella. Because of her desire to comment on social issues, De Pizan gradually switched her focus to prose. In much of her work, she promoted women's rights and accomplishments. Shortly before her death, she wrote the poem "Hymn to Joan of Arc" to honor a young Frenchwoman who was leading French soldiers to victory over the English.

Theme: Impact of the Individual What was a major theme of De Pizan's writing?

Primary Source

The Adventures of Roland

This passage, located near the end of the epic the *Song of Roland*, describes Roland's final moments:

"The Count Roland, beneath a pine
he sits . . .
Remembering so many [different]
things:
So many lands where he went
conquering,
And France the [sweet], the
heroes of his kin,
And Charlemagne, his lord who
nourished him.
Nor can we help but weep and
sigh at this. . . .
His right-hand glove, to God he
offers it
Saint Gabriel from's hand hath
taken it . . .
He joins his hand: and so is life
finish'd
God sent him down His angel
cherubim . . .
So the count's soul they bear to
Paradis[e]."

—*Song of Roland*

Skills Assessment

Primary Source Why would the *Song of Roland* be considered an epic poem?

Science and Mathematics Works of science, translated from Arabic and Greek, also reached Europe from Spain and the Byzantine empire. Christian scholars studied Hippocrates on medicine and Euclid on geometry, along with works by Arab scientists. They saw, too, how Aristotle had used observation and experimentation to study the physical world.

Yet science made little real progress in the Middle Ages because most scholars still believed that all true knowledge must fit with Church teachings. It would take many centuries before Christian thinkers changed the way they viewed the physical world.

In mathematics, as we have seen, Europeans adopted Hindu-Arabic numerals. This system was much easier to use than the cumbersome system of Roman numerals that had been traditional throughout Europe for centuries. In time, Arabic numerals allowed both scientists and mathematicians to make extraordinary advances in their fields.

Medieval Literature

While Latin was the language of scholars and churchmen, new writings began to appear in the **vernacular**, or the everyday languages of ordinary people, such as French, German, and Italian. These writings captured the spirit of the High Middle Ages. Medieval literature included **epics**, or long narrative poems, about feudal warriors and tales of the common people.

Heroic Epics Across Europe, people began writing down oral traditions in the vernacular. French pilgrims traveling to holy sites loved to hear the *chansons de geste*, or "songs of heroic deeds." The most popular was the *Song of Roland*, which praises the courage of one of Charlemagne's knights who died while on a military campaign in Muslim Spain. A true feudal hero, Roland loyally sacrifices his life out of a sense of honor.

Spain's great epic, *Poem of the Cid*, also involves battle against Muslim forces. The Cid was Rodrigo Díaz, a bold and fiery Christian lord who battled Muslims in Spain. Calling to his warriors, he surges into battle full of zeal:

"There are three hundred lances that each a pennant bears.
At one blow every man of them his Moor has slaughtered
there,
And when they wheeled to charge anew as many more
were slain,
You might see great clumps of lances lowered and raised
again. . . .
Cried the Moor "Muhammed!" The Christians shouted
on St. James of Grace,
On the field Moors thirteen hundred were slain in
little space."

—*Poem of the Cid*

Dante's Divine Comedy "In the middle of the journey of life, I found myself in a dark wood, where the straight way was lost." So begins the *Divine Comedy* by the famed Italian poet Dante Alighieri (DAH-n tay al lee GYEH-ree). The poem takes the reader on an imaginary journey into hell and purgatory, where souls await forgiveness. Finally, Dante describes a vision of heaven.

"Abandon all hope, ye that enter here" is the warning Dante receives as he approaches hell. There, he talks with people from history who tell how they earned a place in hell. Humor, tragedy, and the endless medieval quest for religious understanding are all ingredients in Dante's poem. His journey summarizes Christian ethics. It also highlights in vivid detail a key idea of Christianity—that people's actions in life will determine their fate in the afterlife.

Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* In *The Canterbury Tales*, Geoffrey Chaucer follows a band of English pilgrims traveling to Thomas Becket's tomb. In brilliant word portraits, he sketches a range of characters, including a knight, a plowman, a merchant, a miller, a monk, a nun, and the five-times-widowed "wife of Bath." Each character tells a story. Whether funny, romantic, or bawdy, each tale adds to our picture of medieval life.

Primary Sources and Literature

See "Geoffrey Chaucer: *The Canterbury Tales*" in the Reference Section at the back of this book.

Architecture and Art

"In the Middle Ages," wrote French author Victor Hugo, "men had no great thought that they did not write down in stone." With riches from trade and commerce, townspeople, nobles, and monarchs indulged in a flurry of building. Their greatest achievements were the towering stone cathedrals that served as symbols of their wealth and religious devotion.

Romanesque Strength About 1000, monasteries and towns built solid stone churches that reflected Roman influences. These Romanesque churches looked like fortresses with thick walls and towers. Typically, the roof of a Romanesque church was a barrel vault, a long tunnel of stone that covered the main part of the structure. It was so heavy that it had to be supported by massive thick walls. Builders provided no windows or only tiny slits of windows for fear of weakening the walls that supported the roof. As a result, the interior of a Romanesque church was dark and gloomy.

Gothic Grace About 1140, Abbot Suger wanted to build a new abbey church at St. Denis near Paris. He hoped that it "would shine with wonderful and uninterrupted light." Urged on by the abbot, builders developed what became known as the Gothic style of architecture. A key feature of this style was the **flying buttresses**, or stone supports that stood outside the church. These supports allowed builders to construct higher walls and leave space for huge stained-glass windows.

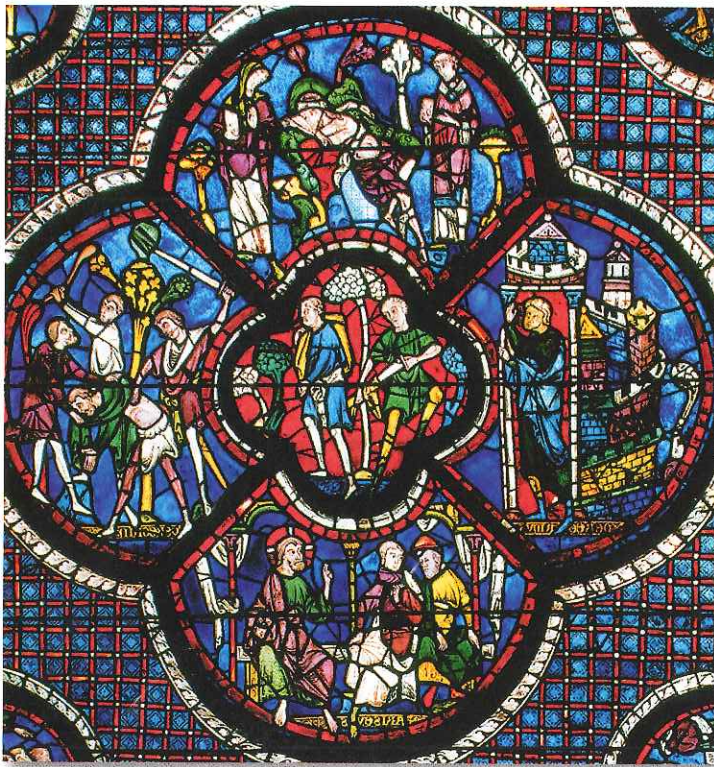
Gothic Style

The Cathedral of Notre Dame in Paris is a fine example of the Gothic style. Medieval artists adorned Gothic cathedrals with brilliant stained-glass windows and a variety of sculptures, such as the mythical beast shown here.

Theme: Art and Literature

How did Gothic style differ from Romanesque style?





Art and Religion

Stained-glass windows depicted biblical or other religious scenes. In the 1100s, a monk wrote that his church was filled with "the most radiant windows" to "illuminate men's minds so that they may travel through it [light] to an apprehension of God's light."

Theme: Art and Literature

How did medieval art help illiterate Christians learn about the Bible?

The new Gothic churches soared to incredible heights. Their graceful spires, lofty ceilings, and enormous windows carried the eye upward to the heavens. "Since their brilliance lets the splendor of the True Light pass into the church," declared a medieval visitor, "they enlighten those inside."

Cities all over Europe competed to build grander, taller cathedrals. The faithful contributed money, labor, and skills to help build these monuments "to the greater glory of God."

Art in Stone and Glass As churches rose, stonemasons carved sculptures to decorate them inside and out. The sculptors portrayed scenes from the Bible and other religious themes. They also carved images of everyday life that included lifelike forms of plants and animals. Among the most interesting of their creations were whimsical or frightening images of mythical creatures such as dragons, griffins, and unicorns.

At the same time, other skilled craftworkers created stained-glass windows that added to the brilliant splendor of Gothic churches. The

artisans stained small pieces of glass in glowing colors. They then set the pieces in thin lead frames to create pictures depicting the life of Jesus, a biblical event, or other religious themes. Stained glass and carvings served as a religious education for the people, most of whom were illiterate.

Illuminated Manuscripts In the 1300s and 1400s, the Gothic style was applied to paintings and **illumination**, that is, the artistic decoration of books. Since the early Middle Ages, monks, nuns, and other skilled artisans had illuminated books with intricate designs and miniature paintings of biblical scenes and daily life. Characteristics of the new Gothic style included bold, brilliant colors and decorative detail. Some fine examples of Gothic painting appeared in prayer books known as Books of Hours. Artists decorated these prayer books with depictions of towns and castles, knights and ladies in gardens or at banquet, and peasants working in the fields.

SECTION 4 Assessment

Recall

- Identify:** (a) Christine de Pizan, (b) Thomas Aquinas, (c) *Song of Roland*, (d) *Poem of the Cid*, (e) Dante Alighieri, (f) Geoffrey Chaucer.
- Define:** (a) scholasticism, (b) vernacular, (c) epic, (d) flying buttress, (e) illumination.

Comprehension

- What subjects were included in the course of study in medieval universities?
- How did new knowledge pose a challenge to Christian scholars?

- What were the characteristics of Gothic architecture?

Critical Thinking and Writing

- Making Inferences** Why do you think Gothic churches are sometimes referred to as "Bibles in stone"?
- Solving Problems** Solve this problem using Roman numerals: MCMLXXX + MMCCCLX. Then, translate and solve the problem using Arabic numerals. How do you think the introduction of Arabic numerals might have affected mathematics in Western Europe?



Activity

Take It to the NET

Use the Internet to learn more about the literature and views of Dante or Chaucer. Then, with a small group of classmates, stage a TV program in which you interview one of the writers. Develop your questions and answers by referring to what you learned in your research.

Reading Focus

- How did the Black Death cause social and economic decline?
- What problems afflicted the Church in the late Middle Ages?
- What were the causes, turning points, and effects of the Hundred Years' War?

Vocabulary

epidemic
inflation
longbow

Taking Notes

Copy the chart at right on conditions before and after the Hundred Years' War. As you read, fill in each column with appropriate information.

HUNDRED YEARS' WAR

Before	After
• Castles offered adequate protection	• English hold only Calais in France
•	•

Main Idea

Plague, upheaval in the Church, and war made the 1300s and early 1400s a time of crisis for Europeans.

Setting the Scene

In the autumn of 1347, a fleet of Genoese trading ships, loaded with grain, left the Black Sea port of Caffa and set sail for Messina, Sicily. By midvoyage, sailors were falling sick and dying. Soon after the ships tied up at Messina, townspeople, too, fell sick and died. A medieval chronicler described how the people of Messina "drove (the Genoese) in all haste from their city and port." Nevertheless, "the sickness remained and a terrible mortality ensued." Within months, the disease that Europeans called the Black Death was raging through Italy.

To Europeans in the mid-1300s, the end of the world seemed to have come. First, widespread crop failures brought famine and starvation. Then, plague and war deepened the crisis. Europe eventually recovered from these disasters. Still, the upheavals of the 1300s and 1400s marked the end of the Middle Ages and the beginning of the early modern age.

The Black Death

By 1348, the Black Death had reached beyond Italy to Spain and France. From there, it ravaged the rest of Europe. One in three people died—worse than in any war in history.

A Global Epidemic The sickness was bubonic plague, a disease spread by fleas on rats. Bubonic plague had broken out before in Europe, Asia, and North Africa but had subsided. One strain, though, had survived in Mongolia. In the 1200s, Mongol armies conquered much of Asia, probably setting off the new **epidemic**, or outbreak of rapid-spreading disease.

In the premodern world, rats infested ships, towns, and even the homes of the rich and powerful, so no one took any notice of them. In the early 1300s, rats scurrying through crowded Chinese cities spread the plague, which killed about 35 million people there.

Fleas jumped from those rats to infest the clothes and packs of traders traveling west. As a result, the disease spread from Asia to the Middle East. Terrible reports reached Europe: "India was depopulated," wrote a chronicler. "Mesopotamia, Syria, and Armenia were covered with dead bodies." In Cairo, one of the world's largest cities, the plague at its peak killed about 7,000 people a day.

Social Upheaval In Europe, the plague brought terror and bewilderment, as people had no way to stop the disease. Some people turned to magic and witchcraft for cures. Others plunged into wild pleasures, believing they

would soon die anyway. Still others saw the plague as God's punishment. They beat themselves with whips to show that they repented their sins. Christians blamed Jews for the plague, charging that they had poisoned the wells. "The whole world," a French friar noted, "rose up against [the Jews] cruelly on this account." In the resulting hysteria, thousands of Jews were slaughtered.

Normal life broke down. The Italian poet Boccaccio described the social decay that he witnessed in Florence as people tried to avoid contracting the plague from neighbors and relatives:

"In the horror thereof brother was forsaken by brother . . . and oftentimes husband by wife; nay, what is more, and scarcely to be believed, fathers and mothers were found to abandon their own children, untended, unvisited, to their fate, as if they had been strangers."

—Boccaccio, *The Decameron*

Economic Effects As the plague kept recurring in the late 1300s, the European economy plunged to a low ebb. As workers and employers died, production declined. Survivors demanded higher wages. As the cost of labor soared, **inflation**, or rising prices, broke out too.

Landowners and merchants pushed for laws to limit wages. To stop rising costs, landowners converted croplands to sheep raising, which required less labor. Villagers forced off the land sought work in towns. There, guilds limited apprenticeships, refused to accept new members, and denied journeymen the chance to become masters.

Coupled with the fear of the plague, these restrictions sparked explosive revolts. Bitter, angry peasants rampaged in England, France, Germany, and elsewhere. In cities, too, artisans fought, usually without success, for more power. The plague had spread both death and social unrest. Western Europe would not fully recover from its effects for more than 100 years.

Upheaval in the Church

The late Middle Ages brought spiritual crisis, scandal, and division to the Roman Catholic Church. Many priests and monks died during the plague. Their replacements faced challenging questions. "Why did God spare some and kill others?" asked survivors.

Divisions Within the Catholic Church The Church was unable to provide the strong leadership needed in this desperate time. In 1309, Pope Clement V had moved the papal court to Avignon on the border of southern France. There it remained for about 70 years under French domination. This period is often called the Babylonian Captivity of the Church, referring to the time when the ancient Israelites were held captive in Babylon.

In Avignon, popes reigned over a lavish court. Critics lashed out against the worldly, pleasure-loving papacy, and anticlergy sentiment grew. Within the Church itself, reformers tried to end the "captivity."

In 1378, reformers elected their own pope to rule from Rome. French cardinals responded by choosing a rival pope. For decades, there was a schism, or split, in the Church as two and sometimes even three popes claimed to be the true "vicar of Christ." Not until 1417 did a Church council at Constance finally end the crisis.

New Heresies With its moral authority weakened, the Church faced still more problems. Popular preachers challenged its power. In England, John Wycliffe, an Oxford professor, attacked Church corruption.

Wycliffe insisted that the Bible, not the Church, was the source of all Christian truth. His followers began translating the Bible into English so

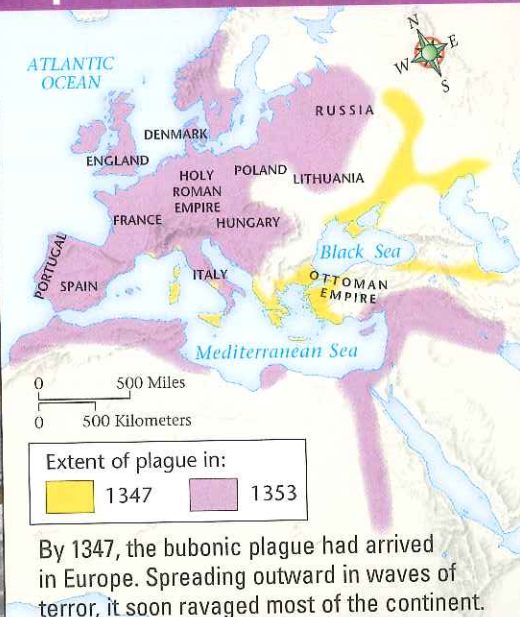
The Black Death Strikes

Between 1347 and 1353, the Black Death, or bubonic plague, killed one person out of every three in Europe. In this short time, over 25 million people died.



The Black Death struck with stunning speed. Within hours, victims developed egg-sized lumps under their arms. Then, horrible black spots appeared on their skin. Once they started spitting blood, death was certain. The sickness seemed all the more terrifying because it could strike anyone. The image above shows Death dancing (left to right) with a woman, a noble, a priest, a peasant, and a monk.

Spread of the Black Death



Unsanitary conditions spread disease. During the Middle Ages, people threw garbage and human waste into the streets.

"Bring out your dead!" This gruesome call sounded through deserted streets. The death toll was so high that gravediggers used carts to collect corpses. Piles of bodies were buried in vast pits.

Flea-covered rats thrived in the filthy streets. One bite from an infected flea could bring an agonizing death.

Portfolio Assessment



Use the Internet or other research sources to learn about a recent epidemic. Create a chart tracing the spread of the disease. Describe how people are trying to prevent or cure this modern plague.

Turning Points of the Hundred Years' War

Longbow



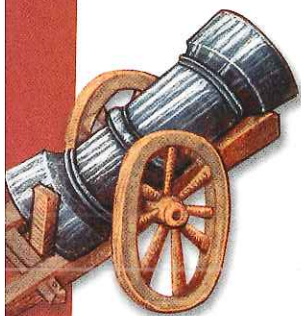
During the early years of the war, English armies equipped with the longbow overpowered their French counterparts equipped with the crossbow. An English archer could shoot three arrows in the time it took a French archer to shoot one.

Joan of Arc



From 1429 to 1431, Joan's successes in battle rallied the French forces to victory. French armies continued to win even after she was executed by the English.

Cannon



The cannon helped the French to capture English-held castles and defeat England's armies. French cannons were instrumental in defeating English forces in Normandy.

Connections to Today

England, which is now part of the United Kingdom, and France have friendly relations today. Their economies are closely linked in that both nations are members of the European Union. The two cooperate militarily as members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

Skills Assessment

Chart Changes

in leadership and new technology marked some of the major turning points in the Hundred Years' War. **How did technology benefit the English in the early years of the war?**

that people could read it themselves rather than rely on the clergy to read it. Czech students at Oxford carried Wycliffe's ideas to Bohemia—what is today the Czech Republic. There, Jan Hus led the call for reforms.

The Church responded by persecuting Wycliffe and his followers and suppressing the Hussites. Hus was tried for preaching heresy—ideas contrary to Church teachings. Found guilty, he was burned at the stake in 1415. The ideas of Wycliffe and Hus survived, however. A century later, other reformers took up the same demands.

The Hundred Years' War

On top of the disasters of famine, plague, and economic decline came a long, destructive war. Between 1337 and 1453, England and France fought a series of conflicts, known as the Hundred Years' War.

Causes As you have read, English rulers had battled for centuries to hold onto the French lands of their Norman ancestors. French kings, for their part, were intent on extending their own power in France. When Edward III of England claimed the French crown in 1337, war erupted anew between these rival powers. Once fighting started, economic rivalry and a growing sense of national pride made it hard for either side to give up the struggle.

English Victories At first, the English won a string of victories—at Crécy in 1346, Poitiers 10 years later, and Agincourt in 1415. They owed much of their success to the **longbow** wielded by English archers. This powerful new weapon was six feet long and took years to master. But it could discharge three arrows in the time a French archer with his crossbow fired just one, and its arrows pierced all but the heaviest armor.

The English victories took a heavy toll on French morale. England, it seemed, was likely to bring all of France under its control. Then, in what seemed to the French a miracle, their fortunes were reversed.

Joan of Arc and French Victory In 1429, a 17-year-old peasant woman, Joan of Arc, appeared at the court of Charles VII, the uncrowned king of France. She told Charles that God had sent her to save France. She persuaded the desperate French king to let her lead his army against the English.

To Charles's amazement, Joan inspired the battered and despairing French troops to fight anew. In an astonishing year of campaigning, she led the French to several victories and planted the seeds for future triumphs.

Joan paid for success with her life. She was taken captive by allies of the English and turned over to her enemies for trial. The English wanted to discredit her, and they had her tried for witchcraft. She was convicted and burned at the stake. Much later, however, the Church declared her a saint.

The execution of Joan rallied the French, who saw her as a martyr. After Joan's death, the French took the offensive. With a powerful new weapon, the cannon, they

attacked English-held castles. By 1453, the English held only the port of Calais in northwestern France.

Effects The Hundred Years' War set France and England on different paths. The war created a growing sense of national feeling in France and allowed French kings to expand their power. During the war, English rulers turned repeatedly to Parliament for funds, which helped that body win the "power of the purse." The loss of French lands shattered English dreams of a continental empire, but English rulers soon began looking at new trading ventures overseas.

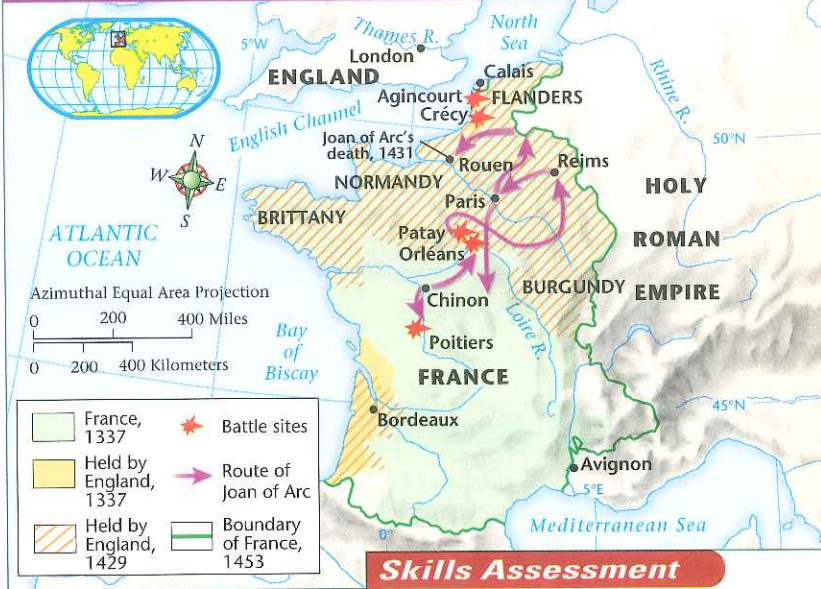
The Hundred Years' War brought many changes to the late medieval world. The longbow and cannon gave common soldiers a new importance on the battlefield and undermined the value of armored knights. Castles and knights were doomed to disappear because their defenses could not stand up to the more deadly firepower. Feudal society was changing. Monarchs needed large armies, not feudal vassals, to fight their wars.

Looking Ahead

In the 1400s, as Europe recovered from the Black Death, other changes occurred. The population expanded and manufacturing grew. These changes, in turn, led to increased trade. Italian cities flourished as centers of shipping. They sent European cloth to the Middle East in exchange for spices, sugar, and cotton. Europeans developed new technologies. German miners, for example, used water power to crush ore and built blast furnaces to make cast iron.

The recovery of the late Middle Ages set the stage for further changes during the Renaissance, Reformation, and Age of Exploration. As Europe grew stronger over the next few centuries, it would take a more prominent role on the global stage.

Hundred Years' War, 1337–1453



Skills Assessment

Geography The English and French fought for control of France in the Hundred Years' War.

- Location** On the map, locate (a) Normandy, (b) Poitiers, (c) Calais.
- Place** What city in northern France was still under English control in 1453?
- Critical Thinking**
Analyzing Information
What regions of France did England gain between 1337 and 1429?

SECTION 5 Assessment

Recall

- Identify:** (a) Black Death, (b) Babylonian Captivity, (c) John Wycliffe, (d) Jan Hus, (e) Hundred Years' War, (f) Joan of Arc.
- Define:** (a) epidemic, (b) inflation, (c) longbow.

Comprehension

- What were three effects of the bubonic plague on late medieval Europe?
- (a) Why did reformers criticize the Church? (b) How did the Church respond to this criticism?

- (a) How did new technologies affect fighting during the Hundred Years' War? (b) What were the results of the war?

Critical Thinking and Writing

- Understanding Sequence** Make a step-by-step list showing how the bubonic plague spread from Asia to Europe and resulted in the deaths of millions of Europeans.
- Comparing** Compare the effects of the Hundred Years' War on France and on England.



Activity

Take It to the NET

Use the Internet to research the Black Death in Europe, especially its effects on population and the economy. Then, use the information you have found to create graphs showing the decline of Europe's population and economy during the plague years. You might download pictures from the Net to illustrate your graphs.

CHAPTER 9

Review and Assessment

Creating a Chapter Summary

On a separate sheet of paper, copy and complete the following chart showing the major political, economic, cultural, and religious developments of the High Middle Ages.

POLITICAL	ECONOMIC	CULTURAL	RELIGIOUS
Monarchs expanded royal power.	Crusades spurred growth of a money economy.	Universities were established.	Church reached height of its power.



For additional review and enrichment activities, see the interactive version of *World History* available on the Web and on CD-ROM.



Web Site Self-Test

For practice test questions for Chapter 9, see www.phschool.com.

Building Vocabulary

Review the meaning of the chapter vocabulary words listed below. Then, write a sentence for each word, describing its significance in medieval Europe.

1. **common law**
2. **jury**
3. **lay investiture**
4. **crusade**
5. **schism**
6. **scholasticism**
7. **vernacular**
8. **epidemic**
9. **inflation**
10. **longbow**

Recalling Key Facts

11. List two ways English and French monarchs increased royal power.
12. Why did Holy Roman emperors come into conflict with the Church?
13. (a) What was the goal of the Crusades? (b) Did they achieve their goal? Explain.
14. (a) What steps did Isabella take to bring religious unity to Spain? (b) What were the results of her policy?
15. What new knowledge reached Europe in the High Middle Ages?
16. (a) What steps did reformers take to end the Babylonian Captivity of the Church? (b) What were the results?

Critical Thinking and Writing

17. **Analyzing Information** (a) List four goals of medieval monarchs. (b) Explain how one ruler furthered these goals.
18. **Defending a Position** Review the conflict between Gregory VII and Henry IV. Cite two arguments each man might have given to defend his position.
19. **Ranking** List four effects of the Crusades. Then, rank them in order of their importance. Give reasons for your ranking.
20. **Connecting to Geography** Review the map titled "Trade in Medieval Europe" in the last chapter and the map titled "Spread of the Black Death" in this chapter. How might trade routes and the spread of the disease be linked?
21. **Making Inferences** How might the rise of medieval literature written in the vernacular reflect a change in education and literacy rates?
22. **Recognizing Causes and Effects** (a) How did the creation of the Magna Carta affect government in England? (b) How do you think the lack of a similar document in France affected the development of government there?



Skills Assessment

Analyzing Primary Sources

Roger of Wendover, an English monk, describes how King John came to sign the Magna Carta. Read the excerpt and answer the questions that follow.

"In Easter week of [1215], the . . . nobles assembled . . . with horses and arms; for they had now induced almost all the nobility of the whole kingdom to join them . . . and when the king learned this, he sent . . . to them to inquire [what] they demanded. The barons then delivered to the messengers a paper, containing in great measure the laws and ancient customs of the kingdom, and declared that, unless the king immediately granted them . . . they would, by taking possession of his fortresses, force him to give them sufficient satisfaction. . . ."

King John, when he saw that he was deserted by almost all, . . . deceitfully pretended to make peace with the aforesaid barons, and . . . told them that . . . he would willingly grant them the laws and liberties they required."

—Roger of Wendover, quoted in *Source Book of English History* (Kendall)

23. (a) What demands did the nobles make?
(b) What did they threaten to do if King John did not agree?
24. Do you think Roger of Wendover expected King John to keep his word and honor the Magna Carta? Explain.
25. What was contained in the Magna Carta?
26. What does this excerpt suggest about English royal power in 1215? Explain.

Skills Assessment

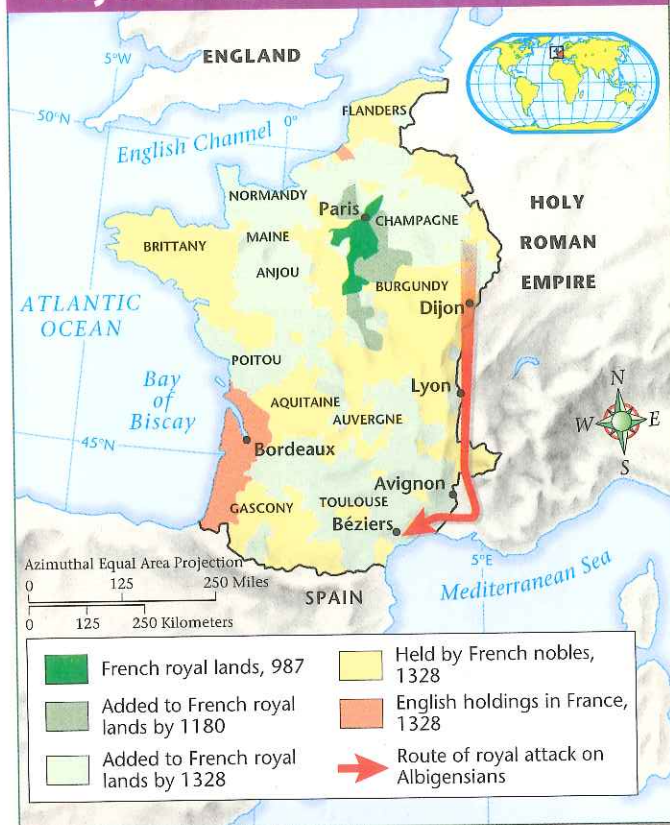
Take It to the NET

Use the Internet to research medieval Gothic cathedrals. Based on information that you find on the Internet, draw a simple diagram of part of a cathedral. With your diagram, include a description of the technology used to build that section of the cathedral, or an explanation of that section's significance to medieval architects, clergy, and citizens.

Skills Assessment

Analyzing Maps

Royal Lands in France, 987–1328



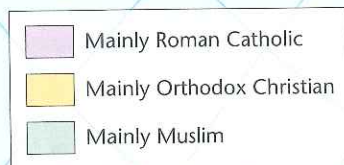
The map above shows the growth of royal lands over a period of several hundred years. Use the map to answer the following questions:

27. Describe the extent of French royal lands in 987.
28. (a) Between what years did Anjou become part of French royal lands? (b) Between what years did royal lands increase the most?
29. (a) Describe the route used by Philip Augustus's army to attack the Albigensians.
(b) About how many miles did the army travel?
30. In 1328, who controlled
(a) Normandy? (b) Brittany?
(c) Bordeaux?

Skills Tip

To understand a map, compare the information on the map with what you have read in your textbook.

Major Religions About 1300



Several religious traditions—including Roman Catholic Christianity, Orthodox Christianity, and Islam—reflect the diversity of Eastern Europe and interaction with its neighbors.

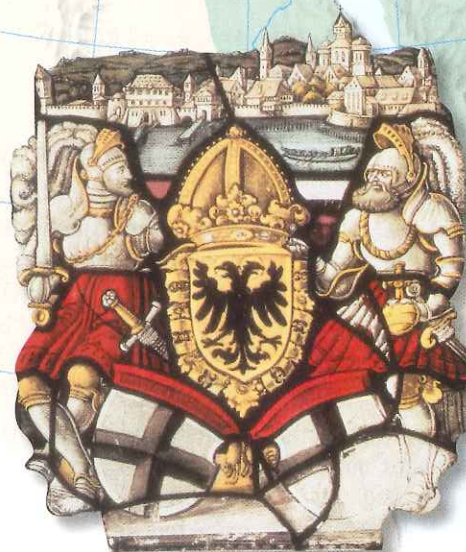
ATLANTIC OCEAN

Azimuthal Equal Area Projection
0 500 1000 Miles
0 500 1000 Kilometers



1386

Duke Wladyslaw Jagiello of Lithuania marries Queen Jadwiga of Poland, making Poland-Lithuania the largest state in Europe.



1462

Ivan the Great begins his reign in Russia. He uses the double-headed eagle, shown above, to show his connections to the Byzantine empire.

1613

The Romanov dynasty begins its 304-year reign in Russia.

1200

1076 Pope Gregory VII excommunicates Henry IV, the Holy Roman emperor.

1500

1324 Mansa Musa, ruler of Mali, makes a pilgrimage to Mecca.

1800

1556 Akbar becomes ruler of the Mughal empire in India.

The Byzantine Empire

Reading Focus

- How did Justinian extend Byzantine power?
- What were the key elements of Byzantine Christianity?
- Why did the Byzantine empire collapse?
- What was the heritage of the Byzantine empire?

Vocabulary

autocrat
patriarch
icon

Taking Notes

As you read this section, create an outline of the main ideas. Use Roman numerals to indicate the major headings of the section, capital letters for the subheadings, and numbers for the supporting details. The sample at right will help you get started.

- I. The growth of Byzantine power
 - A. Constantinople
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
 - B. A blending of cultures
- II. The age of Justinian

Main Idea

The emperor Justinian expanded the Byzantine empire, erected grand buildings, and established a code of laws.



Global Connections

The Quest for Silk

It is nearly impossible for us today to imagine how rare and costly silk was in the Byzantine empire. Wars made the supply unreliable. Persia, which controlled the silk trade with China, levied high taxes that made silk outrageously expensive.

The Byzantine emperor Justinian wanted a reliable supply of silk at a reasonable price. He tried to set up other trade routes, but with little success. In the end, smugglers changed the picture. According to one legend, monks sneaked silkworm eggs out of China in their walking sticks. Although the details are unclear, the results are not. By the 700s, state-owned silk factories in the Byzantine empire fed a growing and profitable silk industry.

Theme: Economics and Technology Why did the Persians want to keep control over the silk trade with China?

Setting the Scene

The bazaars of Constantinople awed visitors. Benjamin of Tudela, a Jewish traveler from Spain, saw merchants there from the Middle East, Egypt, and Eastern Europe. "The city's daily income," he noted, "what with rent from shops and markets and taxes levied on merchants coming by sea and by land, reaches 20,000 gold pieces." As the cities of the western Roman empire crumbled, Constantinople prospered. With its high walls and golden domes, it stood as the proud capital of the Byzantine empire.

The Growth of Byzantine Power

You will recall that, as German invaders pounded the Roman empire in the west, emperors shifted their base to the eastern Mediterranean. The emperor Constantine rebuilt the Greek city of Byzantium and gave it the name Constantinople. In 330, he made Constantinople the new capital of the empire. From this "New Rome," roads fanned out to the Balkans, to the Middle East, and to North Africa. In time, the eastern Roman empire became known as the Byzantine empire.

Constantinople The vital center of the empire was Constantinople. The city was located on the shores of the Bosphorus, a strait that linked the Mediterranean and Black seas. Constantinople had an excellent harbor and was guarded on three sides by water. Later emperors built an elaborate system of land and sea walls to bolster its defenses. Equally important, Constantinople commanded key trade routes linking Europe and Asia. For centuries, the city's favorable location made it Europe's busiest marketplace. There, merchants sold silks from China, wheat from Egypt, gems from India, spices from Southeast Asia, and furs from Viking lands in the north.

At the center of the city, Byzantine emperors and empresses lived in glittering splendor. Dressed in luxurious silk, they attended chariot races at the Hippodrome, an arena built in the 200s. Crowds cheered wildly as rival charioteers careened their vehicles around and around. The spectacle was another reminder of the city's glorious Roman heritage.

A Blending of Cultures After rising to spectacular heights, the Byzantine empire eventually declined to a small area around Constantinople itself. Yet it was still in existence nearly 1,000 years after the fall of the western Roman empire. As the heir to Rome, it promoted a brilliant civilization that blended ancient Greek, Roman, and Christian influences with other traditions of the Mediterranean world.