

**Summer Homework: Chapter Nine
Revival, Recovery, Reform, and Expansion**

Bibliography:

McKay, John P., Bennett D. Hill, and John Buckler. "Revival, Recovery, Reform, and Expansion." *A History of Western Society*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin, 2003. 265-89. Print.

Introduction:

The time between 1050 and 1300 is commonly known as the "High Middle Ages" or the "Central Middle Ages." This period marked a time between two economic, political, and social crises and it was a time of change and growth. During this time Latin Christian culture reached more frontier zones through conquest and colonization; these frontier zones included:

- ❖ Ireland
- ❖ the Baltic
- ❖ Scandinavia
- ❖ East Europe
- ❖ Spain

Questions:

What were the ingredients of revival, and how did they come about?

How did political revival affect the reform of the church? How, in turn, did religious reform influence secular developments?

How did the reform of the Christian church come to affect relations between the church and civil authorities?

What were the Crusades, and how did they manifest the influence of the church and the ideals of medieval society?

What were the means of Latin Christian penetration into pagan and Muslim religions, and how did that penetration bring about change?

Key Terms:

Capetian dynasty
Battle of Lechfeld
leprosaria
simony
Nicolaites
college of cardinals
lay investiture
excommunications
Worms
Curia Romana (Roman Curia)
Crusades
Clermont
Sephardic Jews
Albigensians
Ostiedlung
Reconquista
Las Navas de Tolosa

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Chapter Notes:

Political Revival

Rulers in France, England, and Germany tried to reduce private warfare while outside invasions also began to decline. This political stability helped the economy and the population increase.

In the tenth century Charlemagne's family still had control over the West Frankish Kingdom but did not have great control over the lords.

France, as with many areas, was home to diversity. This diversity most notable in the following ways:

- ❖ language and culture
- ❖ social structure
- ❖ public authority

France was composed of five major counties"

- ❖ Anjou
- ❖ Blois-Chartres
- ❖ Brittany
- ❖ Flanders
- ❖ Normandy

Normandy was the strongest territory and got its name from the Northmen, or Vikings, who resided there. One such Viking was Rollo. While peace had been achieved for a time in this area, Rollo's descendant, Duke William I's time in power saw instability due to rebellious lords. By 1060 he was able to unite them, however.

William I made feudalism a system of government; he:

- ❖ insisted on the homage of vassals
- ❖ attached quotas of knight services to lands
- ❖ executed vassals who didn't follow rules
- ❖ limited private warfare
- ❖ forbade private castles

After the last Carolingian ruler died in 987, Hugh Capet was chosen to rule. Despite being weaker, Capetians laid the foundation for political stability and stopped France from dividing further.

After Alfred the Great's win over the Vikings in England, a great political revival occurred. Royal law soon replaced old customs and systems for local government were also put in place. Gradually, England was united. Assimilation occurred between the Vikings and Anglo-Saxons after Danish ruler Sweyn Forkbeard and his son made England part of their empire.

In the east, German ruler Otto I defeated the Magyars at the battle of Lechfeld. Otto was allied with and controlled the church. Bishops and abbots in his kingdom had to pay feudal homage, also known as lay investiture. Otto stopped feudal anarchy by using the church. His coronation by the pope in 962 laid the foundation for the Holy Roman Empire.

Most of North Italy survived the problems of the Early Middle Ages and some cities like Venice even showed economic dynamism. Venetian commerce stimulated economic growth, as Venice had contact with the East.

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The church worked to promote peace and stability. At a series of church councils, bishops began to act by forming peace associations. They also published decrees that forbade:

- ❖ attacks on peasants, clerics, and merchants
- ❖ destruction of buildings and crops

The Truce of God was another church effort, but it had less of an impact. Churchmen limited when fighting and warfare could occur; in all, fighting was only supposed to occur on eighty days in a year.

Population, Climate, and Mechanization

With fewer large conflicts the population of Europe began to rise. No large plagues or biological factors affected the population between the tenth and fourteenth centuries, although leprosy and malaria did infect a few. Those suffering from leprosy, which was not highly contagious, were segregated in hospitals known as leprosaria.

Higher threats were those of crop failure and starvation. The climates during the twelfth century were warmer than average and this did lead to a higher food production overall. More food and a better diet led to healthier people and a larger population increase. The tenth and eleventh centuries also saw more mechanization as water mills became used more often. Wind power was used and adopted a bit later on.

Revival and Reform of the Church

Monasteries in the eleventh century remodeled themselves under the abbey of Cluny. A spiritual movement occurred and new religious orders were formed. The papacy itself was cleaned up as the popes worked to clarify church law and attain the loyalty of clergy members.

Between the seventh and ninth centuries religious houses did the following:

- ❖ copied and preserved manuscripts
- ❖ set high standards for monastic observance

Monasteries were attacked by foreign invaders and many religious houses were controlled by lords after the disintegration of the Carolingian Empire. Powerful laymen appointed themselves or people close to them as abbots and greatly benefitted financially from the monasteries. Spiritual observance and intellectual activity declined because of this.

Since Charlemagne's time, secular powers selected church officials and made them their vassals; abbots, bishops, and archbishops had military responsibilities. Church law forbade clerics from participating in violence and fighting, however some still went to battle.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries barons often owed commissions of knight service, although these debts were commonly cash payments after 1166. As feudal lords, ecclesiastical officials also had judicial authority over knights and peasants.

In 909 William the Pious established the abbey of Cluny in Burgundy and declared it free from feudal lordship. This monastery had quite a bit of influence, as the first abbots set high standards. Cluny stood for clerical celibacy and the suppression of simony and represented overall stability. Hundreds of monasteries ended up under Cluny's authority as benefactors wanted to be associated with the abbey's piety and be under its protection.

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Monasteries increased in wealth and monks lived more luxurious lifestyles. Spiritual fervor declined and soon there were demands for reform; this led to the founding of new religious orders. The Cistercians are the best representatives of the reforming era.

In 1098 a group of monks founded a new house in Cîteaux that planned to:

- ❖ avoid involvement with secular feudal society
- ❖ refuse gifts and manorial incomes
- ❖ keep simple chants
- ❖ refuse powerful laypeople in their monasteries

In 1112 a nobleman named Bernard joined the community in Cîteaux and three years later was the founding abbot of Clairvaux. From this position, he:

- ❖ conducted a vast correspondence
- ❖ attacked the views of Peter Abelard
- ❖ intervened in the papal election of 1130
- ❖ drafted a constitution for the Knights Templars
- ❖ preached the Second Crusade

Some believe that the monastic revival spreading from Cluny sparked the reform of the Roman papacy and the Christian church. The significance and amount of impact is not known, however goals of the Clunaic movement and the Roman papacy were the same.

In the tenth century the Roman papacy provided little leadership for Christians. Factions in Rome wanted to use the papacy for their own benefit and popes were appointed based on politics instead of core values. The morality of the pope and his position was damaged as time passed. There were also many married priests, despite the objections of the Roman church; these priests were known as Nicolaites.

Reform efforts began under Pope Leo IX, who traveled widely and held councils that pressed the ideas of reform. Papal reform continued after his death under the leadership of Nicholas II. During his reign there was a council held in the church of Saint John Lateran that came up with a new way of electing the pope that would hinder the influence of aristocrats. The Lateran Synod of 1059 found that a college of cardinals would elect the pope.

The Gregorian Revolution

The election of Cardinal Hildebrand as Pope Gregory VII changed the direction of the reform and it became a political matter. Pope Gregory VII focused not only on the moral aspects of reformation but also the freedom of the church; this led to the end of the practice known as lay investiture and provoked a terrible crisis.

In 1075 Pope Gregory VII held a council at Rome that published decrees against the following:

- ❖ Nicolaitism
- ❖ simony
- ❖ lay investiture

Those who did not follow rules or who accepted investiture were excommunicated; it was hoped that this would compel people to follow the new rules. Leaders such as Henry IV, William the Conqueror, and Philip I protested.

The ability to read and write was usually reserved for monks and priests, used by monarchs as administrators. Rulers used church offices to support royal governments, and the revenues of a monastery

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paid the incomes of royal officials. Church officials were paid by the church for doing work for the state. Kings and leaders saw Pope Gregory's condemnation of lay investiture as revolutionary.

The strongest reaction came from Germany's Henry IV, as the relationship between the king and the church had been different in two ways:

- ❖ the pope crowned the German emperor
- ❖ both the empire and papal states claimed northern Italy

Because of this, Gregory and Henry exchanged bitter letters and many German bishops withdrew their allegiance to the pope; they were excommunicated and Henry was suspended as king. The lay nobility paid attention to their own interests and invited Gregory to help them settle their dispute with the king. Henry visited the pope and asked for forgiveness in 1077. He then regained his title and had control over his rebellious subjects. In the long run, rulers were hesitant to challenge the papacy for the next two centuries.

In 1080 Gregory VII excommunicated Henry IV; the king captured Rome and controlled the city after the pope's death. Gregory's successors later convinced Henry's sons to revolt against him.

The issue was settled in 1122 at Worms through a compromise. Bishops were to be chosen by the clergy while in the presence of an emperor or delegate. Lay rulers also still had an effective veto over appointees that they did not approve of.

The controversy had consequences in Germany, including:

- ❖ civil wars were not well controlled by emperors
- ❖ emerging noble dynasties enhanced their position
- ❖ great lords built castles
- ❖ the aristocracy subordinated knights and reinforced feudal ties
- ❖ free men and serfs were reduced to a servile position
- ❖ the nobility held the balance of power in Germany

In the twelfth century, the papacy pressed the campaign of reform. Pope Urban II reorganized the central government of the church. The papal court, also known as the Curia Romana or Roman Curia, was the first well-organized institution of monarchical authority of its time. It made and enforced laws for all of Christendom. Pope Innocent III judged many cases involving monarchs and symbolized the height of papal power.

By the early thirteenth century, efforts at reform had met great success. The papal bureaucracy and the Curia Romana continued to grow in size and strength. Popes like Gregory IX and Innocent IV, however, managed to damage papal prestige and influence.

The Crusades

The Crusades were the most obvious sign of the pope's claim as the leader of Christian society. The enormous response to the calls for crusades showed the influence of the papacy after its reform. So many knights joined the cause that fighting became a major trait of the lifestyle of the higher class.

The Roman papacy had a couple of reasons to call for the Crusades:

- ❖ the pope had a larger claim as the leader of Christian society in the West
- ❖ there was a strong Roman influence in Eastern Greek areas
 - they wanted to reunify the two churches

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Turkish soldiers defeated a Greek army in Anatolia, prompting the Eastern emperor to ask the West for help. The holy city of Jerusalem also fell to the Turks and pilgrimages to holy places became dangerous. The papacy claimed to be outraged that nonbelievers had control of the city; the truth was that the papacy believed the Seljuk Turks would not be as accommodating as the previous Muslim occupants.

In 1095 Pope Urban II traveled to Clermont and called for a holy war against the Seljuk Turks. He proclaimed an indulgence to those who were willing to fight in the wars. Although the majority of the Crusaders were French, people from across Europe and varying social statuses went off to fight.

Crusades offered those who fought:

- ❖ foreign travel
- ❖ excitement
- ❖ a way to show how important religion was to them

Those at home benefitted, as nobles usually needed loans; their land was security and some middle-class creditors were able to get land this way.

Between the sixth and tenth centuries, Sephardic Jews settled along trade routes and eventually played a role in trade between Europe and the Middle East. Jews also lent money to many people.

Because of its more enthusiastic fighters, the First Crusade was a success; Arab disunity also contributed to the European victory. Between 1096 and 1270 there were eight papally approved expeditions; none, however, had a lasting success. Constantinople was sacked during the Fourth Crusade and never fully recovered. This also caused the split between the Latin and Greek churches to be permanent.

Crusades were also fought against other groups of people, such as the Albigensians in 1208. Two decades after this, popes damaged their credibility by promoting crusades against Emperor Frederick II.

The Crusades led to the creation of new religious orders like the Knights Templars, who managed to establish a Christian Prussia. Military orders like the Knights Templar unified Christian Europe.

Fewer women than men participated directly in the Crusades, although some women did go fight; this showed that women of this time had considerable power. Women who stayed home usually did their husbands' jobs while they were gone. Overall the Crusades brought women power and business opportunities.

The Crusades introduced Eastern goods to Europe and allowed for easier trading. Other legacies of the Crusades included:

- ❖ new feudal states
 - lasted two centuries
- ❖ a long struggle between Islam and Christianity
- ❖ European merchants established communities in the Crusader states
- ❖ the identity of the West was shaped

Most Europeans knew very little about Islam or its followers and this greatly hurt relations between the two. Furthermore, relations between Jews and Christians were poor; Jews, like Muslims, were seen as "monsters."

Despite anti-Semitism and a deteriorating legal position, Jewish culture flourished. Jews were an urban people and established schools that taught religion. Scholars were respected in Jewish communities and

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nobles sought Jewish physicians. Despite harassment and humiliation, Jews became students and professors. Andalusian Spain especially saw a “golden age” of Jewish culture, especially in poetry.

The Expansion of Latin Christendom

By 1300 the movement of people, ideas, and culture had led to a gradual Europeanization of the frontier. The Crusades led knights to move to the frontiers of Christian Europe.

In 1177 John de Courcy, a Norman, raided Ulaid and then acquired a sizeable lordship. Others followed and brought:

- ❖ change to the Irish church
- ❖ the fief
- ❖ feudal cavalry
- ❖ Anglo-Norman landlords
- ❖ Anglo-Norman, Anglo-French, and Flemish knights
- ❖ chartered Anglo-style towns

Influences in Scandinavian and Baltic regions were spread through bishops. Royal power advanced institutional Christianity in Denmark while Christianity progressed slower in Sweden, Norway, and Iceland.

West Slavs and Balts hung on to paganism; nevertheless, Otto I established a series of dioceses to Christianize. Repeated Slavic revolts show the opposition in the region. The ruthless tactics of Albert the Bear pacified the region.

Albert the Bear reconquered Brandenburg; with this base, and to support Ostsiedlung, he proclaimed a German crusade against the Slavs and Slav revolts were crushed. Meanwhile, Duke Boleslaw I of Silesia invited German knights and monks to settle in his lands. This contributed to political stability and agricultural development of the lands.

Prague in Bohemia became a bishopric and missionaries were sent to convert the Poles. Poznan was the first diocese in Poland. Esztergom in Hungary also became a diocese.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, German settlers settled in parts of Eastern Europe. The Christian baptism of Duke Miesko led to the following:

- ❖ construction of a cathedral
- ❖ arrival of churchmen
- ❖ the building of churches and monasteries
- ❖ more immigrants searching for opportunities
- ❖ Germanization

Around 950, Caliph Abd al-Rahman III ruled most of the Iberian Peninsula. Civil wars occurred between his descendants, leading to two important consequences:

- ❖ the peninsula was divided into smaller Muslim territories
- ❖ the Christian reconquest became easier

Clerical propagandists called the movement to expel the Muslims the Reconquista. The Christian push southward was accelerated at Las Navas de Tolosa in 1212 with the aid of Alfonso VIII. James the Conqueror, King of Aragon, captured Valencia and turned the chief mosque into a cathedral. In 1236 Ferdinand of Castile and León captured Córdoba and it became the main military base against Granada. When Seville fell in 1248, the whole peninsula was Christian except for Granada.

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By the end of the thirteenth century, Spain had fifty-one bishoprics; the Reconquista meant the establishment of a Roman ecclesiastical structure. New monasteries helped Christian culture grow. As Spanish ruler-kings of the Reconquista pushed southward, they established Cistercian monasteries as well as the religious and cultural integrity of the areas.

Ramon Berenguer IV founded Poblet in Catalonian Aragon and it became a great banking center. In 1187 Alfonso VIII and his wife Eleanor sponsored Las Huelgas, the only Cistercian house for women. Iberian houses were all Cistercian and were also royal monasteries. These abbeys came to have large cultural, military, political, and economic influences.

Christian Spain became urbanized and French immigrants came to its towns. As towns needed more inhabitants, the new lords recruited people from:

- ❖ Old Catalonia
- ❖ Castile
- ❖ León

Achieving a cultural unity between the frontier regions and the European heartland was difficult; however, it was achieved by 1300 because of the following:

- ❖ papal pressure and a common religion
- ❖ contracts between the papacy, Eastern Europe, and Celtic and Iberian lands

Summary:

As invasions ended social, political, and ecclesiastical changes occurred in European society. Increased mechanization led to an increased agricultural supply created by manorial communities. Water power and wind power were used in mills during this time. More food led to an increased population during this period. Order was reached in some territories as well as more peaceful times fell upon the people. The Gregorian reform led to conflicts over lay investiture, however there were also social consequences for this in Germany. The twelfth and thirteenth centuries saw the Roman papacy create the first strong government bureaucracy. The church's power and the pope's leadership was demonstrated during the Crusades. The crusades themselves were disastrous for Western Christian relations with other groups, and these conflicts were lasting ones. Monasteries and military force both spread Latin Christian culture into the frontier regions of Europe, and soon Europe was united through their common religion.