

daughter of a Burgundian prince. She had long sought to convert her pagan husband, but without success. In the heat of the battle, Clovis, having failed to secure victory by calling upon his own gods, fell upon his knees and vowed that if the God of his wife would save him from defeat he would become a Christian. The Allemanni were beaten, and Clovis caused himself and three thousand of his noblest Franks to be baptized in the Catholic faith at the next Easter festival. This summary wholesale conversion to Christianity was merely nominal, but it was the beginning of that influence of the Church of Rome which subsequently became so powerful among the Germans. Clovis continued his conquests until his rule was acknowledged east to the Rhine and south as far as the Garonne. Anastasius, Emperor of the East, sent a message of congratulation to the King of the Franks, and nominated him to the dignity of a Roman patrician and consul, and Clovis wore with pride the purple robe which symbolized this once noble but now emasculated office. Clovis made Paris his capital and died there in the year 511, leaving four sons, who divided the kingdom among themselves, but maintained toward other nations the attitude of a single power.

The Merovingian kings were with few exceptions monsters of cruelty and vice. Their people were sunk in moral degradation, but the power of the kingdom increased until it included the territory between the Saxon frontiers on the north and the Alps on the south. The Frisians and Saxons alone remained independent. The conquered lands within the Frank kingdom were distributed by the monarchs among their chiefs, who held the gifts as *fiefs* or loans, for which they were obliged to do military duty on the command of the king. The feudatories took the name of liege subjects or *vassals*, and those of them who stood close to the king were named *administrators*. These great vassals distributed from their own lands portions to poorer individuals, who were called *Arriere vassals*. The freemen, who were only obliged to serve in great national wars, held an *allodial* or free inheritance. Under this system arose an aristocracy composed of the great vassals and those who held under them. The frequent wars of the Merovingian kings wasted the strength of the monarchy and in time the great vassals assumed powers and dignities which properly belonged to the king—a state of things which led in the end to the deposition of the dynasty. Grants of land were also made to the higher clergy, which contributed to the erection of an ecclesiastical aristocracy. Most of the priests were of the subject Latin race, but their religious office and their large possessions soon raised them to an importance which permitted them to mingle on equal terms with the military lords of the land. In the course of time many of the smaller proprietors found it to their advantage to surrender their grants of land either to the church or to some powerful nobleman, and to have them returned with additions when they became vassals. In this way the freemen decreased in number and the whole order of society was changed.

In Austrasia, the eastern division of the Merovingian kingdom, the power of the noblemen was constantly increasing, because of their great distance from the seat of the king; and while they held in check the authority of the monarch, they continually extended and strengthened their power over their own subjects. In the western division, or Neustria, the authority of the head of the state was generally acknowledged and obeyed until a time arrived when the weakness of the king loosened his grasp of the sceptre and it fell into the strong hand of his chief officer. Among the vassals who immediately surrounded the throne were the royal Treasurer, the Marshal, the Steward and the Butler, and to these were added the Pfalz-grafen, or king's deputies, who exercised the royal prerogative in the absence of the ruler, and the Major Domus, or Mayor of the Palace who commanded the king's

knights. This officer soon became the most important dignitary in the kingdom.

In the Seventh and Eighth centuries the heathen Allemanni, Thuringians and Bavarians in the wilds of the interior of Germany, and part of the Saxons and Frisians on the coast of the North Sea, were converted to Christianity by missionaries from Ireland, England and Scotland. The best known of these missionaries are St. Columban and Boniface. The latter established bishoprics, or regulated those already existing, at Salzburg, Passau, Ratisbon, Wurzburg, Erfurt, and other places. The celebrated abbey of Fulda was founded by his follower, Sturm, and he also planted at Ohrdruf a school for religious teachers, in which, in connection with doctrinal teachings, instruction was given in the arts of agriculture and horticulture. Boniface presided over the Council held at Soissons in 742. After a long life of missionary labor, during which he received promotion to high ecclesiastical office, he suffered martyrdom at the hands of heathen Frisians in the year 755. In view of the subsequent development of the national mind and conscience, the work of these missionaries cannot be overestimated, but at the time the conversion of many of these pagans was not of that quality which would commend itself to a modern religious devotee. The morals of the people were frightfully corrupt; the old-time sanctity of marriage was almost annihilated and the word humanity seems to have been thrust out of the language. Regular assemblies were still held, but instead of consisting as formerly of the whole body of the freemen, they were now composed mainly of the nobility. Courts were held in the open air, and verdicts were rendered by a body of men who combined in themselves the functions of both judge and jury. When human judgment failed to arrive at a finding in cases brought before this tribunal, a verdict was obtained through the agency of the ordeal by fire or water or by single combat.

In the year 613 the sub-kingdoms of Austrasia and Pippin of Neustria were united by Clotaire, under whom and his son Dagobert comparatively good government was maintained. After Dagobert, who died in 637, the authority of the throne declined, and the power of the "Lazy Kings," as they are called, passed into the hands of the Mayors of the Palace, while the titular rulers became mere puppets. The real power of the early medieval German Empire may be said to have begun with Pippin of Landen, from whom sprang the line which produced Charles Martel and Charlemagne. Pippin, who was Mayor of the Palace in Austrasia under Dagobert, was related to the Merovingian kings. The office had become hereditary, and the power of the Mayor was so great that Pippin's son, Grimoald, attempted to depose the current Merovingian king and place his own son on the throne. The ambitious father and his son were both killed in the struggle, the Frank nobility having not yet sufficiently departed from their reverence for their royal house to consent to its overthrow. One of Grimoald's sisters was married to the son of the Latin Bishop of Metz. Her son, Pippin of Heristal, in whom both Latin and German blood were mingled, became Mayor of the Palace in Austrasia. In the famous Battle of Testri, fought in the year 681, he overcame the king of Neustria, and the divisions of the Frankish kingdom were re-united. Warned by the fate of his uncle, Pippin made no attempt on the throne but was content to wield the power of the united kingdom. Charles Martel (the Hammer) was the son of Pippin of Heristal.

The Mohammedan power, which had extended from Mecca through northern Africa to Spain, was preparing for the destruction of Christianity in Europe and the imposition of its doctrines and government upon the people of that continent. While a Saracen fleet and army assailed Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire, a Moslem army under Abderrhaman advanced across the Pyrenees against the Christians of Western Europe. As in the time of the

Hunnish invasion, the forces of Europe were concentrated and battle was offered to the invaders. In 732 the two armies met in the plain between Tours and Poitiers in southern France, and after a sanguinary contest lasting through seven days the Christians were victorious and Europe was saved from the rule of Islam. But while the thorough military organization, which was made possible by the power of the Mayor of the Palace, had undoubtedly preserved Europe in the great conflict, the independence of the individual was materially impaired and its place was taken by feudal allegiance.

After adding East Friesland to the kingdom, Charles Martel died in 741, leaving two sons, Carloman and Pippin the Short. Carloman retired to a convent, and Pippin, seeing the time ripe for a change of dynasty, inquired of Pope Zacharias: "Who ought rightly to be king; he who sits at home in idleness, or he who bears the toils and dangers of government?" The Pope was in difficulty at the time with his neighbor, the Lombard king, and secured the aid of Pippin by sanctioning the deposition of Childeric III, the last Merovingian monarch, and the coronation of the Frank Mayor of the Palace. The decision of the Pope contained a statement to the effect that the throne was the gift of the Church, and also a threat of the ban of the Church upon anyone who opposed the accession of Pippin. In this way began the assumption of temporal authority by the Pope over the kings of Christendom. The head of the new dynasty was crowned in 752 at Soissons by Boniface, two hundred and sixty-six years after Clovis at the same place founded the Frank kingdom. In aid of Pope Stephen, Pippin marched into Italy in 754, defeated the Lombard King at Susa and Ravenna and presented to the head of the Church the territory which formed the nucleus of the Papal States. Pippin died in 768 and was succeeded by his sons Charles and Carloman. Carloman died in 777, and Charles, subsequently named Charlemagne, the greatest monarch yet produced by Germany, reigned alone.

By the death of his brother, Charles came into possession of a kingdom more extensive than that of the Merovingian Kings. Bavaria and Thuringia had been annexed. Brittany, Aquitaine and Bavaria still retained their native dukes, but all the other provinces were governed by officers of the crown. In early life Charles had married a princess of the Frank at he subsequently put her away and married a daughter of Desiderius, the Lombard King. This second wife he afterward divorced on the protest of Pope Stephen III. During his reign he espoused five wives, all of whom he divorced, apparently viewing the marriage tie with contempt. Nor does he seem to have been troubled with scruples because of anything he did in his long reign; but on the other hand, the ruthless genius which enabled him to consolidate his imperial power was also exerted for the civilization and enlightenment of his subjects.

In 772 Charles made war on the Saxons, and at Eresburg he destroyed the celebrated Irmansul. This was the figure of a warrior standing on a marble pillar, bearing in one hand a rose and in the other a pair of scales. The warrior's crest was a cock. There was a figure of a bear on his breast and on his shield was a lion in a field of flowers. The Irmansul was an object of worship among the Saxons, who propitiated the divinity by human sacrifices. The Saxons submitted to the Frank King and promised him their allegiance, but without any intention of keeping their promise; in fact, several campaigns were required to bring them under his power. The divorce of the Lombard King's daughter and the denial by Charles of the rights of his own nephews—sons of Carloman—together with an appeal by the Pope to the Frank King for aid against Desiderius, involved him in war with the latter. Assembling a great army at Geneva, he invaded Lombardy, captured Desiderius and the sons of Carloman at Pavia and compelled them to enter a convent. He

then annexed the Lombard kingdom to his own, leaving the people their own laws and their native dukes, but he himself assuming the iron crown and proclaiming himself king of Italy. At a later date insurrections in Lombardy caused the deposition of the Lombard dukes, and the people were afterward governed by counts appointed by the king of the Franks. At this time began his intimate relations with the papal power, out of which grew the close connection that for many centuries existed between the German Empire and the affairs of Italy. In his reign Charlemagne's great genius was directed to the building up together of the absolute monarchy of the Franks and the spiritual power of the Church. He was convinced that Christianity was the means by which his people were to be advanced in civilization, and he proposed to use the strong religious influence of Rome as a buttress for his own power.

Charlemagne was continually hampered in his plans for universal dominion by the onslaughts of the heathen Saxons, who, under their duke Wiulkind, resisted all attempts to deprive them of their freedom and their religion. In retaliation for the destruction of one of his armies in Saxony, Charlemagne barbarously ordered the decapitation of four thousand five hundred Saxon prisoners, an act which fanned into fury the passions of that people. After years of desperate struggle the pagan Saxons were reduced, and in 797 their popular assembly was dissolved, the arms-bearing population was made liable to be drafted into the Frankish army and the country was brought into complete subjection. Finding his new subjects bitterly opposed to his rule, Charles, partly as a political measure and following the example of Boniface, established numerous bishoprics among them. Sees were founded by him and his successor at Paderborn, Münster, Osnabrück, Bremen, Minden, Verden, Halberstadt and Hildesheim.

Among other acts of his reign was an expedition into Spain against the Saracen power there which had risen on the ruins of the Visigothic kingdom. He captured Pampeluna and Saragossa and formed the country between the Pyrenees and the Ebro into a vice-royalty or march. In the pass of Roncesvalles, on his return, the Basque mountaineers fell upon his rear guard and slew many of Charles' bravest noblemen, among them Roland, Count of the March of Brittany. The death of Roland has passed into legend and song, and the glory of the great Paladin and the fabulous deeds ascribed to him have been kept fresh to the present day.

Thassilo, Duke of Bavaria, having incurred the displeasure of Charlemagne, was overthrown and driven into a convent and his country was incorporated into the Frank kingdom. The annexation of Bavaria completed the reduction of Germany to the rule of Charlemagne. It will be remembered that after the Hunnish invasion the Slavs had moved into the vacated German lands westward to the Elbe. Charlemagne addressed himself to the task of subjugating these people, who by the Germans were called Wends. In one campaign he conquered the *Avari* in the territory extending from the Ems to the Raab and planted there a colony of Bavarians. The country was attached to the ecclesiastical province of Salzburg and became the germ of the Austrian Empire. In the Saxon march lay the germ of Brandenburg, the modern Prussia. Other parts of the Slav region were overrun by the armies of Charlemagne, but it was many centuries before the oldtime control of the country between the Oder and the Vistula was established in German hands. For protection against the Slavs he built the fortresses of Halle on the Saale and Magdeburg and Buchen on the Elbe.

The state built up by Charlemagne embraced within its boundaries all the people of German descent except the Anglo-Saxons and the Northmen of Scandinavia. His possessions in Italy reached to the Garigliano, and in Spain to the Ebro. On Christmas day in the year 800, Charlemagne was crowned Emperor of Rome by

Roland

The Empire enlarged



Pope Leo III, who at the same time bestowed upon him the title of Guardian of the Christian Church and of the True Faith. The relations between the Empire and the Church were of a peculiar nature. The Pope in a secular sense was a subject of the Empire, but he was also the spiritual Father from whom all Christian monarchs received their crowns with reverence. The ecclesiastical power of Rome and the physical power of the Empire were to support and serve each other, and for a time this relation was sustained. The civil constitution of the Empire was the result of a complete change from the old order of things. The whole country was divided into districts ruled by counts appointed by the king. A further division was made into circuits resembling the ancient hundreds, governed by officers who were afterward called viscounts. High courts of justice were held each month by the counts in the king's name, and here the law was administered in all cases involving life, liberty and estate. In time of war the count commanded the military force of his district. Upon the borders were erected "marches," or marks, which were organized as military districts for the protection of the Empire from external assault. The counts of the marches necessarily had a greater latitude in the use of power than their peers in the interior of the Empire, and in subsequent reigns several of them strongly resisted the Imperial authority. In the body of the Empire the executive power of the emperor was represented by his sheriffs, and judicial power by royal judges. All the officers were paid in land, which was held by feudal tenure. The officers were visited four times a year by imperial deputies, who communicated to them the emperor's will, and also reported their conduct to him. This inspection, however, was not sufficiently strict to prevent abuses. In war the emperor first summoned his vassals, who led to him their forces, composed of the subordinate vassals and the freemen of the Empire. The general assembly of the freemen was still held, but the rights of the individual had passed into the hands of the great spiritual and secular vassals and it was an assembly of freemen only in name. No regular taxes were levied; the court was supported by the tributary gifts of the subjects and the revenues derived from the crown lands.

Charlemagne traveled through the whole Empire, but he spent much time at Ingelheim, Mainz, Nimeguen and Aix-la-Chapelle (Aachen). He had no fixed capital, but was specially attached to Aix, where he built a splendid residence and a cathedral. In person, Charlemagne was very tall and of generous proportions. His eyes were large and bright, he had an abundance of fair hair which was white in his old age, and a fine forehead. He had a passion for labor, war and danger, and this quality joined with a lofty intellect made him one of the great princes not only of his own age but of all time. His far-seeing mind had caught from Rome the conception of a universal state, but his wisdom saved him from copying Roman models except in so far as they were adapted to the genius of his race. He gathered about himself learned men from all countries, and established the School of the Palace, as it was called, presided over by Alcuin, a learned Anglo-Saxon, the emperor himself taking part in the discussions. He founded schools in all the convents and introduced Roman teachers of music, but he required that sermons should be preached in the German language. Under his direction a German grammar was compiled. In every way possible he forwarded the cause of education, which was not then a German accomplishment. He caused to be preserved the ancient heroic songs of the minstrels, but these were destroyed by the religious fanaticism of his son Lewis the Pious, who ascended the throne after him. The Church was cherished in the reign of Charlemagne as it had never been before. He granted tithes to the clergy and himself selected many of the abbots and bishops. Simple in his own attire, he had little patience with the luxurious habits

of his courtiers and scoffed at their gorgeous raiment. All his public acts—even the slaughter of the Saxons at Verden—were done in accordance with a policy which looked to the establishment of a German Christian Empire. The great emperor was never cruel upon impulse; on the contrary, in his private intercourse with those about him he was mild, cheerful and benevolent. His cruelties sprang from an unbounded ambition, to which the Germans are indebted for the partial unification of the race which is not yet complete. The impulse he gave to the German power was felt through the middle ages, and it may not be too much to say that it is still a living force. The principal weakness of the Empire was to be found, perhaps, in the system of feudalism which in the reign of Charlemagne was firmly established. This system raised the nobles almost to the dignity of kings, and correspondingly debased the freemen. In his own strong hand its cutting edge was turned away from the monarch, and by it he was enabled to build around his throne the greatest state of Europe, but the authority delegated to the lords of the provinces permitted them to so strengthen their power that soon after the sceptre passed out of his dead hand, his weak successors were unable to maintain themselves and the great structure fell to pieces.

In 813 Charlemagne caused his son Lewis (Ludwig) to be crowned joint emperor, with the provision that he should be sole emperor on his father's death. At the same time the crown of Italy was decreed to Bernard, the son of Charlemagne's second son Pippin who died in 811. Charlemagne died in 814, leaving his vast empire to Lewis, then aged 36. The new emperor had been educated by the church and was a cowardly, weak ruler, whose sole desire seemed to be to serve the papacy. In French history he is known as "Louis le Debonnaire," and among the Germans he is styled "Ludwig the Pious." He relaxed the strict regulations devised by his father for the levying of troops, and in other ways neglected to exercise his rights over his vassals; and this to the extent that with them imperial authority began to sink into contempt. In order to remedy this, on the counsel of his priestly advisers he associated with himself in the government his three sons and partitioned the realm among them. Lothair, the eldest, was made joint emperor with his father. Lewis took Bavaria and Bohemia, and Pippin was intrusted with Aquitaine, Lewis and Pippin ruling in their domains as subordinate kings to their elder brother and their father. Bernard, to whom Charlemagne had given Italy, was ignored, and threatened to rebel. He soon submitted, but he and three of his nearest friends were condemned to lose their eyes. He died soon afterward. The emperor's wife dying, he married Judith, daughter of the Bavarian Count Welf. Of this union was born a son, who is known to history as "Charles the Bald." The emperor proposed to make a new division for the benefit of the infant, whereupon Lothair and Pippin rebelled. Lewis, or his strife with his Bavaria and Bohemia at first joined his brothers, but subsequently led his forces to the assistance of his father and secured the victory for him. The emperor divided the empire in 833, giving Aquitaine, which had been taken from the rebellious Pippin, to Charles the Bald; the Pope, in the interest of Lothair, induced the military commanders to abandon the emperor, who submitted and consented to read in church a "confession of his sins," which was, in effect, an abdication of the throne. Indignant at the humiliating treatment of their father, the younger sons restored him to his imperial dignity. A further effort by the emperor to extend the territory of Charles the Bald at the expense of his son Lewis brought on another war, in the course of which the old monarch died on an island in the Rhine, A.D. 840. On his death-bed he was asked to forgive his son Lewis, and replied: "I do forgive him, but let him know that he has brought me to my death." History presents few spectacles so pitiable as the strife between this father and these sons.

Lothair. Lothair succeeded to the title of emperor. In an effort to make himself sole master of the empire, in which he was aided by the clergy, he was opposed by Lewis the German and Charles the Bald, who demanded a partition. Lewis and Charles were supported by the Bavarians, Saxons and Swabians, and also by the northeastern Franks, who united to throw off the clerical domination which had been established over the empire. The struggle eventuated in a battle at Fontenay in 841, in which Lothair was totally defeated. He protracted the war for a time by stirring up the Saxon subjects of Lewis against that prince, and he also endeavored to enlist in his cause the piratical Northmen, who had already begun to scourge the coasts of the empire. Driven to extremities, he at last gave up the contest, and in 843 signed the Treaty of Verdun, by which he retained the title of emperor, with an empire composed of Italy, Friesland, and a strip of land extending from the Mediterranean to the North Sea, along the rivers Rhone, Saone, Rhine and Maas. This peculiarly carved domain was called Lotharingia (Lorraine), and was so formed to give him the two capitals of Charlemagne, Aix and Rome. To Charles the Bald fell the Western Kingdom, with boundaries almost coincident with those of modern France; and to Lewis was given Germany, with the districts on the left bank of the Rhine, which had belonged to the Archbishopric of Mainz. The Treaty of Verdun is generally assigned as the foundation of the German and French kingdoms. The empire of Charlemagne was in fragments. Nor was the political division the only line drawn between the three kingdoms. Languages and customs alien to the purely German were coming into life. In France, Latin continued to be the language of learning and the church, but among the people was spoken a patois composed of a mixture of Latin and German, which afterward became French. In Italy a similar change was taking place by a union of corrupted Latin with foreign elements. In Spain the Visigoths had long since abandoned the German language for a Neo-Latin tongue, a branch of which became the language of Portugal. In Germany there was a division into the High and the Low German. The gulf between the languages of the different parts of the empire was already so wide that, when the brothers and their vassals met at Strasburg in 846 to renew the oaths of friendship exchanged at Verdun, the Knights of Austrasia and those of Neustria could not understand one another. The oath taken at that time by the Neustrians has been preserved, and is the only existing record of the new-born French language.

Lothair died in 855. He was succeeded by his son Lewis II, who, dying without heirs, was followed on the throne by another son of Lothair, called Lothair II. On his death in 869, his domain was divided between Lewis the German and Charles the Bald. In this division Lewis received the dioceses of Utrecht, Strasburg and Basle, and the ecclesiastical provinces of Treves and Cologne.

Lewis ruled in Germany until 876, his reign being disturbed by family dissensions similar to those which had disrupted the empire of Charlemagne. The bold incursions of the Northmen and the increasing strength and aggressiveness of the Slav kingdom, which had been established in Moravia, caused the emperor much anxiety. Charles the Bald, having obtained the title of emperor, attempted to extend his authority over Germany and Italy, but was defeated at the battle of Andernach by Lewis' second son, also named Lewis, and his schemes were thwarted. Lewis the German died in 876, and his two eldest sons dying—Carloman in 880 and Lewis in 882—the kingdom passed to his youngest son Charles, known in history as Charles the Fat.

Charles the Bald died in 877, leaving a ruined kingdom to his son Lewis the Stammerer, who, after a troubled reign of two years, was succeeded by his sons

Louis II and Carloman. These princes lived but a short time, and the West Frank kingdom fell into the hands of Charles the Simple, then but five years of age. Refusing to accept the child, the French nobles elected as their king Charles the Fat, who made himself master of Italy also. He was crowned as Emperor by the Pope, and for a short time the empire of Charlemagne was renewed. In Italy the power of the popes was increasing and they were claiming secular as well as spiritual supremacy. Their pretensions were founded on what were called the "Decretals of Isidore," which were clumsily forged documents purporting to be decrees of ancient councils of the Church declaring that the Bishop of Rome was superior to the other bishops and that the spiritual power was entirely independent of temporal authority. In 879, Bozo of Vienne, a Frank noble, who had married a grand-daughter of the Emperor Lothair, set up the kingdom of Burgundy, and was supported by Pope John VIII.

Charles the Fat was too weak in character to maintain himself against the evils which threatened his empire. Swatopluk, king of a Slavonic kingdom in Moravia, made inroads upon the eastern borders of the empire. The Saracens, crossing the Mediterranean from Africa, took possession of Southern Italy and Sicily, and the Northmen of Scandinavia ravaged the western shores of the empire, making their way up the rivers and plundering cities which lay far inland. The predatory incursions, but there was danger that the comparative immunity with which they were made would encourage the pirates to attempt permanent conquests of the lands which they harried; and this, indeed, occurred. In the reign of Lewis the Pious they had burned Hamburg and afterwards sacked Aix (Aachen), stabling their horses in the cathedral erected by Charlemagne. Cologne, Nimeguen, Treves and other cities were burned. They took Rouen and besieged Paris, where they were bought off. From Charles the Simple they received a cession of land which afterward became the dukedom of Normandy. In Sicily and Southern Italy, as early as 1016, they founded a kingdom, and one branch of them under Rurik, established in Russia the monarchy which was the beginning of the present Russian Empire. Instead of fighting for the honor and integrity of his domain, the distressed and vacillating emperor bought temporary peace from the pirates by the payment of a heavy tribute; and when their demands increased he gave them lands for permanent settlement. In the interior of the empire law had fallen into contempt and there was scarcely any rule but that of might. The people, oppressed by the nobles, either joined the forces of their tyrants, or formed themselves into bands of robbers.

The German nobles, disgusted with the weakness of their emperor, deposed him in 887, and placed upon the throne Arnulf of Carinthia, a natural son of Carloman and grand-son of Lewis the German. At the same time the French nobles called to the throne of the Western kingdom Count Eudes (Odo) of Paris, the son of a valorous German knight who had married a daughter of Lewis the Pious. Charles the Fat survived the last indignity of dethronement but a few months, dying January 12th, 888. His followers, many of whom existed in Southern Germany, invited Duke Conrad, a nephew of Judith, the wife of Lewis the Pious, to be their king. He accepted the invitation, and set up a new kingdom of Burgundy between the Alps, the Jura and the Rhine. This kingdom, which was afterwards called Upper Burgundy, became the present Switzerland. Charles the Simple was crowned at Rheims in 893 in opposition to Eudes. After a short war between the rivals peace was made, Charles receiving a part of Flanders with a pledge that the whole kingdom should pass to him on the death of Eudes. That event occurred in 898, and Charles be-



came king of France in the same year. Under him and his weak successors the kingdom remained until 987, when the death of the last Carolingian ruler in France, Louis the "Lazy," left the throne vacant, and Hugh Capet, Count of Paris, was elected king.

Unlike the Carolingian kings, Arnulf had no intention of submitting to the ravages of the Northmen, or the aggressiveness of the Moravian state. On foot, at the head of his army, he utterly defeated the pirates at Lowen; then, turning to the Moravians, with the assistance of the Magyars he conquered a peace. On the invitation of the Pope he went to Italy, and in 896 was crowned emperor, but family troubles and sickness—said by some to have been caused by poisoning—brought him to his death in 899.

Arnulf's successor on the throne was "Lewis the Child," then nine years of age. The government of this prince was conducted by Hatto, Bishop of Mainz, the unsavory hero of the rat story in legend and poesy. In the reign of Lewis the Child, German civilization was threatened with extinction by an invasion of the Magyars. These were Tartar nomads of the same race as the Huns, and like the terrible warriors of Attila, they were bent on the subjugation of the continent. In the disorganized state of the empire, combined opposition to their assaults seemed to be impossible. The dukes of Germany, each at the head of his vassals, fought heroically with the invaders, but only to sustain defeat. Surging continually to the west, the barbarians reached Saxony and Lorraine, appearing to have universal dominion almost within their grasp. The king himself was forced to pay them tribute. In 911, in the midst of this misery and disaster, Lewis the Child, the last of the Carolingian kings in Germany, passed to the tomb.

Assailed from within and without, Germany was apparently at the point of disruption, but the national danger appealed to the fears and the patriotism of the great noblemen and measures were at last taken to avert the threatened calamity. Both Franks and Saxons insisted on the election of a king, and in an assembly held at Forchheim, Conrad of Franconia, related to the House of Charlemagne through a female branch, was elevated to the throne. Taking advantage of the confusion in Germany, Charles the Simple had annexed Lorraine to France and held it through the reign of Conrad I. The latter, however, secured Alsace. The new monarch of Germany had only a limited authority, for the power of the dukes was nearly as potent as his own. Personally Conrad was mild and gentle, but in the beginning of his reign he ruled with vigor and harshness, having before his eyes the restoration of the power of the kingdom. He became involved in a quarrel with the Dukes of Bavaria and Swabia and overcame them. The Duke of Bavaria fled to the Magyars, who had penetrated as far to the northwest as Bremen and were overrunning large districts of the country in the south. Conrad marched against them, but was wounded and defeated. He also quarreled with the Saxon Henry, to whose father he was indebted for his election as king. Henry, who subsequently received the title of "The Fowler," had succeeded his father in the dukedom of Saxony, but Conrad refused to confirm to him his feudal possessions. The young Duke of Saxony made war on Conrad and fought him down to a disastrous defeat at Merseburg. Notwithstanding his errors and failures Conrad was true to his country. With all his plans dissolving, conscious that he had miserably failed in nearly all his undertakings, yet, with a patriotism seldom seen in like circumstances, on his deathbed he directed that his crown be delivered to his enemy, Henry of Saxony, as the only German prince who could save the state from its peril. Conrad's principal fault seems to have been a surrender to the counsels of his priestly advisers, who, being extremely jealous of the secular power of the dukes, persuaded him to employ his authority for their humiliation. Conrad died in

918, and in accordance with his wish Henry of Saxony was elected his successor.

Henry's accession to the throne was a fortunate event for the autonomy of the German kingdom. He was an able sovereign. At his coronation he declined anointment by the papal representative, the Archbishop of Mainz, basing his declination on the ground of his own unworthiness, but the truth probably was that he was determined to divorce the physical power of the empire from the dominion of Rome, which, in Germany, had become both spiritual and secular. This purpose seems clearer in the light of his reservation to himself of the right to designate the German bishops. In order to secure harmony in the kingdom, he conciliated the dukes of Bavaria and Swabia. He had a personal conference at Ratisbon with the Bavarian duke, and restored to him the possessions which had been forfeited by Conrad. In the seventh year of Henry's reign, Lorraine was incorporated into the German Kingdom. Fortunately for the country, in the first years of the work of consolidation the Hungarians (Magyars) had suspended their attacks, but after a short respite they came against it with renewed fury. In 924 they drove Henry to take refuge behind the Ocker morasses, but one of their princes was left a captive in German hands. In exchange for the freedom of this prisoner the Hungarians agreed to an armistice of nine years, during which period Henry continued to pay them tribute. While the armistice lasted, although the barbarians renewed their incursions into Swabia, Bavaria and Franconia, they kept the terms of their agreement as to Saxony and Thuringia. These nine years of comparative peace were improved by Henry in strengthening his army and building up the defenses of the kingdom. On the eastern borders of Saxony and Thuringia he established fortresses and garrisoned them by drafting every ninth man of the population for that purpose. The other eight of each group of nine cultivated the fields and deposited one-third of the crops in the fortresses. He also required all the markets and public festivals to be held in the cities, in order to accustom the people to a social life, which was impossible among their scattered hamlets. To meet the horsemen, of whom the Hungarian armies were composed, he formed a large body of cavalry, and is said to have instituted tournaments for the purpose of perfecting them in cavalry exercises. Having raised his army to a high state of efficiency, he led them to actual service in expeditions against the Wends, east of the Saale and the Elbe, and other Slavonic tribes. In 928 he conquered the Havelli, and moving over the frozen lakes by which their city of Brennabor (Brandenburg) was surrounded, captured it, and reduced them to subjection. In Bohemia he overthrew Wratislav,—who had apostatized from Christianity and formed an alliance with the Hungarians,—and installed Wenceslaus as Duke of that province. At Lenzen, in 929, his generals defeated several revolting Slavonic tribes, thereby securing the northeastern frontiers of Germany. In a council which he held with his Saxon nobles, it was determined that the time had come to throw off the Hungarian yoke, and when, in 932, the agents of that power appeared at Henry's court to receive the annual tribute, they were given only a mangy dog and a message of defiance. The Hungarians in great force at once invaded the kingdom, sweeping with flame and carnage over Thuringia, and advancing into Saxony. Henry, who was receiving large reinforcements, avoided battle with the enemy until a lack of provisions compelled them to divide into two armies, one of which remained in Thuringia, and the other moved to the north. The Germans immediately fell upon the Hungarian force in Thuringia and destroyed it. The other division, marching to avenge the defeat of their fellows, was overthrown and dispersed. In the following year, 933, the Hungarians returned in immense force, but in a desperate battle fought near Merseburg they were almost annihilated. From this time on for a number of years the Hungarian invasions

were mere raids for the purpose of plunder and destruction. Henry restored the ancient frontiers on the north, which had been violated by the Danes, and added Schleswig to his kingdom. This province, which, with Holstein, afterward furnished one of the complicated questions in German affairs, remained a part of Germany until the year 1032, when it was ceded by Conrad II to the Anglo-Danish king, Canute. Christianity was preached to the Danes under Henry's protection, and many converts were made. In addition to his skill in war, Henry the Fowler possessed qualities which stamp him as a great ruler. In the midst of the strife which marked his reign he was engaged with plans for the welfare of his people, encouraging husbandry and the arts, and also the commerce of the nation. A stroke of apoplexy warning him that his death was near, he summoned his nobles and exacted from them a pledge that his son Otto should be his successor. Dying in 936, he was deeply lamented by all Germany.

Otto I., the new king, called "Otto the Great," was crowned in the cathedral at Aachen by the Archbishop of Mainz, and the dukes of Germany did him homage. Taking Charlemagne for his model, he attempted to depose the dukes from the position accorded them by his father—that of almost independent princes—and to make them his dependent vassals, as in the early days of feudalism. To this curtailment of their power they were decidedly averse. Another cause of trouble was his interference in Italian affairs and a re-assumption of German influence in the peninsula. Expeditions into Italy were disliked by both nobles and people, for with rare exceptions attempted control of the Italian kingdom by German rulers was ever a source of kingly misery and national misfortune.

Otto's first duty led him to the frontiers, which were being overrun on one side by the Wends, and on another by the Bohemians. Against the former he was successful, but the latter secured their liberty and maintained it for twelve years. During this time Otto was occupied in the reduction of his refractory nobles to a condition of dependence on the throne and submission to the will of the king. A rebellion in Bavaria led to the deposition of the Duke Eberhard. A conspiracy organized in North Germany was headed by Thankmar of Saxony, Otto's half-brother, who, in conjunction with the Duke of Franconia, devastated Westphalia and captured Otto's brother Henry. The rebellion was overthrown by the capture of Eresburg. Thankmar being killed beside the altar in the church. The Duke of Franconia was forgiven on the intercession of his prisoner, the king's brother, Henry. This same Henry thought he should be the sovereign instead of Otto, because he had been born after their father became king, while Otto was born when Henry the Fowler was only a duke. In an insurrection in Lorraine, Otto defeated their forces at Birthen, west of the Rhine. Henry organized a second conspiracy, in which he was joined by the Archbishop of Mainz, but their designs came to naught. The list of Henry's conspiracies ended with a third, in which he was worsted by the king, whose pardon the permanently penitent prince sought and obtained. The power of the great secular vassals now lay at the feet of the king.

Otto married his son Ludolf to a daughter of the Duke of Swabia, a union by which the government of that province soon passed into Ludolf's hands. Lorraine was made over to Conrad, a Frank noble who had assisted the king, and Bavaria was given to Henry of the three conspiracies. Each of these rulers held as vassals of the king in the old sense. Otto governed the Franks, Saxons and Thuringians in person. Christianity and German manners were imposed on the Wends, and among them bishoprics were established at Oldenburg, Havelberg, Brandenburg, Merseburg, Meissen and Zietz. The See of Posen was also set up among the Poles. Harold Bluetooth, the Dane, was

driven to the northern extremity of Jutland; Henry of Bavaria pushed his conquests to the eastward as far as the Theiss, and to the southwest into Istria and Friaul. Lewis IV, of France, Otto's brother-in-law, becoming involved in difficulties with his nobles, sought the aid of the German king, who marched with an army to Paris, where he helped the French sovereign temporarily out of his troubles. Otto also interfered in the affairs of Italy, and was the means of re-introducing the Italian element into the German polity—a course which was productive of great evils. The Lombard king, Berengarius, wished to marry his son to Adelheid, or Adelaide, widow of Lothair, the last Carolingian king of Italy. When she refused he imprisoned her in a castle, from which she was rescued by a monk named Martin. She appealed to Otto, who, in 951, marched an army to Canossa, where Berengarius was besieging her, and overthrew the Lombard potentate. The German king married Adelheid, and obtained with her the old Carolingian claim to the crown of Italy, which he assumed. Ludolf became apprehensive that the birth of a son to Otto by this marriage would interfere with his own accession to the German throne, and conspired against his father with the Archbishop of Mainz and Conrad of Lorraine. In the war which resulted from the conspiracy, the king outlawed and deposed the two dukes. The rebellion was crushed at length, and Lorraine was divided into two provinces called Upper and Lower Lorraine, which were governed by the king's brother, Bishop Brun, of Cologne. While these dissensions were in progress the Magyars invaded Germany with a large army, bent on the permanent conquest of the country. In a fiercely fought battle on the Lech, near Augsburg, in 955, Otto so completely defeated the enemy that the river, it is said, ran red with the blood of sixty thousand men, and the half-dozen Magyars who escaped returned to their country with slit noses and ears. Among the dead on the German side were Conrad, formerly of Lorraine, and many of the noblest knights of the kingdom. This was the end of the Hungarian invasions. The king's brother, Henry of Bavaria, died soon afterward, and his death was followed by that of Ludolf, the king's son.

After the close of the Hungarian war, Otto was invited by Pope John XII to Italy, where he went and rescued the Head of the Church from the assaults of the Lombard king Berengarius. In return for this service the Pope conferred upon Otto the imperial crown of the Cæsars and the German king was hailed as the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire. From this time the German emperors claimed the imperial crown and with it supreme secular authority in the Christian Catholic world. It is true this dignity brought with it innumerable miseries and in the end caused the dismemberment of the empire, but it was not without attendant benefits. The intimate and long-continued intercourse which then began between the rude Germans and their polished southern neighbors led to the introduction among the former people of all that Italy possessed in the fine arts, in science, in trade and in government. One of the principal evils was the calling away of the emperors from the affairs of their own land to attend those of Italy; but while the autonomy of the empire was from this cause destroyed, the connection with Italy was not an unmixed curse, for the German people were not exterminated, their intellectual horizon was enlarged, and they exist today a potent factor in the affairs of Europe.

In consequence of troubles in the Roman kingdom, Otto went there several times to direct matters with the hand of the master. He called a council which tried and deposed Pope John XII, in whose chair Otto seated Leo VIII, and compelled the Romans to take an oath that no pope should be ordained without the emperor's ratification. On the last of his visits to Rome in 966 his son Otto, then six years of age, was crowned as emperor by the Pope. In 972 Otto established a sort of alliance with the Greek empire by the

Magyar wars.

Last Carolingian king in Germany.

Saxon emperors

Henry the "Fowler."

Schleswig.

Otto I.

Armistice

with the Hungarians.

War measures.

Ludolf's conspiracy.

Lorraine.

Magyar invasion.



marriage of his son to Theophano, daughter, of the Byzantine emperor. This union seems to have been productive of but little more than the importation of the corruption of the Greek court into the German empire.

Otto II. Otto II, eighteen years of age when he ascended the throne in 973, on the death of his father, was much under the influence of his empress and that of his mother, Adelheid. He had an ambition which over- vaulted that of his father and grandfather, but he lacked their genius and determination. The first thorn in his crown was the rebellion of his cousin Henry of Bavaria, called the "Contentious." Henry made an alliance with the eastern Slavs, the Bohemians and the Poles, but was defeated by the Emperor, who gave Bavaria to Otto of Swabia, son of the dead Ludolf, and granted to Luitpold of the family of Babenbergs the East Mark, which afterward became the foundation of Austria. Continuing his career of rebellion, Henry was captured and placed in confinement at Utrecht. The Emperor in 974 made a campaign against the Danes. At Aachen in 976 he and his empress narrowly escaped capture by Lothair II, of France, who was making a stealthy attempt to possess himself of Lorraine. After his escape Otto sent word to Lothair that he would reply to his secret attack by open war, and invaded France in 978. His army was unable to take Paris, but he gave the treacherous French monarch a lesson which was not soon forgotten. Two years later the German emperor and the French king entered into a treaty of peace by which Lothair in behalf of France renounced all claims to Lorraine. In the meantime Italy was a horrible nightmare of family feuds and assassinations. Otto turned to this land of horrors with the hope of subjecting the whole peninsula to his rule. After a short stay in Rome he passed into southern Italy, where, in 981, he met and easily defeated the forces of the Greek emperor who occupied the country. In the following year he fought a battle at Cotrone in Calabria with the Saracen allies of the Greek empire and was disastrously defeated. Improving their opportunity, the Slavs of eastern Germany, in league with the Danes, rose in revolt, having for their object not only the destruction of the empire but the abolition of the Christian religion. The Danes were reduced, but the Slavs maintained themselves against the German power. An army was collected in Germany and sent to Italy to aid the emperor. Stricken with the sickness which caused his death, Otto summoned his nobles to him at Verona, where they chose as emperor his son, who is known as Otto III. He then attempted to lead his army into southern Italy, but died at Rome and was buried there in 983—the only emperor of the Holy Roman Empire who received sepulture in the Imperial City.

War with France

France renounces Lorraine.

The emperor in Italy.

Death of Otto II.

When the news of the sovereign's death reached Germany, the princes of the empire had just crowned the infant Otto III at Aachen. As the result of a dispute among the relatives of the emperor in regard to the possession and control of the royal child, he was at first placed in the hands of Henry the Contentious, who had previously been released from his confinement at Utrecht. Afterward, on the suspicion that Henry was aiming at the Imperial dignity, the child was surrendered to his own mother, Theophano, Henry receiving his old dukedom of Bavaria. As regent Theophano showed considerable ability in the art of government, but the great nobles were asserting their independence of the crown, and many of the provinces returned to the ancient custom of electing their own dukes. Theophano died in 991, whereupon the dukes of Bavaria, Saxony, Swabia, Tuscany, and Meissen, constituting the body of the great princes of the empire, took upon themselves the conduct of the government, with the young emperor's grandmother, Adelheid, as regent. Otto III was carefully educated by his mother and grandmother and the learned Gerbert of Rheims—whom Otto afterward made Pope with the title of Sylvester III—but the education of the youth was

mainly in the foreign culture of Constantinople and Rome. He was a dreamer who constructed in his imagination a universal empire with his capital at Rome and himself ruler of the world. He did but little more than dream, and while indulging in these phantasms of universal rule he lost a great part of his actual domain. In 995, when fifteen years of age, he was declared to have attained his majority and the control of the empire was placed in his hands. After going to Rome, where he seated his cousin Bruno on the papal throne as Gregory V and receiving from that pontiff the crown of the Cæsars, he returned to Germany. His first act in the field was a movement against the revolted Wends, but he accomplished nothing save the establishment of the Polish kingdom under Boleslaus. Other nations which had acknowledged allegiance to his immediate predecessors on the throne were also acquiring their independence. Hungary embraced Christianity, and under St. Stephen began the formation of an independent kingdom. Denmark, which had also adopted the Christian faith, was moving in the same direction.

Otto III died in 1002 without issue, nor was there left any direct descendant of Henry the Fowler, and the crown was claimed by three dukes—Henry of Bavaria, son of Henry the Contentious; Hermann of Swabia, and Eckart of Meissen. Eckart was assassinated, Hermann was already an old man, and the crown was decreed by the nobles to Henry of Bavaria, who reigned with the title of Henry II. The new monarch set about the task of consolidating the empire. He made war on Boleslaus, the chief of the Polish kingdom, and after three campaigns was successful in reaching a peace by which Bohemia remained a province of the empire, and Boleslaus received Meissen and became a vassal of the emperor. In Mecklenburg and Holstein he was not so fortunate, for these provinces were lost to the crown, and the inhabitants returned to heathenism. Henry made three campaigns in Italy against Arduin of Ivrea, who wished to make the whole peninsula independent of German authority. In Italy Henry was crowned king of the Romans and also king of the Lombards, having overcome Arduin, who died in a convent. At this time and afterward the German rulers were crowned four times: First, at Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), where they became kings of the Germans; second, at Pavia, where they took the title of kings of Italy; next at Monza, as kings of the Lombards, and finally at Rome, as emperors of the Holy Roman Empire. Henry waged wars in Flanders, Luxemburg and Burgundy. He had been named as the heir of Rudolph III of Burgundy, who was yet living, but old and childless. The heirship of the German emperor was opposed by the Burgundian nobles, and Henry went against them with his army. In two campaigns he conquered Burgundy, which included the greater part of what is now Switzerland and a portion of the valley of the Rhone. The country, however, was not then annexed to Germany, that event not occurring until the death of Rudolph. In the meantime the vassals of the empire in the heart of Germany were returning to their ancient independence. They declared their dignities hereditary, and the emperor was compelled to make them large concessions. In opposition to the growing power of the secular princes he fostered the spiritual authorities in the empire, and for a time the ecclesiastic strength was a counterpoise to that of the great secular feudatories. The wisdom of this course, however, was challenged by subsequent events.

When Henry II died, in 1024, the line of the Saxon emperors was extinct. In the same year the clerical Saxon and noble orders met at Oppenheim for the purpose of electing a successor to the dead emperor. After a long struggle, in which the choice lay between two Conrads of Franconia—descended from a daughter of Otto the Great—each of whom agreed that he would submit to the result of the election, the elder of the two, known

as Conrad the Salic, was declared king with the title of Conrad II. This sovereign began the Franconian line, as it is termed in history. In the first year of Conrad's reign the Polish kingdom, which had been extended far to the east by Boleslaus, began to fall to pieces. The Poles were driven out of Lusatia and Bohemia. Canute, the Danish king who ruled Norway, England and Denmark, was conciliated by a marriage between his daughter and Henry, the son of the German monarch. Schleswig, which Henry I had conquered, was ceded to Canute, and the northern boundary of the empire was fixed at the Eider, as in the time of Charlemagne. A threatened war in Burgundy, growing out of the refusal of Rudolph III to make good his promise to Henry II, was averted by the submission to Conrad of Rudolph's stepson, Ernest of Swabia, who, as the nearest relative of the Burgundian ruler, claimed the kingdom for himself. In 1027 Conrad was crowned at Rome by the Pope. Passing into southern Italy the emperor confirmed the Normans in the possessions which they had seized there and returned to Germany. Ernest of Swabia made a second effort for the possession of Burgundy, but he was overcome and slain. When Rudolph died, in 1032, Conrad formally annexed the kingdom of Burgundy to his dominion, but his sovereignty in the new territory was more nominal than real, because of the almost kingly power of the great Burgundian nobles. Conrad had a keen appreciation of the danger to his crown growing out of the strength of his principal vassals in Germany proper, and endeavored to neutralize it by cultivating the friendship of the minor nobility. One of his measures to this end was a decree making the fiefs of the tenants of the feudal lords hereditary and perpetual. By thus fostering the partial independence of the smaller feudatories he was enabled to hold somewhat in check the assumptions of the princes. Another step in this direction was the appointment of his son Henry to the dukedoms of Swabia and Bavaria, which confirmed, to that extent at least, the direct control of the sovereign. He also built up his power on the spiritual side of the realm by selecting his own relatives for high church offices. During his reign he had his son Henry crowned as his heir. After an expedition into Italy to put down a rising in Milan, in which attempt he failed, he came back to Germany and died in 1039. Conrad was a powerful sovereign, who governed with a strong hand; often harsh and cruel, and open to the charge of selling church offices for political service; ambitious and avaricious, but, on the whole, a ruler who conserved the national unity, and gave his people what may be termed a good government for the time in which he lived.

Burgundy annexed.

Political measures.

Character of Conrad II.

Henry III.

Henry III, when he succeeded his father, was twenty-three years of age. One of his first enterprises in war was undertaken against Bretislaus, Duke of Bohemia. This prince had received his title from Conrad II, as a reward for services rendered in driving the Poles out of Bohemia and Lusatia. He now desired to erect an independent kingdom, but Henry reduced him to submission. In Hungary the successor of Stephen had been driven from the throne by a rebellion, and asked the German monarch for assistance in regaining his kingdom. Henry restored him, but required of him a cession of land. The emperor also erected the Margraviate of Austria, which was given to Leopold of Babenberg. Subsequently Henry compelled Peter, the Hungarian monarch, to hold his domain as a fief of Germany. One of the acts of Henry III, which had for a time the effect of reducing the volume of lawlessness that prevailed in Germany, was his procurement in the Diet of Constance of a decree that the right of private vengeance, which had come down from the days of barbarism, should give way to the forms of law. He enforced this decree so vigorously that comparative internal peace was established. He strengthened himself in France by a marriage with Agnes, daughter of the Duke of Poitiers,

and was not without hope of re-uniting the French kingdom with the empire.

In Henry's reign the sanguinary genius of the age seemed to have a momentary surfeit of human slaughter. Violence ruled everywhere, and the papacy, which should have been the saving leaven of society, was itself wallowing in a mire of vice. In the Burgundian convent of Cluny, pious men, for an amelioration of the evils of the times, originated a movement which gave rise to the partial peace known as the "Truce of God." The church at last recognized the effort by an injunction, on penalty of excommunication, that from Wednesday evening of each week until the following Monday morning all fighting, both public and private, should cease. Henry was an ardent friend of this measure, which was to some extent concurred in by the people, thus mitigating the horrors of war and individual violence. Regarding himself as an instrument commissioned for the reformation of the church, Henry took an army into Italy, caused the passage at the Council of Sutri of a decree giving the emperor the right to nominate a successor to St. Peter and deposed the three rivals who claimed the papal chair. By virtue of the Sutri decree he placed four popes in succession at the head of the church, and was assisted by them in the work of reform. Revolts in Hungary, wars in Italy and Lorraine, and discontent and conspiracy in Germany clouded the last years of his reign. Close upon the news of a defeat sustained by his army in a battle with the Wends, came his death in 1056.

Deposition and appointments of Popes.

Henry IV, son of the dead emperor, was a child, and the empire was ruled in his name by his mother, the Empress Agnes. A conspiracy to deprive her of the conduct of affairs and to place it in the hands of the great nobles was successful in so far that the young prince was abducted by Hanno, Archbishop of Cologne. The empress retired and Hanno as regent succeeded her in the government. Suspicious of Hanno, Henry sought the friendship of Adelbert, Archbishop of Bremen, by whom he was crowned when sixteen years of age. By indiscreet measures the young ruler alienated the loyalty of the princes of the empire. Extravagant in his habits, he fell into want. He scandalized the Christian world and corrupted the morals of the people by confiscating church estates and openly selling ecclesiastical offices. He built fortresses in Saxony, which led the people to think he intended them for prisons. A general conspiracy, which ripened into open rebellion in Saxony, compelled him to fly from the palace in Goslar, which had been the residence of himself and his immediate predecessors. Taking refuge in Worms, which remained faithful to him, he was there prostrated by a sickness which threatened his life. On his recovery, finding the cities loyal, he cultivated their friendship and was soon in a position to restore his impaired authority. As his power increased he was joined by the Archbishop of Mainz and the dukes of Lorraine, Bohemia, Bavaria and Swabia. By a victory over the revolted Saxons and Thuringians at Langensalz he made himself master of all Germany. His sovereignty, however, was imperiled, and indeed for a time overthrown, by a conflict which sprang up between him and the stern, incorruptible Hildebrand, who had been elevated to the papal throne in 1073 as Gregory VII. This Pope determined to assert the supremacy of the Church over the Empire and to reform the flagrant abuses which existed among the clergy. From the nature of their office, the influence of the priests was very strong in the family. Organized, they would become a power the authority of whose head would be superior to that of the Emperor. In order to organize them, it was necessary that natural human feelings and passions should be suppressed and the whole priestly life and ambition devoted to the glory of the church. The first act of the pontiff to this end was a decree enforcing the rule of celibacy amongst the priests, which had

Henry IV

Regency of Hanno and Adelbert.

Rebellion in Saxony.

Conquest of Burgundy.

End of the Saxon dynasty.

The Franconian line.