

OUTLINE — DISCUSSION CLASS 6

POLITICS AND INSTITUTIONS IN 12TH AND 13TH CENTURIES

The Cast of Characters

<i>Popes</i>	<i>Emperors</i>
Alexander III, 1159–81	Frederick I, Barbarossa, 1152–90
Innocent III, 1198–1216	Henry VI, 1190–97
Gregory IX, 1227–41	Frederick II, 1215–50
Innocent IV, 1243–1254	Rudolf of Hapsburg, 1273–91
Boniface VIII, 1294–1303	Adolf of Nassau, 1292–98

<i>England</i>	<i>France</i>
Henry I, 1100–1135	
Henry II, 1154–1189	Louis VII, 1137–80
John, 1199–1216	Philip II, Augustus, 1180–1223
Henry III, 1216–1272	Louis IX, saint, 1226–70
Edward I, 1272–1307	Philip IV, the Fair, 1285–1314

<i>Iberian Peninsula</i>	<i>Naples and Sicily</i>
Alfons VI, Castile, 1065–1109	Roger II, 1130–1154
Raymond Berenger IV, Catalonia, 1131–62	
Peter II, Aragon, 1196–1213	Henry VI, see above
Ferdinand III, Castile, 1217–1252	Frederick II, 1197–1250
James I, Aragon, 1213–1276	Charles of Anjou, 1265–1285 (Naples)
Alfons X, the Wise, Castile, 1252–84	Peter of Aragon, 1282–85 (Sicily)

Empire and papacy

1. The Diet of Worms (settlement of the investiture controversy)—1122
2. The commune movement
 - a. Frederick Barbarossa crushes Roman commune—1155
 - b. Lombard League supports Alexander III, defeats Barbarossa—1176
3. Sicily and Naples
 - a. Constance of Sicily, daughter of the Norman king Roger II, marries Henry VI of Germany, their son was Frederick II
 - b. Frederick II deposed by Innocent IV at the council of Lyons in 1245
 - c. Charles of Anjou, the younger brother of Louis IX of France, conquers Sicily—1266
4. Richard of Cornwall of England and Alfons the Wise of Castille vie for the imperial crown, but the electors give it to Rudolf of Hapsburg
5. The electors depose Adolf of Nassau—1298
6. The effect of the collapse of the Hohenstaufen dynasty

England

1. Relatively unified as a result of the Conquest in 1066.
2. Henry I develops the most powerful centralized fiscal and judicial institutions in all of Europe.
3. The Norman kings were also dukes of Normandy. Henry II's marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine made him lord of an empire that included not only England but the western half of France as well. Control of such an empire demanded strong delegates in England to mind the store while Henry was away.
4. John lost Normandy in 1204 and with it much of the Angevin empire. The struggles that ensued with his own baronage and which led to Magna Carta in 1215 and the struggles of his son Henry III with the same baronage did not have to result in the development of parliament at the end of the 13th century but that institution is easier to understand if we keep those struggles in mind.

France

1. Where England began the 12th century strong, France began it weak. The French king was surrounded by powerful vassals, including the king of England, the count of Flanders, the duke of Burgundy, the count of Blois and Champagne, and the count of Toulouse.
2. The French king had effective power only in the royal domain, at the beginning of the 12th century only a relatively small region around Paris and Orléans.
3. Philip Augustus recovered for the French crown all of the northern domains of the English king, Normandy, Brittany, Maine, Anjou and Poitou, and developed central financial institutions within the royal domain. He parallels the role of Henry I of England, a half a century later.
4. The Albigensian crusade in the beginning of the thirteenth century ended by uniting the great province of Languedoc to the French crown, and eliminating the independence of the count of Toulouse and virtually eliminating the power of Aragon on the northern side of the Pyrenees.
5. Louis IX and Philip the Fair were able to consolidate these achievements, to develop institutions both judicial and financial that would ensure both royal order and royal control within this greatly expanded royal domain. By the end of Philip's reign, we have clear indications of an institution known as the parlement of Paris and the beginning of an institution called the estates general. These institutions divided between them what was done in England in one parliament.

Castile and Aragon

1. In the 11th century the Christians in the northern fringe of the peninsula were organized into small kingdoms: Leon, Castile, Navarre, Aragon, and the county of Barcelona.
2. By the beginning of the 12th century Alfons VI of Castile succeeded in uniting the crowns of Leon and Castile and recovering the center of Spain, as far south as Toledo.
3. In the mid-12th century, Portugal became a separate kingdom.
4. In 1137, Raymond Berenguer IV, count of Barcelona, united Catalonia with Aragon by marrying the heiress to the Aragonese crown. Peter II of Aragon sided with the Albigensians and lost most of the control that Aragon had in southern France. His son, however, James I, conquered the Balearic Islands; later he reconquered Valencia from the Moors. He established his son Peter on the throne of Sicily (the island only) and Sicily became divided from the kingdom of Naples, a situation that was to last into the 15th century.

5. In the meantime, James's contemporary Ferdinand III of Castile recovered most the center of what is now Spain for Castile. By 1250 all remained in Moorish hands was a small area around Granada.

It was to remain in Moorish hands until 1492, 18 yrs after the the crowns of Castile and Aragon were united under Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile. Alfons X of Castile had the job of consolidation and establishing institutions. He was only partially successful. Alfons never succeeded completely in bringing the nobility under his control. Leon, though it was united with Castile, had its separate cortes, an institution that roughly corresponds to the English parliament. Similarly, though the kingdom of Aragon, the county of Barcelona (now increasingly called Catalonia) and the principality of Valencia were all united under one crown, each had its own cortes. The nobility was strong in Aragon and Valencia, the cities in Catalonia. Navarre was not united with the rest of Spain until the 16th century.

Regnum and Sacerdotium, mid-12th through 13th Centuries

Empire and Papacy—Alexander III to Boniface VIII:

1159–1181—Pope Alexander III (controversy with Frederick I (Barbarosa) (emperor, 1152–1190; controversy with Henry II of England (1154–1189) leading to the martyrdom of Thomas Becket (archbishop of Canterbury, 1162–1170); Third Lateran Council (1179); development of the institution of papal judges delegate; large number of decretal letters)

1198–1216—Pope Innocent III (high point of temporal power of the papacy; England becomes a papal fief (1213); Fourth Lateran Council (1215))

1227–1241—Pope Gregory IX (relaxes pressure on Frederick II (emperor, 1211–1250); *Decretals* published (1234))

1243–1254—Pope Innocent IV (deposes Frederick II at Council of Lyons (1245); with Frederick's death in 1250 northern Italian Guelfs and Angevins (followers of Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX of France (1226–1270), and king of Naples and Sicily, 1268–1282) drive imperial power from Italy)

1294–1303—Pope Boniface VIII (struggle with Philip the Fair of France (1285–1314) ends with the pope's death; the papacy now becomes subject to the power of France)

Popes, Emperors and Kings:

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The View from England

1066 X 1087 — Ordinance of Conqueror separating secular from ecclesiastical courts

1097–1107 — Investiture Controversy, Anselm of Bec and Henry I

1064–1072 — The Becket Controversy

1064 — The Constitutions of Clarendon

December 29, 1170 — Martyrdom of Becket

1172 — Compromise of Avranches

The Growth of Institutions: Representative Institutions and Courts

1. Diet of Roncaglia, 1158, Frederick Barbarossa:
 - a. counsel
 - b. oath-taking
 - c. judgment
 - d. urban element
 - e. the four doctors
 - f. the urban judges
2. By the end of the thirteenth century if not before these elements have been reinforced, at least in some areas, by some theory:
 - a. the idea of corporation (*universitas*)
 - b. the idea of power to bind (*plena potestas*)
 - c. the idea of consent (*quod omnes tangit debet ab omnibus approbari*)
 - d. the idea of *status*—state in both senses of the English word and ‘estate’
3. As the 12th and 13th centuries see a proliferation of institutions, developing out of older ideas of counsel, oath-taking and judgment, out of the growth of administration, out of the growth of corporate life, out of the church, it should not surprise us that things that look more like what we would call courts appear as spinoffs in different places.
 - a. the king or the pope or the emperor is the greatest judge of all
 - b. to give judgment in the central assembly was the most solemn kind of judgment one could give
 - c. judges associated with the growth of administration
 - d. by the middle of the 13th century almost every bishop in the West had his own court
 - e. we are least well informed about justice at the lowest levels, particularly in rural areas

Why did Bologna happen?

How would you evaluate the following propositions as “explanations” of the extraordinary revival of legal studies in the twelfth century (you may take the “facts,” some of which are controversial, as true)?

1. *The conflict between regnum and sacerdotium*. As we have seen, just because the investiture controversy was settled at the beginning of the 12th century that doesn’t mean that the tensions that underlay it disappeared nor does it mean that reformist zeal ceased. The 12th century, after all, was the century of the conflict between Becket and Henry II of England, Alexander III and Frederick Barbarossa. It was also the century that saw by its end the development of a new discipline for which they still did not have a name but which we call moral theology.

2. *Economics*. The twelfth century saw an extraordinary revival of economic activity. Numbers are hard to come by, but some economic historians estimate that the percentage growth of gross domestic product in western Europe in the twelfth century was greater than in the sixteenth century, perhaps even than in the nineteenth century (the other two leading candidates for the centuries of greatest economic growth before the twentieth).

3. *Contact with the East*. The first Crusade was conducted between 1196 and 1199. Whatever its true motivations, it resulted in a Latin Kingdom in Palestine that lasted, at least in part, for almost two hundred years and brought renewed contact between the Christian West and the Christian, Muslim, and Jewish East. Importation of ideas of Roman law, particularly from Byzantium, may have stimulated interest in such law in the West

4. *The revival of culture*. In France, there is an extraordinary flowering of sculpture and architecture in the great Romanesque churches of central France and the very beginnings of Gothic in the north. There is a notable revival of secular literature. In the south of France the Troubadour poets develop a love lyric the likes of which had not been seen in the West certainly since the Romans and perhaps never before. It is the century of Abelard and Heloise, of Henry II of England and Eleanor of Aquitaine, of a transnational Latin culture. It is perhaps the last century in which a man named John could be born in Salisbury in England, write the first original treatise of political thought since the Romans in a Latin as good as Cicero's, and end his life as bishop of Chartres.

5. *The revival of other kinds of disciplines*. The twelfth is a century of the study of the Bible and of what today we would call theology and philosophy in the monastic and cathedral schools, particularly in France. Abelard (d. 1148) is a major figure in this tradition, but his work probably comes too late to have influenced the beginnings of university study of Roman and canon law. The glossators of the Bible, however, certainly are early enough.

6. *Increase in judicial activity, particularly in Italy*. We know that in the eleventh century and probably before there was a law school at Pavia where Lombard law (a Romanic-Germanic mix) was studied. A recent book (by Charles Radding) has pointed out that the Pavese jurists served as judges, and Radding tries to argue that they were beginning what we might call legal method. There probably isn't enough material that certainly antedates the revival at Bologna to make that statement with any confidence, though practical concerns at a lower level than the high politics of the reform movement are almost certainly important in the development of the method and of Bologna. All of the first Bolognese civilians are known to have acted as judges. An even more recent book (by Anders Winroth) argues that Irnerius was largely mythical and that the real study of Roman law doesn't get going at Bologna until the 1230's, by which time Gratian had already composed the first draft of his *Concordance of Discordant Canons*

7. *The growth of canonic institutions*. That the growth happened is clear enough from what we have said in lecture. The problem is is this the chicken or the egg?

8. *Violence*. Despite all of these developments, which frequently go under the name of the "twelfth-century Renaissance" the twelfth century, particularly its first half was a very violent time. Castellans all over Europe beat up the peasants and spent a great deal of time fighting each other. The second half of the twelfth century, it has recently been argued (Thomas Bisson) sees the emergence of more centralized authority, itself pretty violent, but powerful enough to tame the castellans, at least in many areas. The more centralized authority (it wasn't always kings) used accounting and then law (indeed the two were inextricably intertwined) to exercise their power when they were not doing it with force of arms.