THE SECOND STAGE OF THE CHURCH-STATE (INVESTITURE) CONTROVERSY,
THE RISE OF THE ANTI-CHURCHLY SECTS AND THE INQUISITION

Scripture: 2 Timothy 3:1-9
Prayer
Hymn: 351 "Beneath the Cross of Jesus"

The Concordat of Worms of 1122 offered what appeared to be a satisfactory solution to the Investiture Controversy and brought a brief truce in the struggle between pope and emperor. The second stage of the church-state struggle was a renewal of conflict between the German emperors and the pope of Rome. It was an open struggle for supremacy in which the principal characters were the Emperor Frederick I Barbarossa and Pope Alexander III. This was the age of the Hohenstaufen emperors and the last stage of feudal decentralization in Germany. It led to the collapse of German power in Italy. Frederick I Barbarossa, inspired by the revival of interest in Roman Law (The Code of Justinian) claimed for his empire the same sacred origin and mission that the Roman Church had claimed in the first stage of the controversy. The issues were of vaster import and the antagonists were mightier than Henry IV and Gregory VII--both sides laid claim to and openly battled for control of the whole world. The emperor, who was first of all king of Germany, faced strong rivals in his home land of Germany. The feudal nobles led by the powerful Welf family received backing from the pope. The Hohenstaufen party championed a strong centralized monarchy and powerful empire and received the name "Waibling" from the home village of the Hohenstaufens. The names were transplanted to Italy where the Welfs were the anti-imperial papal party that opposed the Hohenstaufens. In England the Guelfs were the papal anti-imperial party and the Ghibellines were the imperial party.

The emperors, Lothair and Conrad III, were overshadowed by the Cistercian monk, Bernard of Clarivaux. Lothair was a loyal son of the church and first of the German kings to ask for papal approval of his election. Norbert, Archbishop of Magdeburg and founder of the Premonstratensians, was his adviser. At Lothair's death the princes asserted their right to elect the king and chose, Conrad III, Duke of Swabia, the first of the Hohenstaufen kings. Throughout his reign he had to struggle against such nobles as Henry the Proud of Saxony, his son, Henry the Lion, Albert the Bear of Bavaria, and Leopold of Austria. At the death of Conrad III the feudal nobles recognized the necessity of choosing a king who could end the internal strife and restore the prestige of the empire. The chose Federick, Duke of Swabia, a nephew of Conrad, and on his mother's side, a cousin of Henry the Lion. His red beard earned him the name "Rotbart" or "Barbarossa."

By diplomacy and power Frederick established firm control of Germany. He further increased his holdings and power by marrying Beatrix, heiress of Burgundy. Frederick insisted on restoring the rights guaranteed to the emperor in the Concordat of Worms. He removed bishops sympathetic with Rome and replaced them with old hard-headed German politician bishops who were zealous supporters of the emperor. Rainald of Dassel, Archbishop of Cologne, was the leader of Frederick's clergy--a man already ready for a fight. Frederick's prestige and power was enormous. French minstrels and German minnesingers praised him as the new Arthur, the new Caesar, the new
Alexander, the new Charlemagne. At Mainz in 1184 Frederick held a great celebration attended by tens of thousands to witness the knighting of his two eldest sons.

Frederick betrothed his nineteen-year-old son, Henry, to the thirty-year-old Constance, heiress to the Norman kings of Southern Italy and Sicily. This greatly aroused Frederick's enemies—the pope, the Normans, the Lombards. Frederick made his first of six Italian campaigns. He destroyed Milan, the leader of the Lombard cities. At Rome he had Arnold of Brescia, the hero and leader of the new Roman Republic, hanged.

Frederick openly clashed with Pope Hadrian IV, the only English pope. Frederick kissed the pope's foot but refused to hold the bridle and stirrup for the pope. After two days of arguing Frederick gave in and was crowned emperor by Pope Hadrian (June 1155).

In October 1157 Frederick clashed with the church again. The papal legate, Cardinal Roland, the future Pope Alexander III, stated that the emperor had received his position as a benefice from the pope. Archbishop Rainald drew his sword. The pope had to back down and offer the apology that "benefice" did not imply a feudal grant but only meant "good deed."

In 1158 Frederick made his second Italian campaign. He received support from the secular lawyers at the University of Bologna. In the old Roman Law, the Code of Justinian, the emperor derived his power from God and not from pope or people. The emperor was supreme on earth. The pope's answer was prepared by canon lawyers, led by Gratian who drew up his codification of canon law. Frederick crushed his opposition. In 1162 he made a third successful campaign into Italy against Rome and the Norman King William I.

When Pope Hadrian IV died in 1159, the anti-imperial cardinals elected Cardinal Roland of Siena as Pope Alexander III. The imperial cardinals elected Cardinal Octavian, a Roman nobleman and leader of the German party, as Pope Victor IV. Frederick, appealing to the examples of Constantine, Justinian, Charlemagne and Otto, called a council at Pavia to settle the schism. The council, dominated by clergymen from the imperial territory, recognized Victor IV and excommunicated Alexander III. Pope Alexander III excommunicated Victor IV and Frederick and released Frederick's subjects from their oath of loyalty to the emperor. Frederick made a fourth successful campaign into Italy in 1066. Victor IV died and Frederick installed Paschal III as pope and was again crowned emperor by the pope. Alexander III had managed to escape. Plague ravaged both the city of Rome and the army and so many of Frederick's men died that he had to make his way back to Germany disguised as a peasant.

Alexander III took the lead in forming an alliance with the new League of Lombard cities and the league of Verona—twenty-two cities altogether. Frederick made a fifth campaign into Italy and was badly defeated by the Lombard League at Legnano in 1176. Frederick made peace overtures to Alexander III, recognizing him as pope and renouncing Paschal as an anti-pope. At the Peace of Constance in 1183, after a six year truce with the Lombard League, the League was able to force Frederick to recognize the right of self-government of Lombard territory.

In 1184 Frederick achieved one of his greatest triumphs in the betrothal of his eldest son, Henry, to Constance, heiress to the throne of William II, King of Southern Italy and Sicily. The marriage was celebrated in Milan in 1186 with great festivities. For the papacy the marriage was a great disaster. Frederick declared Henry co-emperor and gave him the title of
Caesar. The papacy experienced worse times as Alexander III was followed by a series of weak popes. Without papal recognition Frederick and Henry were able to threaten the whole temporal power of the papacy.

THE THIRD CRUSADE: Frederick's last bold step was to put himself at the head of European affairs by taking the lead in the Third Crusade. Saladin had retaken Jerusalem in 1187. Frederick called for a Holy War in which he was joined by Richard I the Lionhearted and Philip Augustus of France. Magnificent preparations were made for the crusade and it had great promise until Frederick was drowned in Cilicia. His men tried to pickle his body in vinegar but were forced to bury him in Asia Minor. Henry was unable to give the crusade effective leadership—a quarrel broke out between Richard and Philip. Philip returned to France. Henry and Richard recovered Acre and a narrow strip on the coast but the crusade failed in its main objective of retaking Jerusalem. Richard was kidnapped by the Austrians on his return journey and turned over to the Germans who held him for high ransom.

HENRY VI (1190-1197) AND THE HEIGHT OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE: Under Henry the Holy Roman Empire reached its medieval height. Though lacking the colorful personality of his father he proved an able ruler. He put down his opposition in Germany. The French joined him against England. He mastered the Lombard cities and Southern Italy and Sicily. Cyprus and the Mohammedan kingdoms of North Africa paid him tribute. Plans to marry the Byzantine princess of Constantinople failed but he did collect tribute from Constantinople. His kingdom in Southern Italy became the cultural center of Europe. He was planning a grand crusade when he died suddenly at Piacenza in 1197 at the age of thirty-two. His death had been declared the most fearful catastrophe of German history in the Middle Ages.

RISING PROTESTS AGAINST POPE AND EMPEROR: