



## Royal Ancestors of the Heineman Family

The following pages represent the royal ancestors of the Heineman family who are descendants of Laura Ann Smith, wife to Peter C. Jensen. It was her lineage that creates the links to the crown families of Europe.

This is an abbreviated version of a 1999 publication entitled, "Royal and Historic Ancestors of the Heineman Family" which contains historic maps, listings of all the rulers and the term of their reign, along with a short biography of each of the ancestors.

The primary source for the earlier work and this collection is abbreviated from Mike Ashley's, *"The Mammoth Book of British Kings and Queens: All the kings and Queens of All the Kingdoms of Britain Throughout the Ages."*



## Royal Ancestors *from* England, Scotland and Ireland

### INTRODUCTION

There have been kings and chieftains in Britain for at least three thousand years, and probably much longer than that. It is unfortunate that we do not know any of their names until the time of the Roman invasion. Because of that, it is easy to believe that there have only been kings since Julius Cesar.

Britain has been occupied by man since the end of the last Ice Age, but it was not until the New Stone Age, in about 300 BC, that a social structure began to emerge that brought with it the need for more powerful and organized leaders. These leaders were little more than tribal chieftains, but they were imbued by their subjects with something close to godhead. The connection between kings and religion emerged very early in the development of kingship.

The Romans established their own communities based largely upon the former British tribes. Although they brought in their own Roman administrators for these towns, they also married into the local nobility and it is probable that descendants of the former tribal chiefs served as senior government officials within a Roman community.

By 388 Britain was no longer a part of the Roman Empire. Britain like the rest of the Roman frontier, was coming under increasing threat from the Germanic tribes who, in 410, crossed the Rhine and invaded the Empire.

The release of Roman authority resulted in the spread of warfare across Britain. For the most part it was a clash between tribes who sought to defend and maintain the Roman status quo. But there was internal fighting between the tribes who sought to gain power over the old tribal territories. The period between 410 and 450 saw an almost complete

breakdown of the social order. Famine and pestilence swept across Britain.

During this forty years certain chiefs had become war leaders to defend their lands and conquer enemies. These were regarded as kings by their countrymen though they did not have quite the mystical status in the pre-Roman era. The period of 450 to 550 is aptly called the age of Arthur. Whoever this king was, he symbolized the oppressive nature of the period.

By the late fifth century and early sixth century a pattern was emerging as the kingdoms gradually settled down. The Celtic chiefs had ruled a tribe rather than land but by the start of the sixth century the surviving Celtic rulers did establish territories for themselves.

The transition from squabbling tribe into kingdom is far from clear cut, but it is evident that through the chaos a few strong British kingdoms emerged. These were mostly in the north and west, because the Saxon raids and settlements came from the east. The kingdoms we know are those that survived the initial Saxon invasions and were documented in the battles that followed as the Saxons and Angles drove westward.

The Picts are a complicated people to assess. They were Celtic, like the other tribes, but seem to owe their origins to an earlier Irish immigration around the third century BC. The Picts had established an inheritance based on matrilinear succession. The Picts were really an amalgamation of tribes.

One Irish settlement changed the name of Pictland. This was Dál Riata, a kingdom settled by the Irish of Dál Riata in Northern Ireland who came across to Argyll and Kintyre and established a stronghold at Dunadd.

Another major northern British kingdom was Rheged. Its borders evidently changed considerably depending upon the strength of its ruler.

The major surviving kingdoms were in Wales. Although the Romans had infiltrated southern Wales they never conquered north Wales and it is certain that kings of the Ordovices continued to rule there.

Deheubarth did not emerge until the tenth century. Two other Welsh kingdoms existed in the fifth century: Powys and Gwent. Powys in eastern Wales formed the border between Wales and England. Gwent is the old kingdom of the Silures, and there are many ancient records which suggest that the Silurian ruling family continued to survive throughout Roman occupation.

These and other smaller kingdoms held out against Saxon and Angles who began to settle Britain from the middle of the fifth century. Traditionally the first settlers were the Jutes in Kent under Hengest invited to Britain by Vortigern to help in the battle against the Picts. The remaining Saxons and Angles had to fight to gain their territory. The British of the south may have learned by the early sixth century that the only way to survive was to join with the Saxons.

Around 500, the Celts under Arthur established a bridgehead in central Britain which for a generation or two held the Saxons at bay, but by 550 the latter were on the move again and under stronger leaders with firmly established settlements down the east coast. Between 550 and 600 the balance began to shift in southern and central Britain away from the Celtic kingdoms to the Saxons.

Kent was the first important kingdom in Saxon England and because of its position of power and authority it was able to influence the other kingdoms. The East Anglian kingdom emerged at about the same time, in the 580s, and soon established itself. The East Anglian kingdom crept close to the former kingdoms of the Iceni and remained ferociously independent for over three hundred years. The distant relatives of the East Anglian kings migrated westward grouping to call themselves the Middle Angles who established the kingdom of Mercia. The word Mercia means borderland and is the same as the Welsh word Marches. The North Angles were called Northumbrians. The Northumbrians had tenaciously clung to the east coast of northern Britain for over a century.

During the seventh century, the English kingdoms of Mercia and Northumbria dominated central and northern England, whilst Wessex and Kent struggled to hold on to their power in the south. Northumbrian power was broken in 685 with the death of Egfrith. Thereafter the kingdom was ruled by weaker kings.

By the 850s the Vikings were settled along the eastern Irish coast at Dublin and Waterford. From there, in the short space of twenty years, they conquered the Hebrides and the Isle of Man by the year 855, Diera in 866, East Anglia in 869, the Orkneys by 874 and throughout the 870s encroached further into England.

The same process that had unified England was working in Scotland, through more haphazardly. The Celtic rule of partible succession meant that kings divided their land amongst their sons so that the work of any king to establish a stronger and larger kingdom was immediately undone when it was subdivided amongst his successors. This rule weakened the Welsh kingdoms more than the Scottish, but it had its effect in the British kingdom of Strathclyde, which had few strong kings.

The Scots of Dál Riata had been growing in power, but then fell foul of an interdynastic struggle between the ruling families. For a period at the start of the eighth century this in-fighting weakened the Scots and allowed the Picts to take control. The Picts remained the dominant force for the next few generations and the Dál Riata dynasty began to get the upper hand.

The Welsh kingdoms also suffered from the rule of partible succession and from there being too many children of Welsh kings. The whole history of Wales from 500 to 1200 is one of constant fighting between brothers, cousins, uncles, nephews and any other relative who got in the way. Wales was not really a country of discrete kingdoms. It was a country where the internal boundaries changed with every passing king. The major struggles for power were between Gwynedd in the north and Deheubarth in the south, with Powys and Gwent occasionally getting in the way.

Although Scotland (or Alba as it was then known) may have appeared to be one kingdom with the arrival of Malcolm III, it was still divided. The authority of the Scottish kings effectively covered the lowlands and the Borders plus much of the eastern seaboard. Orkney, Shetland, and the Western Isles, as far south as the Isle of Man, were still answerable to the king of Norway whilst the Highlands on the mainland where the people were Gaelic speaking, regarded themselves as independent. It was only by 1493 that Scotland became the whole kingdom we would recognize today.

Although the Normans had dominated Wales and Scotland by the late thirteenth century, they still regarded their heartland as Normandy and France rather than England. England was a rich country, the revenues from which allowed the kings to finance their campaigns in France. The English kings retained the title "King of France" from 1431 until 1801.

The War of the Roses between the descendants of Edward III represented by the dynasties of York and Lancaster, divided England between 1455 and 1487 and led to the succession of Henry Tudor, as Henry VII. Tudor was of Welsh descent and one might argue that the Welsh at last claimed the English throne, defeating the last of the Plantagenets (the direct descendants of the Normans). The Act of Union of 1536 formally absorbed Wales into the English administrative and legal system. Another far-reaching event happened in 1503 when the two royal families of Scotland and England were united by marriage.

The history, and the Heineman royal ancestors toed to the Plataganet family, follows the remarkable ascent of an island, once divided among hundreds of petty chieftains, to a united kingdom whose monarch had authority over a fifth of the globe. The biographies of the British royal ancestors that follow are annotated from Mike Ashley's, *British Kings and Queens: The Complete Biographical Encyclopedia of the Kings and Queens of Britain*.



**Emerging Post-Roman Kingdoms**

**Northern Britain (Yorkshire to the Clyde)**

As Britain emerged from the Roman Empire it fell to the leading noblemen and generals to maintain law and order. A number of leaders began to establish themselves in various corners of Britain. The first were along the northern frontier, where Coel the Old carved out a kingdom ruled by “the Men of the North.” Their domain stretched from the northernmost Roman wall down to what is now Yorkshire. After Coel's death his kingdom was split between his descendants and the rapidly subdivided, weakening the realm. The kingdoms were gradually reduced by the Saxons, although the British kingdom of Strathclyde survived much loner.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
Coel Hen <i>The Old</i>		410-430	430
Ceneu		450-470	470
Gurgust		480-500	500
Merchiaun Gul		510-540	540
Elidyr		540-560	
Llwarch Hen		560-595	640

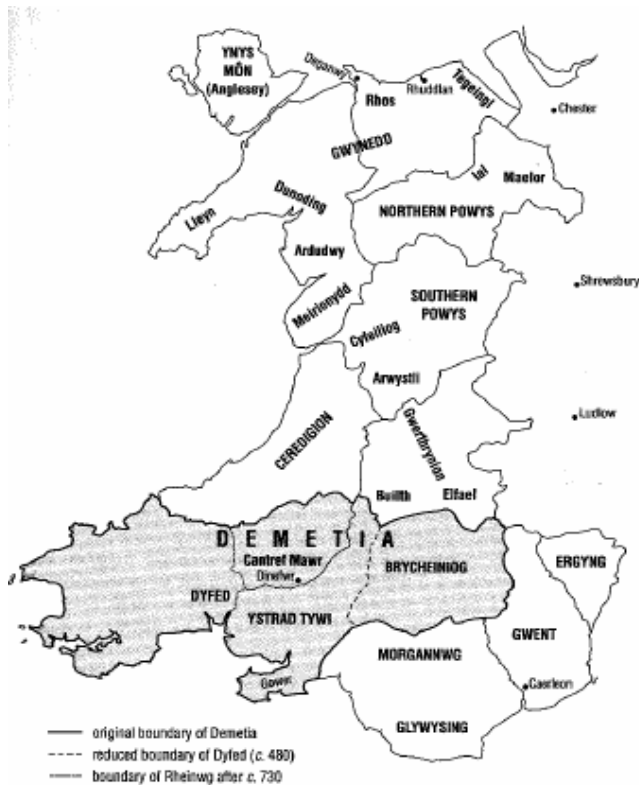
**Southern Britain (England south of Yorkshire)**

Southern Britain, the part that romantic legend has called Loegres, must also have been divided into its former tribal status after Roman departure, but it was less evident than in the north where defenses were strongest against the Picts, Irish and Saxons. Southern Britain retained, to a degree, the heart of the former Roman administration and it is possible to see that there was an attempt, at least for a while, to maintain a more cohesive administration amongst the southern tribes probably based at the heart of the wealthiest Roman centers around Cirencester and Gloucester, where the tribes of Dobunni, Silures and Cornovii mingled. It was probably from here that the primary leaders of southern Britain emerged in what would later be the British kingdoms of Gwent, Powys and the Gewisse, and it was from here that the high kings, during the immediate post-Roman period before the kingdoms began to establish themselves. The Welsh Triads identify the first high kings as Owain, though his existence is not otherwise recorded. The dates used are those most commonly associated with the rulers, but are in themselves dubious.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
Vortigern (or Vitalinus)		425-466	466

## Demetia and Dyfed

The kingdom of Dyfed, in the far south-west of Wales, was originally the tribal territory of the Demetae, and the kingdom was first known as Demetia. When Roman authority waned it was settled by the Irish, who traced their descent from Artchorp in the fourth century, who was descended from the Irish High Kings. Details of the kings and their reigns are sparse. The Demetian rulers are distantly related to the Scottish settlers of Dál Riata.



### Welsh Kingdoms – Demetia and Dyfed

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Eochaid		400	
Corath		420s	
Aed		450s	
Tryffin (I) Farfog "The Bearded"		480s	
Aircol Lawhir "Longhand"		500	
Gwrthefyr or Vortepor		515-540	
Cyngar		550s	
Pedr		570s	
Anthwyr		590s	
Nowy		610s	

## Venedotia and Gwynedd

Gwynedd covered the territory of the Ordovices, but the kingdom established by Cunedda brought together migratory British from elsewhere in Britain. The territory was originally known as Venedotia, a name which mutated into Gwynedd over the next two centuries. The heart of Gwynedd was originally at Deganwy, but shifted to Anglesey and at one time included the Isle of Man. It became the most powerful kingdom in Wales.



### Welsh Kingdoms - Gwynedd

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Cunedda		450-460s	
Einion		470-480s	
Cadwallon Lawhir "Longhand"		500-534	534
Maelgwn Hir "The Tall"	497	520-549	549
Rhun Hir	520	549-580s	
Beli		580s-599	599
Iago		599-613	613
Cadfan		615-620	625

*Edwin of Northumbria overran Gwynedd between 620 and 627*

Cadwallon	590	620-634	634
Cadwaladr		655-682	682
Idwal		682-720	720
Rhodri Molwynog		720-754	754
Cynan		798-816	816
Merfyn Frych		825-844	844

## Powys and the Marches

The kingdom of Powys was carved out of the lands of the Cornovii and Decangii in eastern and north-eastern Wales. At the height of its power, during the late sixth century, its boundaries stretched beyond the current border of Wales into Cheshire, Stropshire and Herfordshire, the territory known today as the Marches. It struggled to retain its independence since it was under threat from the might of Gwynedd to the west and the encroachment of the Mercians to the east. The identity of its early rulers is uncertain because there was almost certainly several tribes along the borders of Wales with no single dominant ruler.



Welsh Kingdoms – Powys

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Cyngen		550s	
Brochfael Ysgythrog		570s	
Cynan Garwyn		600	
Eiludd ap Cynan		615-?	

### Northern Powys (Chester, Clwyd)

Beli ap Eiludd		630s	
Gwylog ap Beli		700s	
Elisedd ap Gwylog		725-?	
Brochfael ap Elisedd		760s	
Cadell ap Brochfael		?-808	808

## Gwerthryniion – Builth

This small kingdom was in the center of Wales bounded by Powys, Ceredigion and Brycheiniog. Like Powys, it developed from lands once ruled by Vortigern in the mid fifth century. The name is derived from Vortigern's real name, Gwrtheyrn. The extent to which it remained an autonomous kingdom is not clear. It may at various stages have been subject to Powys, Brycheiniog, Gwent, and Gwynedd. After Vortigern, it was ruled by his son Pascent.



Minor Welsh Kingdoms

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Pascent		460s	

## The Dál Riata Scots

The original “Scots” were Irish who came from the Dál Riata homeland in northern Ireland and settled in Argyll. They gradually took over most of Argyll, Galloway and the southern Hebrides until the Viking invasions pushed them inland to conquer the kingdom of the Picts. The Scots developed a genealogy taking their pedigree back to 330 BC, based on their Irish ancestry. Listed here are the Dál Riata Scottish Kings.



Scotland – Dál Riata

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Fergus “The Great”	440	498-501	501
Domgart		501-507	507
Gabhrán		538-558	558
Eochaid Buide	538	608-629	629
Domnall Brecc		629-642	642
Domangart II		660-673	673
Eochaid II		697	697
Eochaid III		726-733	733
Aed Find “The Fair”		750-778	778
Eochaid IV “The Poisonous”		781	
Alpin		834	834

*With the death of Eoganan in 839, Kenneth MacAlpin united the Picts and the Scots and the infant kingdom of Scotland (at first known as Alba) emerged.*

## West Saxons (Gewisse and Wessex)

It was not until the late seventh century that Wessex began to take on a unified shape. The West Saxons were a number of tribes who conquered territory across the south of Britain. The main concentration was in Wiltshire and Hampshire, but there was another core of settlers along the Berkshire Downs. There was considerable rivalry first with the British and then the Mercians for territory in Gloucestershire and the Severn Valley. Later the West Saxons began to push further west into Somerset and Dorset. With territory fragmented and covering such a spread of ground there would have been several kings at any one time, not necessarily related, though later genealogists sought to contain them in a single family tree. In fact the West Saxons were a confederacy of tribes and adopted the name Gewise, which means confederate but which originally related to a British tribe or tribes in the area known as Eryngy or Archenfield. It was not until the reign of Ine that these tribes became united. Under Egbert they would become the dominant kingdom, and the West Saxon dynasty became the rulers of England.



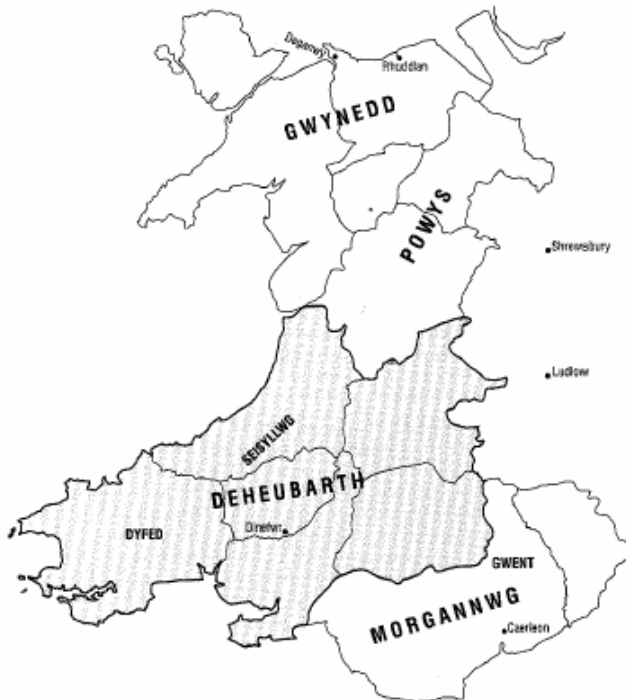
Anglo Saxon Kingdoms - Wessex

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Cerdic		538-554	554
Cynric		554-581	581
Ceawlin		581-588	589
Cutha		570-580	
Egbert	771	802-839	839
Athelwolf	795	839-855	858
Athelred I	837	865-871	871
Alfred "The Great"	849	871-899	899

*By the time of Alfred the West Saxons had imposed their authority over the rest of England, but the nation had again become riven by the Danish invasions and the fight for Britain began.*

## Deheubarth

Deheubarth came into existence in 920 when Hywel Dda combined the former kingdoms of Dyfed and Seisyllwg. Occasionally rulers of Deheubarth gained control over Gwynedd and vice versa. The Normans conquered Deheubarth in 1093, though descendants of the ruling family were allowed to hold authority over Cantref Mawr "The Great Cantref" and Ystrad Tywi and from this base the former kingdom of Deheubarth briefly re-emerged in the twelfth century under Maredudd ap Gruffydd and the Lord Rhys. Thereafter Norman control was re-exerted and Deheubarth ceased to exist as a kingdom after 1234.



**Later Welsh Kingdoms**

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Hywel Dda "The Good"	882	920-950	950 <i>After</i>
<i>Hywel's death Gwynedd regained its independence. Hywel's three sons split the kingdom of Deheubarth but after Rhodri died in 953 and Edwin in 954, Owain was able to reconsolidate them.</i>			
Owain ap Hywel		954-986	988
Maredudd ab Owain		986-999	999
Rhys ap Tewdwr		1078-1093	1093

## The Kingdom of Gwynedd

Gwynedd was always the primary kingdom of Wales, even though it had moments when it was dominated by rulers from the south. It had several great rulers during its early years but the first to earn the title of "The Great" was Rhodri ap Merfyn who by 871 had inherited Powys and Seisyllwg, in addition to Gwynedd, and was effectively ruler of all northern and western Wales.

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Rhodri Mawr "The Great"		844-878	878

*Rhodri succeeded to the kingdom of Powys in 855 and Seisyllwg in 871, becoming king of all North Wales.*

Anarawd ap Rhodri		878-916	916
Idwal Foel "The Bald"		916-942	942

*Idwal submitted to Edward the Elder of England from 918-937. Gwynedd was ruled by Hywel Dda of Deheubarth from 942-950,*

Iago ap Idwal ap Meurig		1023-1039	1039
Gruffydd ap Cynan	1055	1081-1137	1137
Owain Gwynedd	1100	1137-1170	1170

*Upon Owain's death his lands were divided between his sons.*

Llywelyn "The Great"	1173	1195-1240	1240
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## Medieval Powys

For over two hundred years Powys formed part of the kingdom of Gwynedd. It was re-established as a separate kingdom by the sons of Bleddyn ap Cynfyn soon after 1075 and although it was later divided into Northern and Southern Powys, it remained independent for two centuries until eventually possessed by England.



Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Maredudd ap Bleddyn		1116-1132	1132
Madog ap Maredudd		1132-1160	1160

After Madog's death, the kingdom was divided into North and South.

## Scotland

In 848 Kenneth macAlpin united the kingdoms of the Picts and the Scots which later became known as Scotland. At this stage the kingdom was centered at Forteviot in southern Scotland and Kenneth and his successors held little authority over the highlands which were still dominated by the Cenél Loarn and the Picts who later emerged as the separate kingdom of Moray. Further north the Vikings settled in Orkney and their authority spilled over into Caithness. It was centuries before Scotland became united. Only in 1265 did Norway cede the sovereignty of the Western Isles and Man to Scotland and, though the earldom of Orkney passed into the hands of a Scottish family it remained Norwegian territory for another two centuries. It was ironic, therefore, that at the time that Scotland began to feel it had control over its affairs, Alexander III should die with only an infant successor and her death left the country with a succession crisis. The country fell into the hands of the English King Edward I.



Scotland 500-1200

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Kenneth macAlpin I		840-858	858
Constantine I		863-877	877

After 878 the kingdom of the Picts, Dál Riata and Strathclyde were united under one monarch, the first to be honored as King of Scotland.

Donald II		889-900	900
Malcolm I		943-954	954
Kenneth II		971-995	995
Malcolm II	954	1005-1034	1034
Duncan	1001	1034-1040	1040
Malcolm III Canmore	1031	1058-1093	1093
David I "The Saint"	1084	1124-1153	1153
William I "The Lion"	1143	1165-1214	1214

## Western Isles (Hebrides and the Isle of Man)

The Hebrides and the Isle of Man formed a kingdom known as the Western Isles to the Scots and the Southern Isles (or Sundreys) to the Norse. Identifying sovereignty over them is complicated. The islands were occupied by both the Irish and British during the various waves of invasion around the first century BC and AD. Legend attributes names to four early Celtic rulers of Man who may have some basis in fact – Dalboeth, Elathan, Alldh or Athas, and Manannan. Manannan's name is most closely associated with the island. During the fifth century Man came under the control of the rulers of Rheged. It was conquered by Edwin of Northumbria in 620, but its rulership remained with the descendants of Llywarch Hen until it passed briefly to Wales and was then conquered by the Danes.



Kingdoms of Man and the Isles

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
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Llywarch Hen		560-595	
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*Man was conquered by Baetan mac Cairill of Ireland in 577 and then by Aedan mac Gabhran of Dál Riata in 582. It may have remained under Scottish domination until conquered by Edwin of Northumbria in 620.*

Diwg	600s		
Gwyar	630s		
Tegid	670s		
Sandde	730s		
Elidr	760s		
Gwriad	800s		

*Gwriad's son, Merfyn Frych, became king of Gwynedd and Man in 825, but Man soon slipped out of his hands. By the 830's, the Western Isles were being settled by Vikings and the Hiberno-Norse Gael-Gaedhil.*

## The English and Normans (900-1284)

Although Alfred the Great held the Danes at bay and stopped a total conquest of England, they were granted land in East Anglia and Danish settlements rapidly grew. A foothold had been established. Danish and Norse raids continued and they were eventually victorious in 1013 when the English capitulated to Swein Forkbeard. After his death his son Canute became one of the great rulers of northern Europe. Even though Canute's sons were unable to sustain the scale of his empire, it was not the last England saw of the Northmen. Another branch of the ancient royal family, related to the earls of Orkney, had settled in Normandy, and their leader, William the Bastard, conquered England in 1066. The Northmen were ultimately victorious and drove the Saxons into serfdom. It was this generation of Northmen, William's sons and grandsons, that not only conquered England but dominated Wales and Scotland. Although Scotland was not quite conquered, Edward I died believing it was within his grasp, just like Wales, which he had dominated and absorbed into England in 1284. By the reign of Edward I Britain was fast becoming a united kingdom with the English king recognized as the sovereign lord.

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
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Edward "The Elder"	871	899-924	924
Edmund I	921	939-946	946
Edgar "The Peaceful"	943	959-975	975
Athelred II	968	978-1013	1016

*In 1013 the Dunelaw submitted to Swein, king of Denmark*

Athelred II	968	1014-1016	1016
Edmund II "Ironside"	989	1016	1016
Edward	1004	1042-1066	1066
Harold II	1022	1066	1066

### THE HOUSE OF NORMANDY

*William of Normandy gained the throne of England by conquest. The Saxon royal family was overthrown and a new regime was imposed which changed England forever.*

William "The Conqueror"	1027	1066-1087	1087
Henry I	1068	1100-1135	1135
Stephen	1097	1135-1154	1154

### THE HOUSE OF ANJOU (Plantagenet)

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
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Henry II	1133	1154-1189	1189
John Lackland	1167	1199-1216	1216
Henry III	1207	1216-1272	1272

## Kingdom of Man

In 1290 Edward I took possession of the Island for England, placing it under the governorship of Richard de Burgh, earl of Ulster. John Balliol briefly reclaimed the island for Scotland from 1293-1296; otherwise it remained under English control. During this period the most stable of governorship was under Antony Bek, Bishop of Durham, from 1298-1311. Robert the Bruce claimed Man again for Scotland in 1313. In 1316 the Irish ravaged the island and it remained a battlefield plundered and claimed by Ireland, Scotland and England until the powerful reign of Edward III. In 1333 Edward granted the island to William de Montague in full possession, so that he became the first restored lord of Man for nearly seventy years.

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
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Henry Percy		1399-1405	1408
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## England and Great Britain from Edward I

Civil war split England three times between the Norman Conquest in 1066 and the death of Henry III. With Edward I came the first strong king able to unite England and institute what became known as the Model Parliament in 1295. Edward also conquered Wales and sought to do the same for Scotland, but found it harder to subdue the Scottish nation and died before the kingdoms were united. It would not be until 1603, with the death of Elizabeth I, that Scotland and England were ruled by the same monarch, and not until the Act of Union in 1707 that the United Kingdom was officially created.



## Royal Ancestors *from* France

### INTRODUCTION

The region constituting contemporary France appears in recorded history for the first time with the establishment, about 600 BC, of *Massilia*, now Marseille. This colony was founded by the ancient Phocaeans, who named the natives of the surrounding territory *Keltoi* (Gr. "Celt"). Probably by extension the term was eventually applied to all of the tribes then dominant in the area bound by the Atlantic, the Rhine River, the Alps and the Mediterranean.

The Celtic-speaking peoples of western Europe called their domain *Galetachd* ("the land of the Gauls"), the term from which the ancient Roman designation for the region was derived. In early stages of the Roman Republic, invaders from Gaul occupied the northern portion of what is now Italy. The Gauls in this region, known in Rome as *Gallia Cisalpina* ("Gaul this side of the Alps"), and other Celtic-speaking tribes of Gaul engaged in periodic warfare with the Romans for centuries.

After 51 BC, when the Roman general and statesman Gaius Julius Caesar successfully completed an eight-year war of conquest in Gaul, the entire territory became a province of Rome. The Emperor Augustus divided Gaul into four provinces in 27 BC. The Gaelic peoples rapidly assimilated the culture of their conquerors and Gaul soon became one of the principal Roman dominions, especially important in the imperial defense system against the Teutonic tribes of the north and east.

With the disintegration of Roman power in the 4<sup>th</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> centuries AD, the Teutonic tribes under pressure from the marauding Huns occupied large sections of the Roman dominions, including Gaul. The Visigoths took possession by stages of almost the entire region south of the Loire River and west of the Rhone valley. The Burgundians seized the territory between that of the Visigoths and the Alps. Most of Gaul to the north

of these areas fell to the Franks. Other Germanic tribes, chiefly the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes invaded Britain during the same period.

Unable to expel the barbarians, the hard-pressed Romans and Teutons, chiefly Visigoths, defeated the forces of the Hunnish king Attila near Chalons-sur-Marne, ending the threat of Hunnish dominance in Europe. The Western Roman Empire lasted for only twenty-five years after this victory. In 476 Odoacer, king of the Teutonic Heruli, organized a rebellion against imperial authority, deposing the puppet ruler Romulus Augustus, the last Roman emperor of the west. Ten years later Clovis, a pagan chieftain of the Salian division of the Franks and the greatest of the Merovingian dynasty of Frankish kings, defeated Syagrius, last governor of the shrunken Roman dominions in Gaul.

In 496, largely through the influence of his wife Clotilda, Clovis became a member of the Christian faith, the leaders of which supported his subsequent efforts to attain hegemony over all of Gaul. Clovis added substantially to his domain during the next decade, winning control of Burgundy in 500 and driving the Visigoths into the Iberian peninsula in 507. Following the death of Clovis in 511, his realm was apportioned among his four sons. After a period of ruthless conflict, only Clotaire survived his three brothers and for a short time the Frankish realms were again united. Clotaire's division of his land among his four sons resulted in further conflict, from which emerged the kingdoms of Austrasia, in the east and Neustria in the west. Burgundy, with no king of its own, joined Neustria. Although the kingdoms were again consolidated for a time under Clotaire II the Frankish realm was torn by continuous internal strife and the authority of the Merovingian monarch diminished steadily.

The Dark, or early Middle, Ages that had enveloped most of Europe following the collapse of the Western Roman Empire was most pronounced in the Frankish realm under the Merovingians. As political chaos mounted, intellectual stagnation deepened. Scholarly pursuits were confined to certain monastic organizations of the Church. The Greek and Roman heritage of learning was otherwise forgotten. One cultural development of lasting significance gradually evolved. The west Franks slowly assimilated the Latinized Gallic tongue, while the east Franks retained their native Teutonic speech creating linguistic differences that eventually led to a permanent cleavage of the Frankish domain and laying the basis of modern France and Germany.

The kings of Austria were completely dominated by Pepin of Herstal, Mayor of the Palace from about 687 until his death in 714. He was succeeded by his son Charles Martel who won control of Neustria and Burgundy, thereby re-establishing Frankish unity. In 719, Moslem invaders, who had previously seized control of the Iberian peninsula began to occupy the south portion of the Frankish realm. With the help of the Lombards, Charles Martel decisively defeated the Moslem forces near Tours in 732, saving feudal western Christendom from Moslem domination.

On the death of Charles Martel in 741, the post of Mayor of the Palace was inherited by his son Pepin the Short. Pepin ruled in this capacity until 751, when he deposed Childeric III and, with the blessing of Pope Zacharias, assumed the royal title. Thus began the Carolingian dynasty of Frankish kings, whose combined reigns covered a span of nearly 250 years.

Pepin laid the foundations of the Frankish Empire, the first important state to develop in the European continent after the collapse of the Roman Empire. Although the Frankish Empire had only a brief history, limited in effect to the reign of Pepin's son Charlemagne, its appearance signaled the opening of a new stage in the political, intellectual, and religious process at work in Europe.

Charlemagne vastly extended the boundaries of his kingdom, successively subjecting the Saxons, Lombards, and various tribes of central Europe. By the introduction of several administrative innovations, notably the establishment of counties, a federal officialdom responsible to the crown, and an advisory body of leading nobles, he achieved a centralization of authority and effected curbs on the powers of the feudal lords. Of equal importance, he sponsored a revival of intellectual activity that to some extent bridged the broad gulf between his times and those of antiquity. Besides founding numerous schools, he became the patron of men of learning from various parts of the church. He forcibly converted to Christianity the pagan tribes that he conquered,

imposed taxes for the benefit of the Church, waged war against the Moslems, and founded many places of worship. In recognition of these and other services, Pope Leo III crowned him in 800, Emperor of the Romans. This move introduced the concept of the later Holy Roman Empire.

In the century following the death of Charlemagne in 814, the Frankish Empire disintegrated into a multitude of warring kingdoms, duchies, and minor fiefs. The process of disintegration, begun during the reign of Charlemagne's son and successor Louis I, resulted from a variety of factors. Before the emperor's death in 840, his sons, unable to agree on how to divide the empire, resorted to armed conflict. The costly struggle was terminated three years later by the Treaty of Verdun, by the terms of which Charles the Bald received the western portion of the empire, Louis II the eastern portion, and Lothair the region between these states; Lothair received the imperial title. In political geography, the first and second of the new states were rough approximations respectively of modern France and Germany. The intermediate kingdom, composed of Lotharingia, Provence, Burgundy, and Lombardy, shortly became as well as internecine strife and external conquest, a multiplicity of shifting dependencies and principalities.

Under the reign of Charles II the West Frankish kingdom was steadily weakened by internal and external wars. The king became increasingly dependent on the military support of the feudal lords, one of whom, Robert the Strong, was granted the dukedom of France, which later gave its name to the entire country. The Northmen launched broader raids on Charles' dominions, on one occasion capturing Paris. The East Frankish king and Holy Roman Emperor Charles III reunited the east and west versions of the former Frankish Empire in 884. Three years later, as the result of a humbling treaty which he had concluded with the Northmen in 886, he was forced to abdicate. With his abdication, the cleavage between the east and west Franks became permanent.

Political turmoil continued in the West Frankish kingdom for a protracted period after the deposition of Charles. The Northmen multiplied their attacks on the coastal region, and Charles III purchased immunity from further encroachments by ceding to them, in 911, the region later known as Normandy. By degrees the feudal lords usurped more and more of the remaining authority of the crown, but the Carolingian dynasty persisted until 987. In that year, a coalition of dominant nobles, rejecting the rightful claimant to the throne, bestowed the crown to Hugh Capet, Duke of France, who thereby became the founder of the Capetian dynasty of French kings.

Like that of his immediate predecessors, the authority of Hugh Capet extended little beyond Paris and Orleans. The heads of the surrounding feudal domains, including Aquitaine, Burgundy, Normandy, and Flanders, wielded considerably more power than any of the three rulers who succeeded Capet. In 1066, William Duke of Normandy turned his attention to the west and conquered England, appreciably reducing the immediacy of the threat to the Capetians. A further improvement in the relative position of the royal power resulted in 1096, when many of the feudal lords of France embarked on the First Crusade, a venture that brought death and economic ruin to many of its leaders.

The first king to significantly challenge the feudal lords within the Capetian domain was Louis VI, who ascended the throne in 1108. His vassals, subdued after more than twenty years of armed struggle, finally recognized the royal authority, which thereby acquired the material and political basis for further expansion. Thus strengthened, the kingdom repelled an invasion led by the Holy Roman Emperor Henry V. The next member of the Capetian dynasty, Louis VII, conquered Champagne and, through marriage, added Aquitaine to his dominions, but he lost the region in 1152 as a result of the dissolution of his marriage. Aquitaine shortly passed again through marriage to Henry, Duke of Anjou, who acquired the crown of England as Henry II in 1154.

Philip II who succeeded Louis in 1180, resumed the war with England and Henry, and finally won control of Normandy, Anjou, and most of the other English possessions in France except Gascony. During his reign, Philip instituted important governmental reforms, particularly in the administration of justice. Philip also divided his dominion into smaller political units, known as communes, established a national standing army, and strengthened the royal treasury.

The process of consolidating the kingdom continued during the reigns of Philip's son Louis VIII and grandson Louis IX. Louis IX (canonized as St. Louis) achieved a reputation as the most chivalrous and just monarch of his time. His reign (1226-1270), termed the golden age of Medieval France, witnessed the consolidation of the French monarchy and the decrease of power of the feudal lords and churchmen; improvements and reforms in national administration; and the peaceful adjustment of the problem of English possessions in France by the treaty of Paris (1259), whereby Henry III of England was recognized as feudal lord of Poitou, Gascony, and Guienne, but relinquished claims to Normandy, Anjou, Touraine, and Maine.

Following the reign of Louis' son Philip III, a generally inept ruler, the borders of France were further extended at the expense of neighboring fiefs, and the

drive for the French monarch to secure absolute control of the state was intensified. In a move to subordinate ecclesiastical power to royal authority, at the same time strengthen the royal treasury. Philip IV imposed a tax on the clergy. The move precipitated a bitter controversy with Pope Boniface VIII, in the course of which Philip secured dominance of the Parliament by granting representation to the burgher class or *tiers etat* of the realm. With the subsequent election in 1305 of Clement as Pope, the struggle was resolved in favor of Philip, who thenceforth had the support of the papacy in his campaign to strengthen the kingdom.

The powerful religious and military order of the Knights Templar was destroyed in France with Clement's help. Philip substantially increased the authority of the crown; additions to his domain included Franche-Comte and several other fiefs to the east.

The death without male issue of Philip's three sons Louis X, Philip V, and Charles IV brought the Capetian dynasty to an end. In that year, the throne passed to Philip VI, a nephew of Philip IV and founder of the House of Valois.

## The Western Franks

The name "Franks" applied to about the middle of the 3<sup>rd</sup> century AD to the Germanic tribes dwelling along the lower and middle Rhine River. They appeared in the Roman provinces around 253 and soon thereafter established themselves in two distinct groups, the Salian Franks and the Riparian Franks. The Salian Franks inhabited the lower stretches of the Rhine and the Riparian Franks along its middle course. The Franks played a paramount role in the history of Europe. The elaborate government that Charlemagne set into motion established order and a respect for law unknown in Europe since the best days of the Roman Empire.

The Franks were a martial people, distinguished by their proud bearing, great stature, and long, fair hair. Their basic attire consisted of snug-fitting trousers extending to the knee, and a tunic secured by clasps. Their chief weapons were the framea, an iron spearhead secured in a wooden shaft; the bow and arrow; the francisca, a single-edged battle-ax used for striking or throwing; and the scramasax, a large knife used for fighting and hunting.

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign
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*Carolingian Dynasty – Ripurian Franks*

Pepin “The Short”	714	751-768
Charlemagne	742	768-814
Louis I “The Pious”	778	814-840
Charles “The Bald”	823	840-877
Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign

Louis II	846	877-879
Carloman		879-884
Charles III “The Simple”	879	922-923
Louis IV d’Outremer	921	936-954
Lothair	941	954-986
Louis V “The Sluggard”	967	986-987

*Capetian Dynasty*

Hugh Capet	940	987-996
Robert II	970	996-1031
Henry I	1008	1031-1060
Philip I	1052	1060-1108
Louis VI “The Fat”	1081	1108-1137
Louis VII “The Young”	1121	1137-1180
Philip II	1165	1180-1223
Louis VIII “The Lion”	1187	1223-1226
Louis IX “Saint Louis”	1214	1126-1270
Philip III “The Bold”	1245	1270-1285
Philip IV “The Fair”	1268	1285-1314



## Royal Ancestors *from* Germany INTRODUCTION

For almost 2000 years after its initial appearance in history, the region comprising present-day Germany was occupied by a multiplicity of independent or semi-independent states. The inhabitants of the region possessed all of the prerequisites for political union, including a common racial background and language, mutual customs and institutions, and a community of religion. Indeed, nominal statehood was achieved on several occasions during the Middle Ages, but in each instance the body politic proved to be structurally weak and incapable of withstanding the splintering effect of feudalism. After each period, all of relatively brief duration, centralized authority collapsed and the nation disintegrated into numerous principalities. The political chaos implicit in this process was compounded by frequent partitions or amalgamations of the Germanic states.

The ethnological and geographical origins of the Teutonic linguistic stocks are obscure. It is probable that various tribes of the stock had infiltrated central Europe long before the beginning of the Roman era, but not until 113 BC, when the Cimbri and Teutons defeated a Roman army in what is now Austria, did any of the tribes begin to figure in written history. During the next century the Romans clashed with their northern neighbors on numerous occasions, particularly after Gaius Julius Caesar launched his conquest of Gaul in 58 BC. He found several tribes, collectively known as the Germani (from a Celtic word meaning "The Shouters"), in possession of Gaelic territory east of the Vosges Mountains. Within three years, Caesar subjugated part of the invaders and pursued the remainder across the Rhine to their ancestral homeland, called Germania. Roman armies were generally successful in Germania until 9 AD. In that year Arminius, who was a chieftain of the Cherusci, led an uprising against the Romans, and

annihilated three Roman legions. The victorious Germanic tribes compelled their erstwhile overlords to withdraw to the west bank of the Rhine. After the short-lived retaliatory campaigns of Germanicus Caesar, Rome adopted a policy of containing its warlike neighbors. The strongly defended frontiers of the Roman Empire insured generally peaceful relations with the Germani during the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> centuries AD. Several important towns, including Cologne, Augsburg, Trier, and Bonn, were established in Germania during this period. Of greater importance, the Germanic tribes, formerly a multitude of semi-nomadic groupings, began to federate and coalesce into nations. Outstanding among these nations were the Almanni, Goths, Suevi, Frisii, Lombards, Vandals, Saxons, Franks, and Burgundians. The Roman emperors, beset by internal and foreign difficulties, accepted some of the Germanic groupings as allies in the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> centuries, and allowed them to settle within the imperial domain. With the decline of Roman power in the 5<sup>th</sup> century, the Goths, Burgundians, Franks, and other tribal groups, yielding to pressure from the invading Huns, overran vast portions of Roman territory, including Gaul. Before the end of the century, the Franks, under the leadership of Clovis, were masters of Gaul and a large part of the region east of the Rhine. The kingdom of the Franks, became the nucleus of the Frankish empire, which embraced most of present-day France and Germany.

The internal strife that developed after the death in 814 of Charlemagne under whom the Frankish kingdom attained imperial proportions, was adjudicated in 843, by the Treaty of Verdun. By the terms of the settlement, the empire was divided among Charlemagne's three grandsons, with Louis II receiving the east portion, a rough approximation of



modern Germany. The west portion, corresponding in general to Lotharingia, Burgundy, and Lombardy. This intermediate kingdom shortly disintegrated into various principalities, which for centuries afterward were the source of rivalry and friction between the east and west Franks. Besides territorial rivalries, linguistic differences served to worsen relations between the two great divisions of the Franks, the west Franks having abandoned their native tongue and assimilated the Latinized speech of Gaul.

IN the new German realm, as in other kingdoms of Europe, royal authority was largely nominal. The feudal chieftains, particularly those of the duchies of Saxony, Swabia, and Bavaria, retained absolute control of their domains, and the right to elect their sovereign. For the most part, the authority of Louis II was limited to his personal possessions, mainly in the duchy of Franconia. Louis' chief son Charles, known as "The Fat", secured control of the other parts of the former Frankish Empire in 884, the expanded kingdom collapsed when, in 887, Charles was deposed.

Henry I is generally recognized as the first ruler of stature to appear in Germany, Duke of Saxony, who obtained the throne in 919, with the support of Franconia. Shortly after his accession, Henry extended his authority over the Swabians, and Bavarians, creating for the first time a united Germany. He also secured the vassalage of the Duke of Lotharingia, defeated the Moravians and other Slavic tribes, and repulsed the Magyars, a marauding tribe that had long threatened to engulf east Germany. During the reign of Henry's son and successor Otto I, a capable ruler and soldier, royal authority in Germany was still further consolidated. A number of feudatory rebellions were suppressed, Bohemia subdued, and including the Danes, was annexed. In many respects Otto created, during the early years of his reign, the foundations for an enduring state. In 951, however, he intervened in the affairs of Lombardy, starting a chain of events that culminated in a general rebellion in Germany. The king finally triumphed, in 955, when his forces decisively defeated the Magyars, then in alliance with the rebel chieftains. This victory ended the Magyar threat to east Germany. ON the other hand, the threat of feudal usurpation of royal authority remained, and Otto seeking to lessen this threat, determined to enlist the prestige and power of the church on the side of the crown.

He soon began to divide the duchies under his direct control into smaller units, most of which were awarded to Church dignitaries. Otto also appointed many prelates to important administrative posts. The displays of friendliness to Rome were accompanied, in 961, by an important favor to Pope John XII, who was then at loggerheads with Berengar II of Italy. At the Pope's request, Otto invaded Italy and deposed

Berengar. In 962, in recognition of Otto's services, John XII awarded him the Imperial crown and title. The coronation, which rivaled, in terms of sovereignty, the imperial structure originally bestowed in 800 on Charlemagne, inaugurated the German-Italian political union known after 1155 as the Holy Roman Empire.

Having secured the imperial title and complete control of the Church in Germany, Otto swiftly brought the papacy under his personal domination. The vast secular and spiritual powers of the emperor rested on shaky foundations, however. Through the creation of numerous ecclesiastical and lay principalities, he had given impetus to the divisive forces at work within Germany; the political situation in Italy, particularly in the south portion of the peninsula, verged on anarchy; the Empire lacked an efficient administrative apparatus; and, finally, the Imperial subversions of traditional papal authority contained the seeds of mortal conflict between Church and state.

## The Eastern Franks

The question of when German history began is a matter of discussion, often with strong political overtones. Did it begin in 843 when the Treaty of Verdun gave Louis the German the lands east of the Rhine? Or did it begin in 887 when Arnulf of Carinthia partially restored the territory of the Carolingian empire? Some historians have suggested 911, when Conrad I was elected king, while others suggest the coronation of Otto the Great in 936, or the imperial coronation of Otto in Rome in 962. In 911 the four East Frankish people – the Franks, Swabians, Bavarians, and Saxons – formed the kingdom of Germany. In 925 were added the Lothringians some of where were French-speaking. The kingdom corresponded roughly to the former Western Germany and lay on the eastern borders of Christian Europe.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
<i>The Carolingian Dynasty</i>			
Charlemagne	747	768-814	814
Louis "The Pious"	778	814-840	840
Arnulf	893	887-899	911
<i>Medieval Civilization</i>			
Henry I	875	919-936	936
Otto I "The Great"	912	936-973	973
Otto II	955	973-983	983
<i>Salic Frankish Empire</i>			
Conrad II	990	1024-1039	1039
Henry III	1017	1039-1056	1056
Henry IV	1050	1056-1106	1106

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
<i>Hohenstaufen Dynasty</i>			
Frederick I Barbarosa	1122	1152-1190	1190
Philip of Swabia	1180	1198-1208	1208



## Royal Ancestors *from* Hungary INTRODUCTION

The region constituting contemporary Hungary was part of the ancient Roman provinces of Dacia and Pannonia. Situated on the periphery of the Empire, these provinces were among the first to fall to the Germanic tribes that began to overrun the Roman dominions in the closing years of the 2<sup>nd</sup> century AD. The Germanic tribes were later driven from the region by the Huns. After the death of the great Hunnish chieftain Attila, the Germans reoccupied the area, but were again expelled, in the 5<sup>th</sup> century, by the Avars, an Asiatic people. With the decline of the Avars' power during the 8<sup>th</sup> century, the Moravians, a Slavic tribe, seized the north and east portions of the region and, between 791, and 797, the Frankish emperor Charlemagne added the remainder to his domains.

The next conquest of the region occurred when, in 895 or 896, the Magyars, a tribe of uncertain racial origin, seized control of former Pannonia. Under the leadership of their semi-legendary chieftain Árpád, the invaders conquered Moravia, raided the Italian peninsula, and made incursions into Germany. The Magyars ranged over central Europe for more than half a century after the death (907) of Árpád, and in 955 devastated Burgundy. Later in 955 they were defeated by the Holy Roman Emperor Otto I on the Lech River. After this defeat, the Magyars maintained friendlier relations with the Holy Roman Empire, with the result that Christianity and Western culture began to penetrate Hungary. The Hungarian ruler Géza was converted to Christianity in 975. His son Stephen I, the founder of the Árpád dynasty, received formal recognition as King of Hungary when, in the year 1001, Pope Sylvester II granted him the title of "Apostolic Majesty," an appellation retained by the Hungarian kings for more than nine centuries.

When Stephen, who was later canonized (1087), a new era began for Hungary. Christianity became the official religion, paganism was suppressed, royal authority was centralized, and the country was divided into counties for administrative purposes. No attempt was made, however, to ease the lot of the non-Magyar sections of the population. Treated as subject races, they were forced to shoulder a disproportionate burden of toil and taxation. This aspect of Hungarian civilization endured for many centuries. After Stephen's death a pagan reaction developed, and his immediate successor had to contend also against barbarian and German invasions. Ladislas I "The Saint" (1077-1095), renowned for his wise legislation and for great personal valor, arranged an alliance with Pope Gregory VII during the Investiture conflict. Thus strengthened, Hungary again became a powerful kingdom. Stephen subjugated Croatia, Bosnia, and part of Transylvania, and his successor Koloman (1095-1114) gained possession of part of Dalmatia.

Royal authority declined in Hungary during the 12<sup>th</sup> century, chiefly because of internal strife instigated by the Byzantine emperor Manuel I Comnenus. Seizing control of the Hungarian throne, he bestowed huge grants of the crown lands on partisans among the native nobility, thereby providing substantial foundations for the development of feudalism. The Byzantine influence disappeared after the death (1180) of Manuel, but the barons retained their privileged status. King Andrew II, who ascended the throne in 1205, attempted to re-establish a centralized regime. In 1222 he issued the Golden Bull, sometimes called the Hungarian Magna Charta, which extended various rights, including tax exemptions, to the nobility. Although the decree gained some adherents for the king among the weaker barons, it failed to reduce the power of the great landowners.

During the reign (1235-1270) of Andrew's successor Béla IV, Hungary was overrun by Mongol invaders. Most of the Mongols withdrew from the country in 1241, but subsequent wars, notably with Austria, and further royal concessions to the barons accelerated the disintegration of the kingdom. Civil war raged in Hungary from 1301 to 1308, the year of the death of Andrew III, the last Arpád king. Charles Robert of Anjou, who secured election as sovereign of Hungary in the same year, restored order, imposed limitations on the barons, and generally consolidated the realm. During his reign, which ended in 1342, Charles also made a number of territorial acquisitions, including Bosnia and part of Serbia. Through his marriage to the sister of Casimir III of Poland, he insured the succession of his son Louis to the Polish crown.

## Hungary

From their dwellings in Central Russia, the Hungarians slowly migrated south. They appear in contemporary sources under a variety of names, but are not, as a rule, called by the name they use themselves: Magyar. The principle names under which the Hungarians appear are: Turk, Bashkir, Sabir, Onogur, Scythians, Sauromates, Getes, or Huns. At some time, probably during the ninth century, Hungarians occupied a territory called Levedia, adjoining the Black Sea. There they became close allies with the Khazars. The first Hungarian chief mentioned by name is Levedi or Elod. Hungarian tribes decided to elect a chief. Levedi declined the offer and suggested either the chief Almos or his son Arpad be elected. Almos was eventually elected. The circumstances in which Arpad took over the leadership from his father are mysterious. It is he who is traditionally regarded as the conqueror.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
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### *Arpad Dynasty*

Taskony		955-972	
Bela I		1060-1063	
Geza I		1074-1077	
Bela "The Blind"		1131-1141	
Geza II		1141-1162	
Bela III		1173-1196	
Andrew II		1205-1235	
Bela IV		1235-1270	
Stephen V		1270-1272	



## Royal Ancestors *from* Kievan Rus INTRODUCTION

The formative centuries of the Russian state are perhaps best divided into three main periods; the era of Kievan Rus from its roots in the ninth century to the Mongol invasion of 1237-1240; a century of Mongol dominance from 1240 to c. 1340, during which Kievan traditions and structures lost their potency and the Rus principalities adapted to Mongol or Tatar suzerainty; and the period from c. 1340 to the mid-fifteenth century, when the foundations of the new state of Muscovy were laid.

The lands that made up Kievan Rus were located in the forest region of Eastern Europe along a group of rivers, the Dnieper, the western Dvina, the Lovat, Volkhov, and the Volga, the headwaters of which all emanate from the Valdai hills. They were populated mainly by Slavic and Finnic tribes. The members of those tribes supported themselves, to some degree, by fishing, hunting, and gathering fruits, berries, nuts, mushrooms, honey, and other natural products in the forest around their villages. But the Slavs were primarily agriculturalists. In natural forest clearings or in those they created by the slash-and-burn method, they typically cultivated one or more cereal grains and also raised livestock as well as supplementary crops such as peas, lentils, flax or hemp.

Although each tribe followed its own leaders and worshiped its own set of gods, they interacted with one another, at times exchanging goods, at others fighting one another. The more adventurous among their members transported the valuable goods their societies produced to the markets of distant neighbors – Bulgar on the mid-Volga, the Khazar capital of Itil at the base of the Volga, and the Byzantine outpost of Kherson on the coast of the Crimean peninsula.

There they exchanged their goods for oriental finery and, most conspicuously, silver coin.

The transformation of these tribes into the state of Kievan Rus is shrouded in uncertainty. Legends and literature recorded much later, archeological evidence, and the notations of foreign observers, however, suggest that by the early ninth century Scandinavian adventurers (known variously as ‘Varangians’ and ‘Rus’) had entered the Slav lands. Primarily attracted by the silver at the Volga market centers, they plundered Slav villages and carried their booty to the same markets that the Slavs themselves had visited. In the course of the ninth century the Varangians protected its own group of Slavs from competing Scandinavian pirates in exchange for regular tribute payments. Those stable relationships were mutually beneficial. The Slavs were relieved of the sporadic, violent raids, while the armed Rus bands received regular supplies of goods used in their exchanges for silver and oriental luxury products. Gradually, the Rus leaders acquired the character of princes, and the Slav populace became their subjects.

According to a legend in the Primary Chronicle compiled during the eleventh and early twelfth centuries, one of the first Rus princes was called Rurik. The legend states that Rurik and his brothers were “invited” by Slav tribes to rule their lands. Tribes that dwelled in the general vicinity of the Lovat and Volkhov rivers and the lands to their east had ejected previous Scandinavian protectors, but then became embroiled in warfare among themselves. Unable to reconcile their differences, the chronicler explained, they called upon Rurik in 862 to restore peace and rule over them.

Rurik, the legends continue, survived his two brothers to become sole ruler until his own death in 879 or 882. A regent, Oleg, then ruled on behalf of Rurik's young son Igor. After Oleg's death in 912, Igor ruled until 945; a tribe called the Drevliane killed him after he attempted to collect more than its standard tribute payment. Igor's wife, Olga, assumed the regency and took cunning revenge upon her husband's murderers. Their son, Sviatoslav, claimed his father's place in 962.

By that time the realm of the Rurikid clan had expanded substantially. According to the chronicle, the tribes subject to the Rurikids had increased to include Krivichi, the Poliane, and the Drevliane. The Rurikids, furthermore, had taken command of the Dnieper, a major commercial artery. From the vantage-point of Kiev they could control all traffic moving towards the Black Sea, the Byzantine colony of Kherson, and towards the sea route to the Don river and the Khazar Empire. Oleg in 907 and Igor, less successfully in 944, conducted military campaigns against Constantinople, which resulted in treaties permitting the Rus to trade not only at Kherson, but at the rich markets of Constantinople itself, where they mingled with merchants and had access to goods from virtually every corner of the known world.

Sviatoslav continued to expand his father's domain. He first subdued the Viaticchi, who inhabited lands along the Oka and Volga rivers and had previously paid tribute to the Khazars, and in 965 he launched a campaign against the Khazars themselves. His venture led to the collapse of their empire, subsequently, the destabilization of the lower Volga and the steppe, a region of grasslands south of the Slav territories. Although he did rescue Kiev from the Pechenegs in 968, Sviatoslav devoted most of his attention to establishing control over lands on the Danube river. Forced to abandon the project by the Byzantines, he was returning to Kiev when he was killed by the Pechenegs in 972.

Shortly after Sviatoslav's death his son Iaropolk became prince of Kiev, but conflict erupted between him and his brothers. After one died in battle against him, another, Vladimir, fled from Novgorod, the city he governed, to raise an army in Scandinavia. Upon his return in 980, he first engaged the prince in Polotsk, one of the last non-Rurikid rulers of the East Slav tribes. Victorious, Vladimir married the prince's daughter and added the prince's military retinue to his own army, with which he then defeated Iaropolk and seized the throne of Kiev. Vladimir also subjugated the Radimichi, and in 985 attacked the Volga Bulgars; the agreement he subsequently reached with the latter was the basis for peaceful relations that lasted for a century.

Over the two centuries following Vladimir's death in 1015, Kievan Rus became an amalgam of principalities, whose number increased as the dynasty itself grew. The Rurikid dynasty also converted to Christianity and thereby provided it with a uniform religious and cultural framework. Christianity, Judaism, and Islam had long been known in these lands, and Olga had personally converted to Christianity. When Vladimir assumed the throne, however, he set idols of Norse, Slav, Finn, and Iranian gods, worshipped by the disparate elements of his society, on a hilltop in Kiev in an attempt to create a single pantheon for his people. As the Rurikid dynasty and Christian clergy displaced tribal political and spiritual leaders, their political and religious-cultural structures transformed the conglomeration of East Slav tribes into a dynamic and flourishing state.

The dynastic system, however, also encouraged co-operation among the princes when they faced crises. Concerted action was prompted particularly by the Polovtsy, another population of Turkic nomads that moved into the steppe and displaced the Pechenegs in the second half of the eleventh century.

The political organization of the Ruriks also contributed to repeated dynastic conflicts over succession to the throne of Kiev.

## Russia

During the pre-Christian era the vast territory which became Russia was sparsely inhabited by groups of nomadic barbarian tribes, many of which were described by the Greeks and Roman writers. In the comparatively unknown north, a region of great forests, dwelt tribes later known collectively as the Slavs, the ancestors of most of the modern Russian people. Far more important was the south, where the Crimean peninsula and the open steppes, considered part of an indeterminate region known to the ancient world as Scythia, was occupied by a succession of Asiatic peoples including, chronologically, the Cimmerians, Scythians, and Sarmatians. In these early times, East Slavic tribes and their neighbors coalesced into the Christian state of Kievan Rus. Its ruling Rurikid dynasty oversaw increasing political complexity, territorial expansion, economic growth, and frequent warfare, but was defeated by Mongol invaders. During the ensuing Mongol era a junior dynastic branch extended its authority and laid the foundation for a new state – Muscovy.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
Rurik		862-882	
Igor		912-945	
Svyatoslav		962-972	
St. Vladimir I		978-1015	
Yaroslav I "The Wise"		1019-1054	
Vsevolod I		1078-1093	
Vladimir Monomakh II		1113-1125	
Mstislav II		1168-1169	



## Royal Ancestors *from* Poland

### INTRODUCTION

The Poles possess one of the richest and most venerable historical traditions of all European peoples. Convection fixes the origins of Poland as a nation near the middle of the tenth century, contemporaneous with the Carolingians, Vikings, and Saracens, and a full hundred years before the Norman conquest of Britain in 1066. Throughout the subsequent centuries, the Poles managed despite great obstacles to build and maintain an unbroken cultural heritage. The same cannot be said of Polish statehood, which was notoriously precarious and episodic. Periods of independence and prosperity alternated with phases of foreign domination and disaster.

Many foreign observers perceive Poland as a perennial victim of history, whose survival through perseverance and a dogged sense of national identity has left a mixed legacy of indomitable courage and intolerance toward outsiders. To Poles, their history includes brighter recollections of Poland as a highly cultured kingdom, uniquely indulgent of ethnic and religious diversity and precociously supportive of human liberty and the fundamental values of Western civilization. The contrast between these images reflects the extremes of fortune experienced by Poland. The two visions of history combine in uneasy coexistence in the Polish consciousness. One striking feature of Polish culture is its fascination with the national past; the unusual variety and intensity of that past defy tidy conclusions and produce energetic debate among Poles themselves on the meaning of their history.

In the first centuries of its existence, the Polish nation was led by a series of strong rulers who converted the Poles to Christianity, created a strong Central European state, and integrated Poland into European culture. Formidable foreign enemies and internal

fragmentation eroded this initial structure in the thirteenth century, but consolidation in the 1300s laid the base for the dominant Polish Kingdom that was to follow.

According to Polish myth, the Slavic nations trace their ancestry to three brothers who parted in the forests of Eastern Europe, each moving in a different direction to found a family of distinct but related peoples. Fanciful elements aside, this tale accurately describes the westward migration and gradual differentiation of the early West Slavic tribes following the collapse of the Roman Empire. About twenty such tribes formed small states between AD 800 and 960. One of these tribes, the Polanie or Poliane ("people of the plain"), settled in the flatlands that eventually formed the heart of Poland, lending their name to the country. Over time the modern Poles emerged as the largest of the West Slavic groupings, establishing themselves to the east of the Germanic regions of Europe with the ethnographic cousins, the Czechs and Slovaks, to the south.

In spite of convincing fragmentary evidence of prior political and social organization, national custom identifies the starting date of Polish history as 966, when Prince Mieszko (r. 963-992) accepted Christianity in the name of the people he ruled. In return, Poland received acknowledgement as a separate principality owing some degree of tribute to the German Empire. Under Otto I, the German Empire was an expansionist force to the West in the mid-tenth century. Mieszko accepted baptism directly from Rome in preference to conversion by the German church and subsequent annexation of Poland by the German Empire. This strategy inaugurated the intimate connection between the Polish national identity and Roman Catholicism that became a prominent theme in the history of the Poles.



Mieszko is considered the first ruler of the Piast Dynasty (named for the legendary peasant founder of the family), which endured for four centuries. Between 967 and 990, Mieszko conquered substantial territory along the Baltic Sea and in the region known as Little Poland to the south. By the time he officially submitted to the authority of the Holy See in Rome in 990, Mieszko had transformed the country into one of the strongest powers in Eastern Europe.

Mieszko's son and successor Boleslaw I (r. 992-1025), known as the Brave, built on his father's achievements and became one of the most successful Polish monarchs of the early medieval era. Boleslaw continued the policy of appeasing the Germans while taking advantage of their political situation to gain territory wherever possible. Frustrated in his efforts to form an equal partnership with the Holy Roman Empire, Boleslaw gained some non-Polish territory in a series of wars against his imperial overlord in 1003 and 1004. The Polish conqueror then turned eastward, extending the boundaries of his realm into present-day Ukraine. Shortly before his death in 1025, Boleslaw won international recognition as the first king of a fully sovereign Poland.

During the eleventh century and the first half of the twelfth century, the building of the Polish state continued under a series of successors to Boleslaw I. But by 1150, the state had been divided among the sons of Boleslaw III, beginning two centuries of fragmentation that brought Poland to the brink of dissolution. The most fabled event of this period was the murder in 1079 of Stanislaw, the bishop of Krakow. A participant in uprisings by the aristocracy against King Boleslaw II, Stanislaw was killed by order of the king. This incident led to open rebellion and ended the reign of Boleslaw.

During this same period, Poland lost ground in its complex triangular relationship with the German Empire to the west and the kingdom of Bohemia to the south. New foreign enemies appeared by the thirteenth century. The Mongol invasion cut a swath of destruction through the country in 1241; for fifty years after their withdrawal in 1242, Mongol nomads mounted devastating raids into Poland from bases in Ruthenia to the southeast. Meanwhile, an even more dangerous foe arrived in 1225 when a Polish duke invited the Teutonic Knights, a German crusading order, to help him subdue Baltic pagan tribes. Upon completing their mission with the characteristic fierceness and efficiency, the knights built a stronghold on the Baltic seacoast, from which they sought to enlarge their holdings at Polish expense. By that time, the Piasts had been parceling out the realm into ever smaller units for nearly 100 years. This policy of division, initiated by Boleslaw II to appease separatist provinces while maintaining national unity, led to regional governance by various

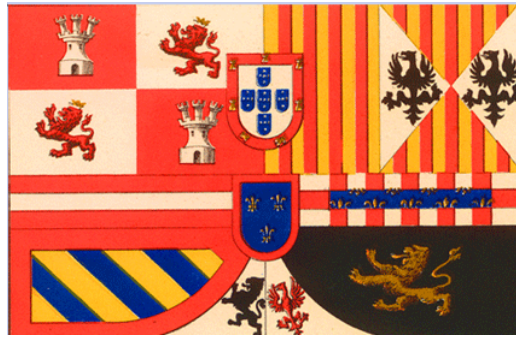
branches of the dynasty and to a near breakdown of cohesiveness in the face of foreign aggression. As the fourteenth century opened, much of Polish land lay under foreign occupation.

In the fourteenth century, after a long period of instability and growing menace from without, the Polish state experienced a half century of recovery under the last monarch of the house of Piast. By 1320 Wladyslaw "The Short", had manipulated internal and foreign alignments and reunited enough territory to win acceptance abroad as king of an independent Poland. His son Casimir III would become the only Polish king to gain the sobriquet "great."

## Poland

Virtually nothing authentic is known regarding the early activities of the Slavic tribes that laid the foundation of the Polish nation. According to some authorities, a number of these tribes united about 840 under a king known as Piast, but Poland does not begin to figure into European history until the reign of Mieszko, reportedly a descendant of Piast.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
Mieszko I		963-992	992
Boleslaw "The Brave"		992-1025	1025
Mieszko II		1058-1079	
Casimir I "The Restorer"		1040-1058	
Wladislaw I "Herman"			
Boleslaw III "Wrymouth"		1086-1138	
Wladyslaw II "The Exile"			



## Royal Ancestors *from* Spain INTRODUCTION

The first of the East Mediterranean peoples known to have voyaged to the peninsula were the seafaring Phoenicians, probably in the 11<sup>th</sup> century BC. Traders from Rhodes and the Greek cities followed, establishing colonies on the Mediterranean coast and occasionally venturing into the Atlantic through the Strait of Gibraltar, known to the ancients as the Pillars of Hercules. In the second half of the third century BC the African state of Carthage began to exploit the peninsula. Under the general Hamilcar Barca, a large part of the peninsula was conquered in a campaign from 237 to 228 BC, and in the latter year Carthage founded the city of Barcelona. Other colonies were established along the coast, notably Carthago Nova. The expansion of Carthage in the peninsula was viewed unfavorably by Rome. In 219 BC, violating a previous Carthage-Rome agreement delimiting Carthaginian territory, the Carthaginian general Hannibal destroyed the Greek colony of Saguntum and precipitated the Second Punic War. Carthage was forced to evacuate the peninsula in 206 BC. Nine years later Rome divided the peninsula into two provinces, Hispania Citerior, in the valley of the Ebro River, and Hispania Ulterior, in the plain penetrated by the Guanalquivit River. The tribes of the extreme North did not surrender their independence to Rome until 19 BC. Under the Romans, Hispania took its final form as three provinces: Lusitania, approximating modern Portugal; Baetica, in the South approximating Western Andalusia; and Hispania Tarraconensis, the central plateau and the North, North West, and the East Coast above Cartagena. From the final submission of the Iberian tribes until the dissolution of the Western Roman Empire in the late fourth century AD, Hispania was one of the most prosperous areas of Roman power. Its farms were a major source of Roman grains, and from its mines came iron, copper, lead, gold, and silver.

In 409 AD Teutonic invaders crossed the Pyrenees. Alans, Vandals, and Suevi swept over an desolated the peninsula. The unity of Hispania under Rome was destroyed, and not entirely recreated for more than a thousand years. In an attempt to stem the havoc brought by the barbarian invasions, Rome appealed to the Visigoths who in 412 AD brought their armies into the region and within seven years became the dominant power. The Visigothic kingdom of Toulouse, a nominal vassal of Rome was established in 419, and at its fullest extent included the territory from the Strait of Gibraltar North to the Loire River. For three centuries (419-711) the kings of Toulouse implanted Roman culture and Christianity in the peninsula. Euric ruled (466-484) at the height of Visigothic power, and codified the Roman and Gothic law. Leovigild (r. 569-586) effected the final subjugation of the Suivi tribes and united the Roman and Visigothic elements of the peninsula into a single people. Reccared (r. 586-601) established Roman Catholicism as the official state religion.

In 711 a Moslem, or Saracen, army composed of Arabs, Berbers, and Syrians, invaded the peninsula across the strait from Africa. On July 19, 711 they defeated Roderick, last of the Visigothic kings of Spain, at the battle of Rio Barbate. By 719, the Moslem power was supreme to the Pyreneese. The invading forces crossed the mountains, but their progress northward was arrested at the battle of Poitiers (732) by the Frankish ruler Charles Martel. From that time on the Moslems concentrated on development of the peninsula.

For the first few years of their rule the Arabs, dominant element in the Saracen forces, held the peninsula as a dependency of the Province of North Africa, a division of the caliphate of Damascus. After 717 the country was ruled by emirs appointed by the caliphs and frequently neglectful of their duties; misrule resulted in the appointment and deposition of

twenty successive emirs during the subsequent forty years. This state of affairs was ended by a struggle between the Ommiad and Abbasside factions for control of the Damascus caliphate. The last of the Spanish emirs, Yusuf, favored the Abbassides, but the local officials of the emirate supported the Ommiads. The Ommiad faction invited Abd-er-Rahman a member of the family, to become the independent ruler of Spain. In 756 Abd-er-Rahman founded the powerful and independent emirate which later developed into the caliphate of Cordoba.

During the establishment of the Saracen power, a remnant of Christian rule was preserved in the North portion of the peninsula. The genesis for the most important Christian states of the North peninsula was the small kingdom of Asturias, founded about 718 by Pelayo, a Visigothic chieftain and successor to Roderick. Alfonso the Catholic (r. 739-757), the son-in-law of Pelayo, conquered nearly all the region known as Galicia and recaptured most of Leon and was the crowned king of Leon and Asturias. Alfonso III greatly extended these territories. During the 9<sup>th</sup> century the region of Navarre, under Sancho I became an independent kingdom. As the kings of Leon expanded their domains to the East, they reached, in the early 10<sup>th</sup> century, Burgos. The castles built to guard the frontiers of newly acquired territory gave this region the popular name of Castilla and, ultimately, Castule. Under Count Fernan Gonzalez (910-970) the region became independent of Leon and in 932 the Count declared himself the first king of Castile. In the 11<sup>th</sup> century a considerable part of Aragon was captured from the Moslems by Sancho III of Navarre, who also conquered Leon and Castile, and in 1033 made his son Ferdinand I king of Castile. This temporary unity came to an end at Sancho's death, when his domains were divided among his sons. The most prominent of Sancho's sons was Ferdinand I of Castile, who acquired Leon in 1037, took the Moorish section of Galicia, and set up a vassal country in what is now North Portugal. With North Spain consolidated, Ferdinand, in 1056 proclaimed himself emperor of Spain and initiated the period of re-conquest from the Moslems.

As a result of the dissolution of the central Moorish power, the Christian kings of North Spain were able to gain the advantage, subduing some Moorish states and making others tributary. A temporary revival of central power was instituted by Abbidid kings of Seville. Alfonso VI, King of Castile and Leon, led his attacking armies South, and by 1086 was master of Toledo. Abbad III of Seville then asked the aid of the Almoravides, a Moslem sect of North Africa. The Almoravides crossed to Spain but after defeating Alfonso (1086) turned against the Spanish Moors, and by the beginning of the 12<sup>th</sup> century the Almoravide ruler was the sovereign of Moslem Spain. The Almoravide dynasty was short-lived, and its power

passed to a second African sect, the Almohades who invaded Spain in 1145 and became the masters of the Moslem areas within five years. The Christian kings, meanwhile, continued their advance. In a great battle fought on the plains of Toledo in July 1212, the Almohades were defeated by the united Christian power, and expelled from Spain shortly thereafter. The Moorish power was then limited to the kingdom of Granada which endured until 1492 and was one of the greatest and most splendid Moslem realms.

For the next two centuries Spain consisted, except for those regions still controlled by Saracens, of two great kingdoms: in the West, Castile and Leon, including Austrias, Cordoba, Estremadure, Galicia, Jaen, and Seville; and in the East Aragon, including Barcelona, Calencia, and the Balearic Islands. Both realms were characterized, as a legacy of their previous histories, by a diversity of language dialects, by composite populations, and by divergent political forms.

In 1469 the marriage of Isabella I Queen of Castile and Ferdinand II King of Aragon, initiated the developments which made Spain a great world power.

## Castile and Leon

Castile was traditionally divided into Old Castile to the north and New Castile to the south and is now divided between autonomous regions of Castile and Leon and Castile-La Mancha. It is a vast, sparsely populated area surrounding the highly industrialized city of Madrid. Castilian kings were prominent in the fight against the Moors, from whom they wrested new Castile. The privileges of the nobles were limited by Peter the Cruel (r. 1350-1369). In 1479 a personal union of Castile and Aragon was established by Isabella I of Castile and her husband, Spanish King Ferdinand V. Castile was the core of the Spanish monarchy, centralized in Madrid. Leon, a region and former kingdom in northwest Spain, east of Portugal and Galicia includes the provinces of Leon, Slamanca and Zamora. The kings of Austrias took the region in the 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> century from the Moors, and the city of Leon became their capital in the 10<sup>th</sup> century. The kingdom was permanently joined in 1230 with Castile.

Ruler/Ancestor	r. in Castile	r. in Leon	Died
Ferdinand I	1035-1065	1037-1065	1065
Alfonso VI	1065-1109	1072-1109	1109
Urraca	1109-1126	1109-1126	1126
Alfonso VII	1126-1157	1126-1157	1157
Ferdinand II		1157-1188	1188
Alfonso IX		1188-1230	1230
Ferdinand III	1252-1284	1252-1284	1284

## Navarre

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The autonomous region and province of Navarre is located in Northern Spain, bordered by France between the West Pyrenees and the Ebro River. Pamplona is the capital. The kingdom of Navarre reached its zenith under Sancho III, who ruled most of Christian Spain. Much reduced in area, it came under French rule from 1305-1328 and regained importance in the Hundred Years War under Charles II. Most of Navarre was annexed in 1515 by Spanish king Ferdinand V. Lower Navarre, North of the Pyrenees, remained an independent kingdom until annexed in 1589 by France.

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Sancho III "El Mayor"	991	970-1035	1035
Garcia III	1020	1035-1054	1054
Sancho Ramirez		1076-1094	
Garcia Ramirez	1110	1134-1150	1150
Sancho VI	1132	1150-1194	1194
Theobald I	1201	1234-1253	1253
Henry I		1270-1274	1274
Joan I	1271	1274-1305	1305

## Pamplona

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Pamplona is an ancient Basque city captured by the Visigoths, the Franks, and the Moors. The city was to alter become the capital of the kingdom of Navarre from 824-1512. The particular idiosyncrasy of the Navarran people took shape in the creation of the Pamplona monarchy at the end of the 8<sup>th</sup> century. With the aim of ending Arab domination they chose a king, who, in return for the title, promised to obey the "fueros", a code of law that guaranteed the rights of Navarrians. Sancho Garces I Reigned as King of Pamplona from 905-925. At this time the "Reconquista" or Christian re-conquest had already started and this, after several centuries, would lead to the collapse of Moslem domination of the Iberian peninsula. However, it appears that there was no great Arab domination of Navarre; they settled in the south of the region around Tudela, and there are still historical and cultural remains dating from that period, both Arab and Jewish, there were important Jewish centers of population in Tudela and in Estella.

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Sancho I Garces	865	905-925	925
Garcia I Sanchez	919		970
Sancho II Garces Abarca	935		

## Aragon and Asturias

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The former kingdom of Asturias is located in North West Spain South of the Bay of Biscay. When the Moors conquered 8<sup>th</sup> century Spain, Christian nobles fled to the Asturian mountains, formed a kingdom, and began the long re-conquest of Spain. In the 10<sup>th</sup> century, Leon became the capital of the kingdom then known as Asturias and Leon. The kingdom was united in 1230 with Castile. Aragon was founded in 1035 by Ramiro I. During the 12<sup>th</sup> century, the ruling house conquered much territory from the Moors in Spain and also in the South of France.

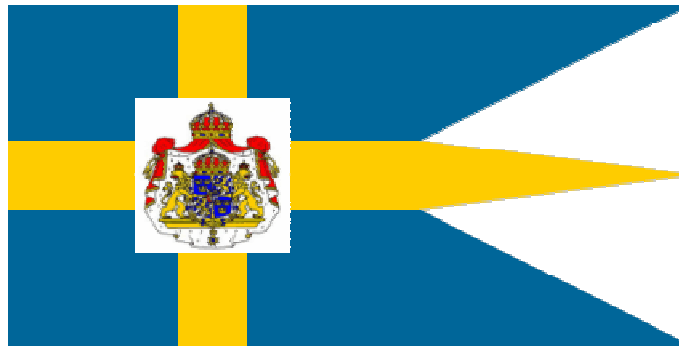
Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Pelayo		718-737	737
Alfonso "The Catholic"		737-757	757
Fruela I	740	757-768	768
Sancho Ramirez	1063		
Alfonso II "The Chaste"	1152	1162-1196	1196
Pedro II "The Catholic"		1196-1213	1213
Jamie I "The Conqueror"		1213-1276	1276

## Visigoths

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Six major tribes, the Visigoths, the Ostrogoths, the Burgundians, the Lombards, and the Franks participated in the fragmentation and collapse of the Western Roman Empire. The Vandals were actually two tribes, the Asding and the Siling Vandals. Several other tribes were also involved, the Alans, the Alemanni, and the Suevi in particular, though the Alans were an Iranian steppe people. none of these tribes, save one, survived the early part of the Middle Ages. Only the Franks create an enduring state. The principal immediate damage to the Empire was done by the Visigoths, who, instead of becoming part of the Roman Army, were never properly assimilated and then began to operate against it.

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Chindaswind		642-653	



## Royal Ancestors *from* Sweden, Birka, Uppsala and Denmark INTRODUCTION

During Roman times, the eastern half of the Scandinavian peninsula was inhabited by two great Germanic tribes, the Suiones, or Swedes, in north Svealand, and the Gothones, or Goths, in south Gothia. These tribes although united in religious beliefs were generally at war with one another. Previous to the 10<sup>th</sup> century, details of Swedish history is obscure. The Viking Age, 800-1050, was characterized by a marked expansion, which in the case of Sweden was mainly directed eastwards. Many Viking expeditions set off from Sweden with the mixed purpose of plunder and trade along the coasts of the Baltic Sea and the rivers that stretched deep into present-day Russia, where Swedish Vikings established trading stations and short-lived principalities, like that of Rurik at Novgorod. The Vikings active in the east traveled as far as the Black and Caspian Seas, where they developed trading links with the Byzantine Empire and the Arab dominions. At the same time, Christianity first reached Sweden with the mission of Ansgar, who visited the country from the Carolingian Empire in the ninth century. Olaf Skutkonung (r. 993-1024) was the first Swedish king to become Christian. However, it was not until the eleventh century that Sweden was Christianized. Even the old pagan Nordic religion survived far into the twelfth and thirteenth centuries through the incorporation of Finland into the Swedish kingdom after several crusades.

Numerous remains discovered by archeologists attest the existence of prehistoric man in Denmark. Knowledge of the early ages of Danish civilization derives largely from myths and sagas. Some historians believe the Danes, who had inhabited the south part of the Scandinavian peninsula in the first centuries after Christ, migrated in the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> centuries to the peninsula of Jutland and the adjacent islands in the Baltic Sea. In the following centuries they expanded westward; within a century after their first raid (787) on the British Isles, the Danes became master of part of England. Under King Harold

Bluetooth, who reigned from 940-985, the Danes became a united people and the Christianization of their realm was begun. Harold's son, Sweyn Forkbeard, king of the Danes from about 985-1014, conquered England in 1013. The Danes ruled England until 1035. Sweyn's son, Canute, king of England (1016-1035) and of Denmark (1018-1035) completed the Christianization of Denmark.

Under Eric IX (r. 1150-1160), who later became the patron saint of Sweden, Swedish power was strengthened. Eric invaded Finland and forced Christianity upon those he conquered; during the subsequent two centuries Finland was completely subjugated by the Swedes. Eric was defeated and killed in 1160 by Prince Magnus Henrikson of Denmark who made an unprovoked attack on Sweden, the first of a long series of wars between the two countries.

In the later part of the 12<sup>th</sup> and the early part of the 13<sup>th</sup> centuries, the Danes expanded to the east. They conquered the greater part of the northern and southern littorals of the Baltic Sea, establishing a powerful and prosperous realm about twice the size of modern Denmark. This era of expansion was also the epoch in which feudalism in Denmark attained its zenith; the monarchy became more powerful and wealthier than it had ever been; the nobility, comprising principally large landowners, prospered; and the clergy were rich and politically influential. Large masses of the once-free peasantry of the country were reduced to serfdom.

Efforts on the part of the monarchy in Denmark, in the second half of the 13<sup>th</sup> century, to tax the church, precipitated a protracted struggle for supremacy in Denmark between the kings of Denmark and the popes. Growing discord between the Danish crown and nobility also led to a struggle, in which the nobility, in 1282, compelled King Eric V to sign a charter, called the Danish Magna Charta. By the terms of this

charter, the Danish crown was made subordinate to law and the Danehof, or national assembly, was made an integral part of the country's administrative institutions.

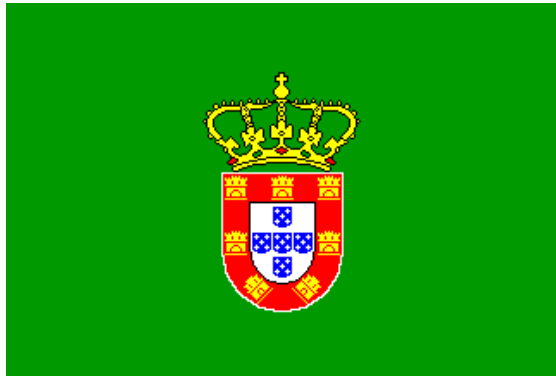
In the 13<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> centuries feudalism became a controlling influence in Sweden, and a wealthy aristocracy replaced the waning power of the throne. In 1395 the Swedish nobles forced Albert III to renounce the throne, which was given to Margaret, Queen of Denmark and Norway. In 1397 Margaret effected the Union of Kalmar, by which the three Scandinavian kingdoms, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden were united under a single sovereign. The union, which endured for more than a century, was characterized by constant dissension and wars between Danes and Swedes.

## Denmark and Sweden

The various provinces of Sweden, which had previously been independent entities, were absorbed around 1000 into a single unit whose center lay partly in Vastergotland and Ostergotland and partly in the provinces around Lake Malaren, especially Uppland.

Denmark was unified in the 10<sup>th</sup> century by the Viking king Harold Bluetooth who converted the people to Christianity. Denmark briefly controlled England in the 11<sup>th</sup> century and was united with Sweden until 1523 and with Norway until 1814.

Ruler/Ancestor	Born	Reign	Died
Bjorn			
Erik			
Edmund of Birka	-873		873
Eric Emundsson		873-900	900
Bjorn "The Old" Ericsson		900-950	950
Erik VI "The Victorious"	945	970-995	995
Olaf Skotkonung	980	955-1022	1022
Ragnar Lodbrok		-865 (Denmark)	865



## Royal Ancestors *from* Portugal INTRODUCTION

Until the Middle Ages, the history of Portugal is inseparable from that of Spain, and the Iberian peninsula was a single territorial unit. Present Portugal became part of the Roman province of Lusitania in the 2<sup>nd</sup> century BC. In the 5<sup>th</sup> century AD control of the region passed to the Visigoths, and in the 8<sup>th</sup> century it was included in the area of the Moorish Moslem conquest. In 997 the territory between the Douro and Minho rivers was retaken from the Moors by Bermudo, King of Galicia, and in 1064, the re-conquest was completed as far south as present Coimbra by Ferdinand I, King of Castile and Leon. The re-conquest districts were then organized into a feudal county, composed of Spanish fiefs. The northernmost fief, the Comitatus Portaculensis, extending around the old Roman seaport of Portus Cale later gave Portugal its name.

In 1093 Count Henry of Burgundy came to the assistance of Castile when it was invaded by the Moors. In gratitude Alfonso VI of Castile gave Henry the hand of Teresa, the king's illegitimate daughter, and, as part of her dowry, the County of Portugal. At the death of Alfonso in 1109, Count Henry refused to continue feudal allegiance to Castile. He invaded Leon and began a series of peninsular wars that, continued by Henry's son, Alfonso Henriques, later Alfonso I, made Portugal independent. In addition, Alfonso, a brilliant general, defeated the Moors in the south in the battle of Ourique. The Portuguese knights accepted him as king in 1143, and in 1179 Pope Alexander III recognized the royal title and the independence of the kingdom of Portugal. Intermittent wars against Castile and the Moors occupied the successors of Alfonso for about two centuries thereafter, but the internal development of the kingdom progressed materially. Under Alfonso III Algrave, the extreme south, was added to the kingdom and Portugal reached its present limits. Diniz, son of Alfonso III, began a policy of encouraging agricultural and commercial enterprise

which laid the foundation of Portuguese wealth. In 1294 Diniz signed a commercial treaty with Edward I of England, beginning a sequence of alliances between the two countries. In 1340, under Alfonso IV, the Portuguese, temporarily allied with Castile, decisively defeated the Moors in the battle of Salado. The last of the legitimate descendants of Henry of Burgundy was Ferdinand I, the grandson of Alfonso IV.

After the death of Ferdinand, his illegitimate half brother John I secured the Portuguese throne in 1385, after two years of civil war. His branch of the Burgundian line became known as the House of Aviz, John having been grand master of the knightly order of that name. John's reign was one of the most notable in Portuguese history. He successfully defended the kingdom against Castilian attack in 1385, defeating Castile decisively in the battle of Aljubarrota. In 1386 England and Portugal allied themselves permanently by the Treaty of Windsor, and John married Philippa, daughter of John of Gaunt. However, the greatest measure of John's reign rests less upon the king's strong and able administration than upon the work done under the direction of his son, Prince Henry the Navigator in exploring the African coast in order to find an eastward route to the Indies. A century of exploration and conquest began which made Portugal one of the greatest colonial powers in the world. In 1418-1419 Portuguese navigators explored Madeira and in 1427 discovered the Azores. A successful Portuguese military campaign in Morocco resulted in the capture of Ceuta in 1415, followed by the acquisition of about half of Morocco. The work of Prince Henry's sea captains and their successors led to the institution of a planned system of exploration.

During the 16<sup>th</sup> century Portugal began to decline in commercial and political importance. A prime factor in the decay of Portuguese affairs was the expulsion, in

1496, of the Jews, depriving the kingdom of much of its middle class and exiling many of its most educated and capable citizens. The Inquisition was established in 1536 and its religious tyranny extended even to the colonies. In addition, the decadence and luxury of the Portuguese nobility gave rise to social suppression, weakening the spirit of nationalism which had characterized the previous century. The death of John III in 1557 made his grandson, Dom Sebastian, a child of three, king under a regency headed by John's brother, Cardinal Henry. Influenced by the Jesuits to organize a crusade against the Moors, Sebastian invaded North Africa in 1578 and was defeated and killed at the battle of Alcazar-Quivir on August 4, 1578. The throne of the weakened kingdom was inherited by Cardinal Henry, who died in 1580 leaving no heirs and ending the House of Aviz.

Seven claimants disputed the succession to the throne. The most powerful was Philip II of Spain, whose grandfather had been Manuel I of Portugal. A Spanish army invaded Portugal and on August 25, 1580, decisively defeated the forces of Philip's rivals. The Spanish king became Philip I of Portugal. The annexation of Portugal to the Spanish monarchy subjected it to Philip's tyranny and the heavy expenses of Spanish wars in a period known as the Sixty Years Captivity. After the defeat of the Spanish armada by England in 1588 and the subsequent loss of Spanish prestige, the Portuguese colonial empire fell apart under the repeated assaults of England, France, and the Netherlands. Portuguese discontent with Spain, which ruled the country as a minor Spanish province, climaxed in 1640. Taking advantage of a revolt in Catalonia which occupied Spain at the time, Portuguese conspirators, with the support of France, regained the independence of their kingdom. John, Duke of Braganza, was elected John IV, first king of the House of Braganza which ruled Portugal thenceforth as long as the monarch ruled.

## Portugal

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The area that is now Portugal was conquered (AD c. 5) by the Romans, overrun (from the 5<sup>th</sup> century) by Germanic tribes, and taken (711) by the Moors. Portugal became an independent kingdom in 1139 under Alfonso I, and with the conquest of Algarve in 1249 by Alfonso III the Moors were driven out and the kingdom consolidated. The reign of John I (r. 1385-1433), founder of the Aviz dynasty, introduced Portugal's glorious period of colonial and maritime expansion; by the 15<sup>th</sup> century the Portuguese empire extended to Asia, Africa and America. But decline was rapid. In 1580 Phillip II of Spain seized Portugal, which remained under Spanish rule until a revolt in 1640 established the Braganzas, Portugal's last royal line.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
Alfonso I		1139-1185	





## Royal Ancestors *from* Italy INTRODUCTION

In 476 AD the last independent Roman emperor of the West, Romulus Augustulus, was dethroned by the invading Germanic chieftain Odoacer, who thereupon succeeded to the throne. In 488 Theodoric the Great, king of the Ostrogoths, invaded Italy, and, in the following year, slew Odoacer. Theodoric ruled until his death in 526. At that time Justinian I, Emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire dispatched his two great generals Belisarius and Narses to expel the Germanic invaders from Italy. A fierce war ensued ending in 552 with the death of Teias, the last of the Gothic kings. The Byzantine sway was of short duration, however, for in 568 Italy was invaded by the Lombards, another Germanic tribe. Alboin, king of the Lombards, made Pavia the capital of his realm and from that city launched a series of campaigns which presently deprived the Byzantine power in Italy of everything except the south portion of the province and the Exarchate, or Greek Orthodox bishopric, of Ravenna in the north.

After the death of Alboin in 573, the Lombards for a time had no king. Separate bands thereupon united under regional leaders known as dukes. The Lombards, like the Goths before them, espoused the heretical creed called Arianism, with the result that they were in perpetual religious conflict with the native Italians, who were overwhelmingly supporters of orthodox Christianity. This conflict was intensified as the temporal power of the popes increased. At length, Agiluf, a new Lombard king, became a convert to orthodox Christianity, and for some time comparative harmony prevailed. However, in order to consolidate their political power, the Lombards began to encroach on papal territory, even threatening the city of Rome, the very center of church authority. In 754 Pope Stephen II summoned help from the Franks who had accepted the spiritual authority of the Church a

century earlier. Under the vigorous leadership of Pepin the Short and his son Charlemagne, the Franks conquered the Lombards, deposing the last Lombard king in 774. On Christmas Day, 800, Charlemagne was crowned Carolus Augustus, Emperor of the Romans, by Pope Leo III.

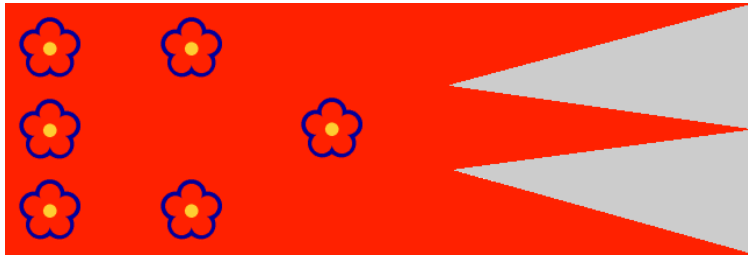
When in the 9<sup>th</sup> century, the Saracens subdued Sicily and threatened Rome, Pope Leo IV called to his aid Louis II, Charlemagne's great-grandson, who checked the progress of the invaders. The Moslems overran southern Italy after the death of Louis, and compelled the popes to pay tribute. For many years thereafter, the history of Italy is the record of the rise and fall of successive petty kings. Chief among these rulers were Guido of Spoleto, Berengar of Friuli, and Hugo of Provence. The period of anarchy ended in 962, when the Germanic leader, Otto I, after obtaining possession of northern Italy and the Lombard crown, was crowned emperor by Pope John XII. This event marked the establishment of both the Holy Roman Empire and the German nation.

### Italy

After the expulsion of the Etruscans from what is now central Italy, ancient Italian history (5<sup>th</sup> century BC-5<sup>th</sup> century AD) is largely that of the Roman Empire, of which Italy was the core. Like the rest of the empire, Italy was overrun by barbarian tribes in the early 5<sup>th</sup> century AD. The Eastern emperors struggled over its remains, but Byzantine rule was soon displaced (569) by that of the Lombards, except in Rome, where Pope Gregory I (r. 590-604) laid the foundation for the Papal States. The persisting Lombard threat against Rome brought the intervention of Pepin the Short (754-756) and Charlemagne (800), who established Frankish

hegemony over Italy. The German king Otto I invaded (961) Italy and was crowned (962) emperor by the pope; this union of Italy and Germany marked the beginning of the Holy Roman Empire.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Born</u>	<u>Reign</u>	<u>Died</u>
Berengar II of Ivrea		950-961	



## Royal Ancestors *from the* Holy Roman Empire INTRODUCTION

The Holy Roman Empire in general usage applied to an amorphous political entity of western Europe, originated by Pope Leo III in 800 AD, and in nominal existence more or less continuously until 1806. For purposes of historical accuracy, it should be noted that, in its initial stages, the organization was styled "Empire of the West" and "Roman Empire"; and that the epithet "Holy" did not appear in the official title until 1155.

The establishment of the Holy Roman Empire represented, as the original styling implies, an attempt to resuscitate the Western Roman Empire, which had collapsed in 476. Throughout the turbulent period, known in history as the Dark Ages, that followed the removal of Romulus Augustulus from the Western throne by Odoacer, the traditional concept of a temporal realm coextensive with the spiritual dominions of the Church had not been kept alive by the bishops of Rome, later referred to as the popes. The Byzantine Empire, the eastern division of Imperial Rome, retained during part of the period, nominal sovereignty over the territories formerly under control of the Western Empire, and many of the Germanic tribes that had seized these territories gave formal recognition to the overlordship of the Byzantine rulers, partly because of this circumstance and for other reasons, including dependence on Byzantine protection against the Lombards, the bishops of Rome also recognized the sovereignty of the Eastern Empire for an extended period after the enforced abdication of Romulus Augustulus.

With the coalescence of groupings of the Germanic tribes into independent Christian kingdoms during the 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> centuries, the political authority of the Byzantine emperors became practically nonexistent in the west. The spiritual influence of the western division of the Church expanded simultaneously, in particular during the pontificate of Gregory I. As the political prestige of the Byzantine Empire declined, the papacy grew increasingly resentful of interference by secular and ecclesiastical authorities at Constantinople in the affairs and practices of the

western Church. The consequent feud between the two divisions of the Church attained critical proportions during the reign of Emperor Leo III, who sought to abolish the use of images in Christian ceremonies. Roman resistance to Leo's decrees culminated in a complete rupture with Constantinople. After severance of its ties with the Byzantine Empire, the papacy nourished dreams of a revived Western Empire. Evidence exists, indeed, that certain of the popes weighed the possibility of launching such an enterprise and assuming the leadership of the projected state. In absence of the prerequisite organizational apparatus and confronted with a hostile Lombardy, the Church hierarchy, abandoning the idea of a joint spiritual and temporal realm, finally decided to confer imperial status on the then dominant western European power, the kingdom of the Franks. Several of the Frankish rulers had already, in various ways, demonstrated their fidelity to the Church, and Charlemagne, who ascended the Frankish throne in 768, had displayed ample qualifications for the exalted office, notably by the conquest in 772 of Lombardy and by the expansion of his dominions to imperial proportions.

On December 25, 800 Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne Emperor of the West, establishing both a precedent and a political structure that were destined to figure decisively in the affairs of central Europe. The precedent, inauguration of the papal prerogative in the selection and coronation of the emperors of the West, endured for nearly 700 years. In its primary stage, the resurrected Western empire endured, as an effective political entity, less than 25 years after the death in 814 of Charlemagne. The reign of his son and successor Louis I was marked by intensive feudal and fratricidal strife, climaxed in 843, by the partition of the Empire.

Despite the dissension within the newly created Western Empire, the popes maintained the Imperial organization, except for an interlude extending from 877 to 881, for more than a century after the death of Louis I, conferring the title mainly on rulers of the

Carolingian dynasty. The emperors exercised little authority beyond the confines of their personal dominions, however. After the reign of the Lombard Berengar I, who was crowned emperor by pope John X, the Imperial throne remained vacant for nearly four decades. The East Frankish Kingdom, or Germany, capably led by Henry I and Otto I, emerged as the strongest power in Europe during this period. Besides being a capable and ambitious sovereign, Otto I was an ardent friend of the Church, as revealed by his missionary activities east of the Elbe River, and, finally, by his military campaigns, at the behest of Pope John XII, against, Berengar II of Lombardy. In 962, in recognition of Otto's service, John XI awarded him the Imperial crown and title.

Thus resurrected, the Empire of the West at first an unstable political union of Germany and Italy and later a loose union of Germanic states, remained in almost continuous existence for more than 800 years. During the Italo-German phase, the Empire played a significant role in central European politics and ecclesiastical affairs. A central feature of the history of this period was the mortal struggle between the popes and the emperors for control of the Church. All of the emperors were German kings, and because Imperial duties and ambitions inevitably required their full attention, national interests were neglected. As one result, Germany, which might have been transformed into a strong centralized state, degenerated into a multiplicity of minor states. In 1155 Frederick Barbarosa, one of the greatest emperors, added "Holy" to the Imperial designation, ostensibly to increase the sanctity of the crown.

The Holy Roman Empire had little real importance in European political and religious developments after the Great Interregnum, the event that signaled papal victory in the protracted struggle with the Empire. Beginning in 1273 with Rudolph I, the first of the Hapsburg dynasty, various German kings laid claim to the Imperial title and, in several instances, these claims were recognized by the popes. The office was little more than honorary, however, and inasmuch as the Empire comprised a loose confederation of sovereign states and principalities, Imperial authority was strictly nominal. Louis IV who assumed the title in 1314, successfully challenged the power of the papacy and, for a brief period, restored the prestige of the Empire. During the reign of Charles V, the Empire encompassed territories as extensive as those of Charlemagne. But dynastic rather than ecclesiastical principles composed the chief cohesive elements in the Imperial structure of Charles V. The medieval concept of a temporal state coextensive and in harmony with the spiritual dominions of the Church survived solely as a theory. As the Protestant Reformation gained headway, even the theory lost practical meaning. In its final phase, the Holy Roman Empire performed certain useful purposes, including

the maintenance of a measure of unity amount the component states. The later emperors, all rulers of Austria and concerned mainly with aggrandizement of their personal dominions, were mere figureheads. Futile armed interventions against the French writer Voltaire, the contemporary Holy Roman Empire was neither Holy, nor Roman, nor an Empire. Because well-founded fears that Napoleon I intended to annex the Imperial title, Francis II, the last of the emperors formally dissolved the Empire on August 6, 1806.

## Holy Roman Empire

The Holy Roman Empire is a designation for the political entity that originated at the coronation as emperor of German King Otto I in 962 and endured until the renunciation of the title by Francis II in 1806. It was the successor state to the empire founded in 800 by Charlemagne, who claimed legitimate succession to the Roman Empire. In theory, just as the pope was the vicar of God on earth in spiritual matters, so the emperor was God's temporal vicar; hence he claimed to be the supreme temporal ruler in Christendom. Actually, the power of the emperors never equaled their pretensions. Their suzerainty never included the East, and it ceased early over France, Denmark, Poland, and Hungary. Their control over England, Sweden, and Spain was never more than nominal; and their control over Italy was always in contention. The core of the empire was the various German principalities plus Austria, Bohemia, and Moravia. Switzerland, the Netherlands, and parts of northern Italy were at time included.

<u>Ruler/Ancestor</u>	<u>Dynasty</u>	<u>Reign</u>
Charlemagne	Carolingian	800-814
Louis I "The Pious"		814-840
Louis II		855-875
Charles II "The Bald"		875-877
Arnulf, King of Germany		887-899
Henry I	Saxon	919-936
Otto I "The Great"		936-973
Otto II		973-983
Conrad II	Franconian	1024-1039
Henry III		1039-1056
Henry IV		1056-1106
Frederick Barbarosa	Hohenstaufen	1152-1190
Philip of Swabia		1198-1208