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### **The Genesis of Ethnic Relations between the Peoples of the European Union on the Example of the Italian Society's Transformation in the Middle Ages**

*Abstract:* The issues of historical parallelism of events are relevant at all times because researchers are trying to find cyclically repeated processes in history that help to analyze the course of these processes at the present stage of society's development, extrapolating the past to the present. The problems of the relationship of nations in the European Union, which are carefully veiled by the EU leadership, have historically ancient origins in the struggle for territories, resources, logistical benefits and political alliances. The genesis of these contradictions is clearly shown in the example of Italy as the heiress of the Roman Empire. The study aimed to identify the complex influence of ethnic migration processes that affected the Apennine Peninsula in the period from the 4th to the 12th centuries, which led to a deep social, economic and political transformation of Italian society and the creation of a basis for relations with neighbouring peoples. The origins of ethnic and cultural contradictions laid down in the period from the 4th to the 12th centuries formed in the local first nations a fairly stable wariness and relative negativism towards neighbouring ethnic groups that became descendants of migrants from the Early and Upper Middle Ages from the East and North. To solve these problems, historical, social and economic, comparative and logical research methods were used, which helped draw the necessary conclusions and conclusions. The materials of the article are intended for scientists, students and researchers in the field of the ethnology of Europe and the Apennine Peninsula.

*Keywords:* European ethnic groups, Roman Empire, Holy Empire, Italy, Apennine Peninsula.

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### **Aktualizace parametrů vývoje efektivního ekonomického myšlení s cílem motivovat společnost k financování inovativních aktivit**

*Anotace:* Otázky historické souběžnost událostí je relevantní za všech okolností, protože vědci se snaží najít cyklické opakující se procesy v dějinách, které pomohou analyzovat průběh těchto procesů je v současné fázi vývoje společnosti, extrapolace minulosti do současnosti. Problémy se vztahy národů v Evropské Unii, které pečlivě skrýval vedením EU, mají historicky starověké počátky boje o území, zdroje, logistické výhody a politických uskupení. Na příkladu Itálie jako dědice Římské říše se jasně projevuje geneze těchto rozporů. Cílem studie bylo zjištění komplexní vliv etnických migrační procesy ovlivňující

národy, Apeninský poloostrov po 4-12 staletí, které vedly k hluboké sociálně-ekonomické a politické transformaci italské společnosti a vytvořit základ vztahů k navazujícím národům. Začleněny do 4-12 století počátky etnických a kulturních rozporů tvořily v místních přirozených národech dost stabilní bdělost a relativní negativismus k sousedním etnosům, které se staly potomci migrantů Brzy a Horní Středověku se na Východ a na Sever. Pro řešení úkolů byly použity historické, socioekonomické, srovnávací a logické výzkumné metody, které pomohly učinit nezbytné závěry a závěry. Materiály článku jsou určeny pro vědce, studenty a výzkumníky v oblasti etnologie Evropy a Apeninského poloostrova.

*Klíčová slova:* etnosy Evropy, Římská říše, Svátá říše, Itálie, Apeninský poloostrov.

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## Introduction

The issues of historical parallelism of events are relevant at all times because researchers are trying to find cyclically repeated processes in history that help to analyze the course of these processes at the present stage of society's development, extrapolating the past to the present.

The analysis of 'stations' (events of the present time) based on similar 'archions' (events of the past time, historically related to 'stations') helps to apply a more objective approach to explaining the current situation and predict the processes that may occur in the future as a variation, i.e., 'versions'.

The problems of the relationship of nations in the European Union, which are carefully veiled by the EU leadership, have historically ancient origins in the struggle for territories, resources, logistical benefits and political alliances. Peoples have a unique identity, significant differences in mentality and historical memory. So, at the social level, there is a hidden or semi-hidden psychological reaction to neighbouring peoples and countries.

The genesis of these contradictions (historical quasars) is clearly shown in the example of Italy as the heiress of the Roman Empire. Ethnic tensions and misunderstandings of the needs of neighbouring and migrating peoples are clearly understood in the complex social and economic transformation of the territory in the period from the 4<sup>th</sup> to the 12<sup>th</sup> centuries, superimposed on the motley migration map of numerous peoples of the East and North. Similar processes are taking place at the present stage of the existence of the European Community, especially in the Mediterranean region.

The subject of the study was the society of the Apennine Peninsula, which felt the processes of ethnic influence during the Middle Ages.

The study aimed to identify the complex influence of ethnic migration processes that affected the Apennine Peninsula in the period from the 4<sup>th</sup> to the 12<sup>th</sup> centuries, which led to a deep social, economic and political transformations of Italian society and the creation of a basis for relations with neighbouring peoples.

Based on this goal, the following tasks were solved in the course of the study:

- analyze the main historical stages of the social, economic and political transformations of Italian society in the Middle Ages;
- identify the fundamental and hidden reasons for the historical formation of the attitude of Italian society to neighbouring peoples;
- assess the ethnic genesis of the transformation of Italian society.

To solve these problems, historical, social and economic, comparative and logical research methods were used, which helped draw the necessary conclusions and conclusions.

## Results

### **The Period of the Great Migration of Peoples (from the 4<sup>th</sup> to the 6<sup>th</sup> Centuries)**

In 410, the Goths, led by leader Alaric I, captured the Roman Empire and Rome itself. He was supported by the slaves and most of the imperial troops, which consisted of Germans. However, the Goths soon left the Apennine Peninsula. The reason for their hasty departure was the extremely severe decline of agriculture in this territory. Large centres have long existed at the expense of food supplied from other provinces. The conquerors moved to the southern part of Gaul, where they founded their kingdom, dividing the space between their warriors. This was the beginning of the era of the Peoples Great Migration, which affected almost all areas of the late Roman Empire. The gradual cooling of the climate in Northern Europe has led to a reduction in areas suitable for animal husbandry, in particular cattle breeding. Therefore, many tribes of Eastern Europe and Scandinavia moved to Central Europe. In the second half of the 5<sup>th</sup> century, vast areas of the Western Roman Empire were liberated, and a large number of Germanic tribes began to move to them.

Within two centuries, the map of Europe has completely changed in terms of ethnicity and administrative division. The fertile valleys were divided into barbarian kingdoms. Their rulers were completely independent or subordinated only to Byzantium. The population of the barbarian peoples grew steadily. The demographic explosion was associated with several factors:

- obtaining new land to expand farmland;
- warmer climate with mild winters and warm, humid summers;
- the absence of a multi-stage supreme power with a large number of tax items.

The cultural and linguistic interpenetration of the Barbarians and the Romans became dominant in favour of the former, which led to the dissolution of the Romans and their assimilation. This led to the death of the Latin language and the Romanization of the barbaric rather rigid languages.

In this process of barbarization of the territory of the former Roman Empire, there were both positive and negative sides. A positive process can be attributed to the emergence of new cultures and the beginning of the formation of new nations. On the other hand, there was a sharp decline in European culture at the beginning of the millennium, which was completely based on Latin culture. The Huns were particularly unstable in their habitation. At first, the Empire resorted to the help of the Huns in the fight against the barbarians, but then it began to feel the power of their state, which very quickly became an important political force. In 434, under the leadership of Attila, the Huns conquered vast lands in Eastern Europe and established their empire in the former Roman region of Pannonia, now Hungary. However, already in 451, the troops of Attila were defeated on the Catalaunian fields by the outstanding Roman general Aetius. Two years later, Attila died, and the rapid decline of his young empire began. At about the same time, other contenders for the creation of a separate state appeared on the Iberian Peninsula. These were the Vandals and the Sews, who had been forced to move south from the acquired lands due to the huge influence of the Huns. The Vandals fought wars in North Africa

in 428–438 and could establish their state with its capital in Carthage. From there, they regularly attacked the lands of the Empire, and in 455, even capturing Rome, subjected it to complete devastation. In the mid-6<sup>th</sup> century, the Vandal state ceased to exist, dissolving into the Byzantine Empire.

In the mid-5th century, the Ostrogothic state, which had previously been destroyed by the Huns, was also revived. The Ostrogoths did not assimilate into the territory of the Roman Empire but sought an alliance with Byzantium. In 488, the Ostrogothic king Theodoric the Great attacked the Empire under Odoacer. Taking advantage of the non-interference of Byzantium, he conquered the entire Empire and several German regions. Ravenna became the capital of the new Ostrogothic Kingdom. Theodoric tried to restore the greatness of the Roman Empire. He restored all the state institutions of the Great Empire. There were two main political forces—the Gothic and Roman nobles, who were constantly in conflict with each other. With the death of Theodoric, the decline of the Ostrogothic state began. The internecine war escalated, and the disintegration of the institution of power began. In 534, Byzantium was able to introduce troops into the territory of the Empire. The Gothic War ended with the destruction of the Apennines. However, after a few years, Byzantium had to retreat before a new pretender to the Roman lands. The new political force was the German tribes of the ‘longbeards’ (the Lombards), who had come there earlier.

*Thus*, at the initial stage during the Dark Ages of the Middle Ages, there was a constant movement of the Eastern, Central and Southern European people, which led to a complete change in the political map of the former Great Roman Empire. These changes completely destabilized the situation in the state, sharply worsened the economic situation within the territory and led to complete ruin. Historians often refer to the period from the 4<sup>th</sup> to the 6<sup>th</sup> centuries—the Migration Period or better known as the ‘Barbarian’ Invasions. These migrations led to a greater extent to the collapse of the centuries-old economic system. However, this process was natural and inevitable. The old civilization had to give way to younger and newly emerging states, many of which could not last more than a century. It was a time of the formation of new political and economic systems.

### **The Age of Lombard Expansion (from the 6<sup>th</sup> to the 8<sup>th</sup> Centuries)**

It is impossible to understand the origins of the ethnic development of the territory of modern United Europe without considering those periods of the existence of the Roman Empire when the leading force on its territory was the peoples who came. One of these was the Lombards, a branch of the German tribes. The Lombards at the early 1<sup>st</sup> century CE lived on the left bank of the lower Elbe. By the 5<sup>th</sup> century, their tribes had moved to Pannonia. In 568, shortly after the death of Emperor Justinian, the Lombards entered the Po Valley. From them later arose the name of the province of Lombardy. Many of the Lombards had served in the Apennine Peninsula as mercenaries and were aware of the wealth of the area and the weakness of the Roman garrisons. In 586, led by King Alboin, they invaded Northern Italy. Their contingent numbered no more than 200 thousand people, along with women, children, and the elderly. At first, they moved along the rivers of the territory of modern Northern Italy, bypassing large cities. Then it was the turn of the towns. Milan, Spoleto, Benevento and other centres fell. King Alboin began the siege of Pavia, which offered a stubborn resistance. The Lombards made

Pavia their capital. They occupied the Po Valley and the inland mountain areas with rich pastures, the duchies of Spoleto and Benevento. However, they did not recapture the coasts of the Adriatic and Tyrrhenian Seas from the Empire. The journey by land between Ravenna, where the emperor's viceroy was, and Rome, where the Pope's residence was, was now interrupted. Unlike the Goths and Burgundians, the Lombards were almost not Romanized, did not know the Roman laws, still had strong family ties. Sources describe them as "a people even more savage than the rest of the wild Germans". Along with the Lombards, other tribes invaded the peninsula—the Saxons, Suevi, Gepids, Proto-Bulgars and Slavs.

In the mid-7<sup>th</sup> century, the main part of the territory of modern Italy was under the rule of the Lombards. Byzantium was left with a small territory. However, the Lombards settled most densely in Northwestern Italy. Their conquests led to the destruction of a large part of the old slave-owning nobility. The 8<sup>th</sup>-century Lombard historian Paul the Deacon noted that the conquest itself and the beginning of the rule of the Lombards were accompanied by the extermination and expulsion of the noble Romans. Under the second king of the Lombards, Clef, not only the nobility suffered but also the middle-class people. An important consequence of this conquest was the fragmentation of the large slave-holding latifundium in the northern and middle part of the peninsula. Having conquered a significant part of the Apennine Peninsula, the Lombard leaders could not share power in any way. Each duke threatened his closest neighbours. Finally, in the face of the looming threat of invasion from the north of the Franks, the Lombards elected Otari king. However, five years later, he was poisoned. They more gradually absorbed the rich culture of the defeated Empire. Among the Germanic barbarians, skilled artisans and educated officials appeared. In the Otari tomb, researchers found original products of the Lombard masters, including a tray where the chicken family pecks at the golden grains. Theodolinda, the widow of King Otari, married Agilulf, Duke of Turin, who was elected king of the Lombards. According to legend, on the orders of Theodolinda, the so-called (iron) crown of the Lombards was made especially for the coronation of Agilulf, consisting of six gold plates decorated with precious stones and mounted on an iron hoop made from another 'Crucifixion Nail', which later crowned all the kings of Italy up to Napoleonic times. Theodolinda herself came from a Bavarian royal family and was a Christian who supported the Roman Church. It allowed the pope to establish contacts with her and begin to slowly incline the Lombards to his faith. In the meantime, the Lombards periodically besieged Rome, only receiving large compensation. Pope Gregory, later called the Great, had difficulty reaching peace with them. However, the main problem for the Lombard kings was the struggle for power with their dukes. Only King Rotary, the son-in-law of Theodolinda, managed to significantly limit the power of the dukes by the mid-7<sup>th</sup> century and introduce the first legislative acts in the kingdom, written in the image and likeness of the Roman ones. In these laws, the Romans were provided with virtually no rights, and the highest race was declared only the Lombards, who had long established themselves on the peninsula.

The Lombard Kingdom's political system in the period of the 7<sup>th</sup> and 8<sup>th</sup> centuries was characterized by the disappearance of tribal institutions and the emergence of an early feudal state. Having conquered the peninsula, having destroyed the old municipal system of the Roman Empire, the Lombards had to organize state power to subdue the local population and establish the rule of the military nobility over the ordinary commoners. The general assembly of the

Lombards was no longer assembled. There were only meetings at which laws were promulgated. The king, elected by the nobility, had the highest military and judicial power, the right to mint coins. He established taxes and duties and had the right of a mundium concerning all subjects. His power was ensured by the fact that he was the largest owner in the country. In favour of the royal power were court fines, duties, part of the wergeld. However, the peculiarity of the Lombard kingdom was to maintain the strong power of the dukes next to the royal power. The dukes assembled a military militia, had their squads, had judicial power, and received court fines. The kings tried to limit the power of the dukes and arrogate to themselves the right of their appointment.

After the death of King Clef, the dukes, having fortified themselves on the peninsula, ruled independently for ten years from 574 to 584 and significantly strengthened their positions. The Dukes of Spoleto and Benevento were particularly independent. However, the danger from the Franks and the Byzantines forced them to elect a king again. But for the royal power to have material support, they had to give the king half of their lands. So, the royal lands began to be wedged into the ducal possessions. To strengthen their position, the kings appointed Gastalds to their estates, who served as the king's judicial and political temporary agents and managers of the royal estates. There were constant disagreements between the dukes and the Gastalds.

The Lombard king, like the Frankish king, ruled with the help of the closest servants of the palace mayor, the head of the stables, and the dukes. The people played almost no role in court decisions. The army at first had the character of a general militia but, in the 8<sup>th</sup> century, due to the devastation of the population, all free people were divided into three groups based on property and, accordingly, were armed differently. The greatest power of the royal power of the Lombards reached under Liutprand. He managed to subdue the Dukes of Spoleto and Benevento and to capture Ravenna. However, to weaken the dukes, Liutprand widely distributed the church lands to private individuals, which led to a further weakening of the central government.

Already in the 7<sup>th</sup> century, the Lombards began to assimilate the Latin language, customs and clothing of the local population, the Italian people not only were not destroyed by the barbarian conquerors but managed to assimilate the Germanic elements. The conditions were different in the Byzantine regions. The Exarchate of Ravenna, the Pentapolis of Ancona, the Roman Ducat, Liguria until the mid-7<sup>th</sup> century, Apulia, Bruttia, and Naples remained under Byzantine rule. The Byzantine military administration, i.e., the exarch, and the civil administration, i.e., the tribunes, were extremely mercenary. In the period from the 6<sup>th</sup> to the 8<sup>th</sup> centuries, the Byzantine regions saw a slow evolution of large Roman land ownership. The estate was still divided into two parts: the master's land, cultivated by slaves and colonists, and the peasant allotments. However, slavery began to soften. The slaves planted on the land began to merge with the colonists and tenants into one group of the dependent peasantry. Unlike the Lombard regions, there was almost no free population and free, independent communities in the period from the 6<sup>th</sup> to the 8<sup>th</sup> centuries. With the general naturalization of the economy, foreign trade was developed in the Byzantine regions. The ports of the southern part of the peninsula-maintained trade relations with Sicily, the Aegean coast and Constantinople.

The struggle of the Lombard kings for the subjugation of the entire peninsula was not crowned with success, as they met with resistance from the papacy, acting in alliance with the

Frankish state. At the end of the 8<sup>th</sup> century, the Lombard Kingdom was conquered by Charlemagne and became part of the Carolingian Empire. According to the Treaty of Verdun in 843, the territory of the former Lombard Kingdom was again separated, but this time as a combination of separate duchies and feudal possessions.

*Thus*, the Lombards thoroughly destroyed the remnants of the rule of the Roman Empire on the territory of the peninsula. They minimized the assimilation of culture and the institution of state power, consolidating for two centuries their order of government, based on the strong power of the dukes and the coordinating essence of the centre. Economic relations began to be built anew, trade relations with other territories of Europe and the Mediterranean changed depending on the political relations between the Lombards and their neighbours—Byzantium.

### **The Barbarization of Europe under the Empire of Otto (the 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> Centuries)**

The next stage of the ethnographic development of Europe and the Roman Empire was the Barbarian domination period and the Ottonian Empire existence. In the second half of the 9<sup>th</sup> century and the first half of the 10<sup>th</sup> century, barbarian troops descended on Western Europe. Vikings landed on the west coast. Central Europe, especially Germany, was invaded from the East. At the beginning of the 9<sup>th</sup> century, the Hungarians, who were already nomadic in the southern foothills of the Urals, moved to the Black Sea region and at the end of the century, they moved west and captured the Danube Plain. From there, they raided Germany, reaching the Apennine Peninsula and the eastern regions of the territory of modern France. The need to repel the enemy was particularly acute in Germany. The royal power in Germany possessed quite considerable military and financial resources since it retained a free population to a greater extent. But the German kings had powerful opponents in the person of the dukes. Charlemagne tried to abolish the duchies, but these areas, inhabited by the descendants of various Swabians, Bavarians and Saxons, survived. With the collapse of the Carolingian Empire, the power of the dukes increased. It was they who chose the kings or approved their heirs, with their consent, the Saxon dynasty ascended to the German throne. The second king of that dynasty, Otto I (936-973), set about strengthening the state. He sought support from the petty knights and ecclesiastical landowners who wanted to find the sovereign's protection from the dukes. An important pillar of Otto's power was the church. This organization was powerful: bishops had to keep a vow of celibacy and could not pass on their offices and possessions by inheritance. Following the established practice, the king himself appointed bishops.

Otto I suppressed the rebellions of the dukes, dissatisfied with the strengthening of his power. Some of them placed in closer dependence on himself, others he removed from power and appointed in their place members of his family or bishops. The strengthening of the central government has produced tangible results. In 955, the Hungarians were defeated on the Lech River near Augsburg, and they did not resume their raids. Later, in 1000, the leader of the Hungarians, Gaik, was baptized under the name of Stephen and became the first king of Hungary. In the era of Otto I, German pressure on the Slavs, primarily the Polabians, who lived along the Elbe River, increased. These peoples did not create a single state and fought not only with the Germans but also among themselves. Since the time of Charlemagne, Germany has fought 175 wars with the Slavic peoples for 367 years. Wars have been especially active since the beginning of the 10th century. Then the Germans captured the Slavic stronghold of Branibor

(since then Brandenburg). The lands, captured from the Slavs, were transformed into the Brandenburg Mark, or border region, which later played a huge role in the history of Germany. Appointed by Otto I, the first Margrave of Brandenburg, Hero the Iron, invited 30 Slavic princes to a feast and ordered them to be killed. The result was an uprising in the Slavic lands. The Germans had to leave these territories, which they managed to finally conquer in the 11<sup>th</sup> century only.

Strengthening his power with the help of the bishops, Otto could not help but interfere in the affairs of the popes, to whom these bishops were subordinate in ecclesiastical matters. Taking advantage of the strife among the Italian princes, he invaded the Apennine Peninsula and in 956 took the crown of Italy. At that time, the papal power in Rome was extremely weakened. It was controlled by Italian magnates. This increased the discontent of the population of Rome. The newly elected Pope turned to Otto for help. He entered Rome in 962. The Pope placed the crown of the Roman emperors on the German king, and the German royal and Imperial crowns have since become inseparable. The Western Roman Empire was restored for the second time after 800. This newly formed state was later called the Holy Roman Empire. It differed not only from the ancient Roman Empire but also from the Carolingian state. In addition to Germany, Italy and parts of the Kingdom of Lothar, it includes the lands of the Polabian Slavs, i.e., the Slavic peoples who lived along the Elbe River, and the modern Czech Republic, which were conquered by the Germans in the tenth century. The Empire core was the Germanic peoples. Otto I sought full power over the church and recognition of his title by the Byzantine emperors. He appointed popes and demanded their obedience. He married his son, the future Emperor Otto II, to the Byzantine princess Theophano. The fruit of their marriage was Otto III (983–1002), who became emperor in three years old. At the age of fourteen, in 994, he assumed independent rule over Germany and the Empire. Under the influence of his mother, he intended to remake his state in a Byzantine, strictly centralized way. Entrusting the administration of the German lands to his aunt, he began to implement his projects.

All that Otto III accomplished was at the time of about the year 1000. Contemporaries, relying on obscure words of Scripture, believed that in 1000, the End of the World would come. The confusion of minds affected many, and Otto III was one of them. The young man seriously believed that he could be the last emperor. From his viewpoint, the end of earth's history was to be the restoration of a great, truly Christian empire led by a great, truly Christian emperor. Until the reign of Otto III, the emperors, his grandfather, father, and Charlemagne were German kings, and they appeared in Rome from time to time to confirm their rank and restore order in the church. Otto III moved his residence to Rome, feeling like a true Roman emperor. He sealed his documents with a special seal with the inscription 'Renewal of the Roman Empire', established a complex hierarchical system of court and state ranks, borrowed from Byzantium, and celebrated the triumph on the model of the ancient emperors. In the construction of the Christian empire, he was assisted by his teacher Herbert of Aurillac, a man of low birth, one of the most educated people of the era, a philosopher, mathematician, musician and astronomer. Otto raised Gerberg to the papal throne under the name of Sylvester II in the following year.

The Romans could hardly bear the presence of the Germans in the Eternal City and raised riots. Otto reproached them for this. The Romans refused to accept the benefits, and Otto and Sylvester were forced to leave Rome. Otto died unexpectedly at the age of 22 during a campaign



against Rome. His successor immediately withdrew his troops from Italy. Another attempt to restore the Empire failed. It was the last attempt to recreate the Empire in its perfect form. Subsequent emperors did not forget about the claims to the role of the Christian world head, to power over the church and Italy. But they justified these rights by the fact that the German kings were also Roman emperors. Rome remained a dream, an idea, a political myth, but not the real seat of the emperors, who made only coronation campaigns there.

*Thus*, the brief era of the Ottonian rule brought only some changes to the state of society of the Roman Empire and the peoples who inhabited the peninsula. The creation of the Holy Empire did not change the situation of the Apennine Peninsula peoples, which remained only nominally the political centre of Europe and the entire Mediterranean. In reality, the peninsula territory continued to sink into the abyss of economic, social and administrative crisis, caused not so much by the constant fragmentation of the provinces into small duchies and city-polises, but by the influence of people's alien to them in mentality, identity and values.

### **High Middle Ages Period (from the 10<sup>th</sup> to the 13<sup>th</sup> Centuries)**

The Italian lands throughout the Dark Ages had no political independence. After the collapse of the Roman Empire, the fertile lands of the Apennine Peninsula became a tasty morsel for many conquerors. The Lombard Kingdom played a positive role in the history of Northern Italy. The unity of these regions was not broken even when the Franks destroyed the Lombards and annexed the Italian lands to their possessions. The Papal region, which was under the full control of the church, did not lose its cultural and economic connection with the rest of the northern Italian regions. the relative political stability and integrity led to a revival of various crafts and agriculture in Northern Italy. Later, when Italy was separated from the Frankish Empire, the cities of the northern and central regions provided it with an unprecedented cultural and economic rise, which brought Italy in the period from the 12<sup>th</sup> to the 15<sup>th</sup> centuries, during the High Middle Ages, to the first place in Western Europe.

Around the same time as the Lombard conquest in the North and South Italy came under Byzantine rule. In military and political terms, the southern Italian regions were much weaker than the northern ones—the Byzantine emperors had enough worries in the Middle East. They were not able to hold the land in the Apennines. In the 9<sup>th</sup> century, Sicily, and then much of the south of the peninsula, was conquered by the Arabs. The Normans came there a century later. The frequent change of dominant peoples had to affect the cultural identity of the southern Italian regions, but it also led to political instability and economic underdevelopment. Southern Italy at the beginning of the Early Middle Ages was formed mainly as an agricultural region. The gap between the North and South eventually became a deep chasm. Italy suffered from feudal fragmentation much more than all other European countries.

The history of Italy as an independent European state began after the division of Verdun secured the Italian possessions of the Franks to Lothair. However, Italy did not exist as a single state until the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century. The history of Italy in the Middle Ages, in the Renaissance and in Modern Times is the history of individual city-states and regions that sometimes led an independent policy, then found themselves under the control of stronger neighbours. However, by the 10<sup>th</sup> century, an ethnic community had already developed on the territory of Italy, and in

political and economic terms, the territory developed in the same way as other monolithic countries of Western Europe.

Allodial land ownership passed into the Frankish Kingdom and was widespread in Italy. A feature of the Italian economy in the period from the 9<sup>th</sup> to the 11<sup>th</sup> centuries was the development of commodity-money relations. The land became an object of purchase and sale. Not only local landowners but also large feudal lords bought plots from ruined small owners. Many residents of the cities treated the purchase of arable land as an extremely profitable investment. Hired peasants in Italy worked mainly in the fields owned by the inhabitants of the cities. Due to this, there was no complete division of land between the noble feudal lords in the provinces in Italy. Independent peasant farms of various forms of land ownership played a more important role in Italian agriculture than in other countries. The rise of agriculture in the Italian lands was rapid. It created a solid foundation for further economic growth throughout the country.

Another important factor in the rapid economic development of Italy after 1000 was the preservation of the Apennine Peninsula of many cities founded in the Roman era. Barbarian raids, decades-long epidemics, wars, and famines have undermined the role of cities in society, but they have not destroyed them. Therefore, during the period of economic recovery, Italy had an excellent base for the handicraft industries' development. In the ancient era, Italian cities were mainly shopping centres. In the Middle Ages, their economic functions changed dramatically. Trade in the cities, of course, has not disappeared. But the entire trading system of the Middle Ages was rebuilt anew, without reference to the trade and transport system of antiquity. Antiquity traded 'horizontally' on the geographical map, while the Middle Ages traded 'vertically'. Therefore, most transport routes need to be re-established. In the 9<sup>th</sup> century, the most important commercial and industrial point in northern Italy was Pavia, the royal residence. This city was located in an extremely convenient location, in the basin of the Po River, the most important northern Italian trade artery. Pavia hosted the largest fairs in Western Europe every year. In all major Italian cities at the turn of the 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> centuries, numerous corporations of artisans were created. These organizations, which aimed to protect free artisans from the authorities and large feudal lords, soon turned into workshops, self-governing bodies of citizens, which played an exceptional role in the political life of Italian cities in the period from the 12<sup>th</sup> to 14<sup>th</sup> centuries.

The cities of Northern Italy are famous for their weaving industries. In the 10<sup>th</sup> century, the best European fine cloth was produced in Lucca, Genoa, Milan, and Verona. Gradually, a kind of specialization emerged among the Italian cities. Milan was famous for weapons production, Genoa, Verona, and other centres of northwestern Italy for cloth. Coastal port towns were actively involved in international trade. On the west coast, the main commercial port was Genoa, which maintained its position on the sea for several centuries. In the east, at this time, the star of Venice was rising, and the development of cities led to a rapid general economic rise in Italy. But economic growth, in this case, played a negative political role. Since the Italian regions did not have a single political centre in the period from the 9<sup>th</sup> to the 11<sup>th</sup> centuries, each city conducted its policy, and a desperate struggle developed between them. Both merchants and artisans worked primarily for buyers from other countries. Consequently, the domestic market in Italy did not simply exist for a long time. Economic disunity also led to political disunity.

From a formal point of view, Italy was a kingdom. Representatives of some noble Italian families tried to ascend to the throne of Italy after the death of the last king of the Carolingian dynasty. After several years of wars between the pretenders, the German king Otto appeared in Italy. However, the German emperors, starting from the 11<sup>th</sup> century, were not interested in Italy as a territory of economic development. Consequently, in Italy, political and economic life resembled a motley diagram by the beginning of the High Middle Ages. The central and northern regions of Italy were more actively involved in European politics than the South. The 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> centuries were the period of the birth of national identity for Italy. The main problem on the way to the country unification, dreamed of by the best minds of Italy, was the language. No other country in Europe, whose language grew out of Latin, had so many local dialects. Often, in two neighbouring villages, people spoke two completely different dialects. The secular literary tradition originated in Sicily, where there was a brilliant school of poetry. Then the centre of literary creativity moved to Central Italy, to Bologna, and later to Florence. There a new literary movement was born, called the 'sweet new style'. From the school of stylists came Dante Alighieri, the greatest Italian poet, the creator of the classical literary Italian language. The Stylists wrote in the Florentine dialect, and this dialect formed the basis of the literacy language. Dante, followed by Petrarch and Boccaccio, formed a practical grammar in the Italian way. They did not write a single textbook that set out clear rules and regulations. They were developed practically, and they were equal to most of the writers and poets of Italy in the following centuries. However, even a single literary language did not unite the Italians into a single state. In the South, the Kingdom of the Two Sicilias lived its life, virtually ruled from France. In the centre of the country, the Tuscany region was first strengthened, the centre of which was Florence. Lombardy, one of the regions of Northern Italy, was also strong in economic and political terms. In the east and west of the country, the two general merchant republics of the Middle Ages—Venice and Genoa—developed a rapid activity.

*Thus*, the Italian society and the peoples who inhabited the peninsula during the previous 15-20 centuries felt the strongest influence of the alien peoples of the East and North. It led to the emergence of persistent dissatisfaction with their position in the European community in general and the Mediterranean community particularly. As a result, the social, economic and political transformations that took place in the period from the 10<sup>th</sup> to the 12<sup>th</sup> centuries also shaped the ethnic transformations of Italian society.

### Discussion

The correlation issue of the past with the present for predicting the future processes is the most difficult in scientific analysis. Therefore, in the framework of this study, it is necessary to focus deeper on solving the following problems:

1. Creating a method for a more correct ratio of 'archions' and 'stations' to minimize the generation of 'versions', i.e., future processes within the period under study.
2. Creation of a comprehensive map of the migration of the peoples of Europe and the East in the European space from the 4<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> centuries based on modern advances in genetics.
3. Drawing up a correct and unbiased psychological map of the average representative of each stratum of society in a region or territory at each historical stage of the development of Europe.

The solution of these scientific directions will contribute to a more comprehensive analysis of the problems of combining national identity and genetically formed relations of neighbouring peoples concerning each ethnic group.

### Conclusion

The eight centuries of the Early and High Middle Ages, which gradually transformed the Roman Empire into the Holy Empire, radically influenced the situation of the Apennine Peninsula indigenous peoples, later united by a single name of the Italian nation. The tribes that inhabited the peninsula in the 2<sup>nd</sup> millennium BC and dominated there for 20-25 centuries gradually found themselves on the margins of ethnic dominance. The reason for this was several migration waves that radically changed the economic and political situation of the region and the social status of the peoples.

The newcomers from the East and partly from the North adopted the high culture of the Apennine Peninsula peoples. However, they tried to preserve their identity. It caused a fundamental rejection of most of the indigenous population from the assimilating ones. As a result, this led to a social conflict of the new alien ruling elites of the local nobility. However, thanks to its favourable geo-economic position, Italy retained favourable preferences, which later allowed us to talk about the revival of civilization in the form of the richest city-polis, which concentrated all the achievements of science and art in Europe.

Nevertheless, the origins of ethnic and cultural contradictions laid down in the period from the 4<sup>th</sup> to 12<sup>th</sup> centuries formed in the local first nations a fairly stable wariness and relative negativism towards neighbouring ethnic groups that became descendants of migrants from the Early and Upper Middle Ages from the East and North.

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