Catholic Church. This was by no means the first crisis in the church's fifteen-hundred-year history, but its consequences were more far-reaching than anyone at Worms in 1521 could have imagined.

Throughout the Middle Ages, the Christian church had continued to assert its primacy of position. It had overcome defiance of its temporal authority by emperors and kings, and challenges to its doctrines had been crushed by the Inquisition and combated by new religious orders that carried its message of salvation to all the towns and villages of medieval Europe. The growth of the papacy had paralleled the growth of the church, but by the end of the Middle Ages, challenges to papal authority from the rising power of monarchical states had resulted in a loss of papal temporal authority. An even greater threat to papal authority and church unity arose in the sixteenth century when the unity of Christendom was shattered by the Reformation.

The movement begun by Martin Luther when he made his dramatic stand quickly spread across Europe, a clear indication of dissatisfaction with Catholic practices. Within a short time, new forms of religious practices, doctrines, and organizations, including Zwinglianism, Calvinism, Anabaptism, and Anglicanism, were attracting adherents all over Europe. Although seemingly helpless to stop the new Protestant churches, the Catholic Church also underwent a reformation and managed to revive its fortunes by the midsixteenth century. All too soon, the doctrinal divisions between Protestants and Catholics led to a series of religious wars that dominated the history of western Europe in the second half of the sixteenth century. -

Prelude to Reformation



FOCUS QUESTION: What were the chief ideas of the Christian humanists, and how did they differ from the ideas of the Protestant reformers?

Martin Luther's reform movement was by no means the first. During the second half of the fifteenth century, the new Classical learning that was part of Italian Renaissance humanism spread to northern Europe and spawned a movement called Christian or northern Renaissance humanism whose major goal was the reform of Christianity.

Christian or Northern Renaissance Humanism

Like their Italian counterparts, northern humanists cultivated a knowledge of the classics, the bond that united all humanists into a kind of international fellowship. In returning to the writings of antiquity, northern humanists (also called Christian humanists because of their profound preoccupation with religion) focused on the sources of early Christianity, the Holy Scriptures and the writings of such church fathers as Augustine,

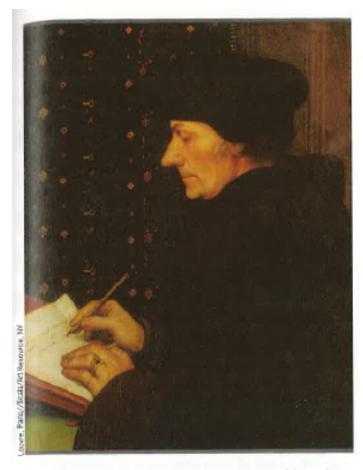
Ambrose, and Jerome. In these early Christian writings, they discovered a simple religion that they came to feel had been distorted by the complicated theological arguments of the Middle Ages.

The most important characteristic of northern humanism was its reform program. Convinced of the ability of human beings to reason and improve themselves, the northern humanists felt that through education in the sources of Classical, and especially Christian, antiquity, they could instill a true inner piety or an inward religious feeling that would bring about a reform of the church and society. For this reason, Christian humanists supported schools, brought out new editions of the classics, and prepared new editions of the Bible and writings of the church fathers. In the preface to his edition of the Greek New Testament, the famous humanist Erasmus wrote:

I disagree very much with those who are unwilling that Holy Scripture, translated into the vulgar tongue, be read by the uneducated, as if Christ taught such intricate doctrines that they could scarcely be understood by very few theologians, or as if the strength of the Christian religion consisted in men's ignorance of it.... I would that even the lowliest women read the Gospels and the Pauline Epistles. And I would that they were translated into all languages so that they could be read and understood not only by Scots and Irish but also by Turks and Saracens. . . . Would that, as a result, the farmer sing some portion of them at the plow, the weaver hum some parts of them to the movement of his shuttle, the traveler lighten the weariness of the journey with stories of this kind?

This belief in the power of education would remain an important characteristic of European civilization. Like later intellectuals, Christian humanists believed that to change society, they must first change the human beings who compose it. Although some critics have called the Christian humanists naive, they were in fact merely optimistic. The turmoil of the Reformation, however, shattered much of this intellectual optimism, as the lives and careers of two of the most prominent Christian humanists, Desiderius Erasmus and Thomas More, illustrate,

ERASMUS The most influential of all the Christian humanists was Desiderius Erasmus (dez-ih-DEER-ee-uss ih-RAZZmus) (1466-1536), who formulated and popularized the reform program of Christian humanism. Born in Holland, Erasmus was educated at one of the schools of the Brothers of the Common Life (see Chapter 11). He wandered to France, England, Italy, Germany, and Switzerland, conversing everywhere in the Classical Latin that might be called his mother tongue. The Handbook of the Christian Knight, printed in 1503, reflected his preoccupation with religion. He called his conception of religion "the philosophy of Christ," by which he meant that Christianity should be a guiding philosophy for the direction of daily life rather than the system of dogmatic beliefs and practices that the medieval church seemed to stress. In other words, he emphasized inner piety and de-emphasized the external forms of religion (such as the sacraments, pilgrimages, fasts, veneration of saints, and relics). To return to the simplicity of the early church, people needed



Erasmus. Desiderius Erasmus was the most influential of the northern Renaissance humanists. He sought to restore Christianity to the early simplicity found in the teachings of Jesus. This portrait of Erasmus was painted in 1523 by Hans Holbein the Younger, who had formed a friendship with the great humanist while they were both in Basel.

to understand the original meaning of the Scriptures and the writings of the early church fathers. Because Erasmus thought that the standard Latin edition of the Bible, known as the Vulgate, contained errors, he edited the Greek text of the New Testament from the earliest available manuscripts and published it, along with a new Latin translation, in 1516. Erasmus also wrote Annotations, a detailed commentary on the Vulgate Bible itself. In his day, Erasmus's work on the New Testament was considered his most outstanding achievement, and Martin Luther himself would use Erasmus's work as the basis for his German translation of the New Testament.

To Erasmus, the reform of the church meant spreading an understanding of the philosophy of Jesus, providing enlightened education in the sources of early Christianity, and making common-sense criticisms of the abuses in the church. This last is especially evident in *The Praise of Folly*, written in 1509, in which Erasmus engaged in humorous yet effective criticism of the most corrupt practices of his own society. He was especially harsh on the abuses within the ranks of the clergy (see the box on p. 370).

Erasmus's program did not achieve the reform of the church that he so desired. His moderation and his emphasis on education were quickly overwhelmed by the passions of the Reformation. Undoubtedly, though, his work helped prepare the way for the Reformation; as contemporaries proclaimed, "Erasmus laid the egg that Luther hatched." Yet Erasmus eventually disapproved of Luther and the Protestant reformers. He had no intention of destroying the unity of the medieval Christian church; rather, his whole program was based on reform within the church.

THOMAS MORE The son of a London lawyer, Thomas More (1478–1535) received the benefits of a good education. Although trained in the law, he took an avid interest in the new Classical learning and became proficient in both Latin and Greek. Like the Italian humanists, who believed in putting their learning at the service of the state, More embarked on a public career that ultimately took him to the highest reaches of power as lord chancellor of England.

His career in government service, however, did not keep More from the intellectual and spiritual interests that were so dear to him. He was well acquainted with other English humanists and became an intimate friend of Erasmus. He made translations from Greek authors and wrote both prose and poetry in Latin. A devout man, he spent many hours in prayer and private devotions. Contemporaries praised his household as a shining model of Christian family life.

More's most famous work, and one of the most controversial of his age, was *Utopia*, written in 1516. This literary masterpiece is an account of the idealistic life and institutions of
the community of Utopia (Greek for "nowhere"), an imaginary island in the vicinity of the recently discovered New
World. It reflects More's own concerns with the economic,
social, and political problems of his day. He presented a new
social system in which cooperation and reason replaced
power and fame as the proper motivating agents for human
society. Utopian society, therefore, was based on communal
ownership rather than private property. All residents of Utopia worked nine hours a day, regardless of occupation, and
were rewarded according to their needs. Possessing abundant
leisure time and relieved of competition and greed, Utopians
were free to lead wholesome and enriching lives.

In serving King Henry VIII, More came face to face with the abuses and corruption he had criticized in *Utopia*. But he did not allow idealism to outweigh his own ultimate realism, and in *Utopia* itself he justified his service to the king:

If you can't completely eradicate wrong ideas, or deal with inveterate vices as effectively as you could wish, that's no reason for turning your back on public life altogether.... On the other hand, it's no use attempting to put across entirely new ideas, which will obviously carry no weight with people who are prejudiced against them. You must go to work indirectly. You must handle everything as tactfully as you can, and what you can't put right you must try to make as little wrong as possible. For things will never be perfect, until human beings are perfect—which I don't expect them to be for quite a number of years.²

More's religious devotion and belief in the universal Catholic Church ultimately proved even more important than his service to the king, however. While in office, More's intolerance of heresy led him to advocate persecution of those who would fundamentally change the Catholic Church. Moreover,

smus: In Praise of Folly

THE PRAISE FOLLY IS ONE OF THE MOST famous pieces of literature proed in the sixteenth century. Erasmus, who ne during a visit to the home of Thomas wrote it in a short More, considered it a ittle diversion" from his "serious work." Yet both contem raries and later generations have appreciated "this laughing p rody of every form and rank of human life." In this selection, E mus belittles one of his lavorite objects of scorn, the monks hey were, however, merely one of the many groups he di

Erasmas, The Praise of Folly

Those who are the closest to these [the theologi happiness are generally called "the religious" or "me both of which are deceiving names, since for the most they stay as far away from religion as possible and frequen every sort of place. I [Folly] cannot, however, see how any life could be more gloomy than the life of these monks if I did not assist them in many ways. Though most people de these men so much that accidentally meeting one is considered to be bad luck, the monks themselves be they are magnificent creatures. One of their chie that to be illiterate is to be of a high state of ictity, and so they make sure that they are not able to d. Another is that when braying out their gospels in chu they are making ng to God, when in fact themselves very pleasing and satis they are uttering these psalms a matter of repetition rather than from their hearts.

Moreover, it is amus to find that they insist that everything be done i astidious detail, as if employing the ematics, a small mistake in which would be orderliness of ma a great crime ast so many knots must be on each shoe and the shoel may be of only one specified color; just so much

lace is allowed on each habit; the girdle must be of jus right material and width; the hood of a certain shap capacity; their hair of just so many fingers' lengt and finally they can sleep only the specified number of airs per day. Can they not understand that, because of a va ry of bodies and temperaments, all this equality of res ctions is in fact very unequal? Nevertheless, because of d this detail that they employ they think that they; superior to all other people. And what is more, amid all meir pretense of Apostolic charity. the members of one of er will denounce the members of another order claps ously because of the way in which the habit has been b ated or the slightly darker color of it...

iem work so hard at protocol and at traditional less that they think one heaven hardly a suitable 4 for their labors; never recalling, however, that the e will come when Christ will demand a reckoning of that ch he had prescribed, namely charity, and that he will eir deeds of little account. One monk will then exhibit filled with every kind of fish; another will profess a fover a hundred hymns. Still another will reveal a countless no per of fasts that he has made, and will belly by explaining that his fasts have account for his las always been broken i a single large meal. Another will show a list of church ceremo over which he has officiated so large that it would fill sever



What are Erasmus's main o isms of monks? What do you think he hoped to achie by this satirical you think the attack on monastic practices? Ho circulation of many printed copies of attacks would have affected popular attitudes to Gatholic Church?

the Preise of Folly" from THE ESSENTIAL EXASMUS by Erasmus, translated by John P. Dolan, copyright in 1964 by John P. Dolan, Used by permission of Dumon Signet, a division of

always the man of conscience, More willingly gave up his life opposing England's break with the Roman Catholic Church over the divorce of King Henry VIII.

Church and Religion on the Eve of the Reformation

Corruption in the Catholic Church was another factor that spurred people to want reform. No doubt the failure of the Renaissance popes to provide spiritual leadership had affected the spiritual life of all Christendom. The papal court's preoccupation with finances had an especially strong impact on the clergy. So did the economic changes of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Increasingly, nobles or wealthy members of the bourgeoisie held the highest positions among the clergy. Moreover, to increase their revenues, high church officials (bishops, archbishops, and cardinals) took over more than one church office. This so-called pluralism led in turn to absenteeism: church officeholders ignored their duties and hired underlings who sometimes lacked the proper qualifications. Complaints about the ignorance and ineptness of parish priests became widespread in the fifteenth century.

THE SEARCH FOR SALVATION While many of the leaders of the church were failing to meet their responsibilities, ordinary people were clamoring for meaningful religious expression and certainty of salvation. As a result, for some the salvation process became almost mechanical. As more and more people sought certainty of salvation through veneration of relics, collections of such objects grew. Frederick the Wise, elector of Saxony and Martin Luther's prince, had amassed more than 19,000 relics to which were attached indulgences that could reduce one's time in purgatory by nearly 2 million years. (An indulgence, you will recall, is a remission, after death, of all or part of the punishment for sin.) Other people sought cerrainty of salvation in the popular mystical movement known as the Modern Devotion, which downplayed religious dogma and stressed the need to follow the teachings of Jesus. Thomas à Kempis, author of The Imitation of Christ, wrote that "truly, at the day of judgment we shall not be examined by what we have read, but what we have done; not how well we have spoken, but how religiously we have lived."

What is striking about the revival of religious piety in the fifteenth century-whether expressed through such external forces as the veneration of relics and the buying of indulgences or the mystical path—was its adherence to the orthodox beliefs and practices of the Catholic Church. The agitation for certainty of salvation and spiritual peace occurred within the framework of the "holy mother Church." But disillusionment grew as the devout experienced the clergy's inability to live up to their expectations. The deepening of religious life, especially in the second half of the fifteenth century, found little echo among the worldly-wise clergy, and this environment helps explain the tremendous and immediate impact of Luther's ideas.

CALLS FOR REFORM At the same time, several sources of reform were already at work within the Catholic Church at the end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth century. Especially noticeable were the calls for reform from the religious orders of the Franciscans, Dominicans, and Augustinians. Members of these groups put particular emphasis on preaching to laypeople. One of the popular preachers was Johannes Geiler of Kaisersberg (KY-zerz-bayrk), who denounced the corruption of the clergy.

The Oratory of Divine Love, first organized in Italy in 1497, was not a religious order but an informal group of clergy and laymen who worked to foster reform by emphasizing personal spiritual development and outward acts of charity. The "philosophy of Christ," advocated by the Christian humanist Erasmus, was especially appealing to many of them. The Oratory's members included a number of cardinals who favored church reform. A Spanish archbishop, Cardinal Ximenes, was especially active in using Christian humanism to reform the church. To foster spirituality among the people, he had a number of religious writings, including Thomas à Kempis's The Imitation of Christ, translated into Spanish.

Lartin Luther and the Retermation in Germany



S QUESTION: What were Martin Luther's main disage sments with the Roman Catholic Church, and what political economic, and social conditions help explain why the sovement he began spread so quickly across Europe?

The Protestant Reformation began with typical medieval question: What must I do to be saved? My tin Luther, a deeply religious man, found an answer that did no the traditional teachings of the late medieval

ltimately, he split with that church, destroying the religious ity of western Christendom. That other people were conce sed with the same question is evident in the rapid spread of se Reformation. But religion was so entangled in the economic, and political forces of the period that the Prote ant reformers' hope of transforming the church quickly proved illusory.

The Early Luther

Martin Lu er was born in Germany on November 10, 1483. His father winted him to become a lawyer, so Luther enrolled at the University of Erfurt, where he received his bachelor's degree in 150. Three years later, after becoming a master in the liberal arts, he young man began to study law. But Luther was not content not in small part due to his long-standing religious inclinations. That summer, while returning to Erfurt after a brief visit home he was caught in a ferocious thunderstorm and vowed that if he survived unscathed, he would become a monk. He then entered the monastic order of the Augustinian Hermits in Erfurt, much to his father's disgust. In the monastery, Luther focused of his major concern, the assurance of salvation. The traditional beliefs and practices of the church seemed unable to relieve his obsession with this question, especially evident in his strug le with the sacrament of penance or confession. The sacraments were a Catholic's chief means of receiving God's grace; corression offered the opportunity to have one's sins forgiven. Luther spent hours confessing his sins, but he was always doubtful Had he remembered all of his sins? Even more, how could a topeless sinner be acceptable to a totally just and all-powerful tood? Luther threw himself into his monastic routine with a vengance:

I was indeed a good monk and ket my order so strictly that I at the University of Erfurt, where he received his bachelor's

I was indeed a good monk and keeping order so strictly that I could say that if ever a monk could get to heaven through monastic discipline, I was that mo k.... And yet my con-science would not give me certaint, but I always doubted and said, "You didn't do that right You weren't contrite enough. You left that out of your corression." The more I tried to remedy an uncertain, weak and troubled conscience with human traditions, the more I daily t and it more uncertain, weaker and more troubled.3

Despite his strenuous efforts, Luther achiev d no certainty.

To help overcome his difficulties, his uperiors recommended that the monk study theology. He is ceived his doctorate in 1512 and then became a professor in the theological faculty at the University of Wittenberg (VIT-ten-bayrk), lecturing on the Bible. Sometime between 153 through his study of the Bible, he arrived at an a swer to his problem.

Catholic doctrine had emphasized that both faith and good works were required for a Christian to achieve perso al salvation. In Luther's eyes, human beings, weak and pow rless in the sight of an almighty God, could never do enoug good works to merit salvation. Through his study of the Bible especially his work on Paul's Epistle to the Romans, Luther ediscovered another way of viewing this problem. To Lu er,