

The Beginnings of Polish Jewry: Reevaluating the Evidence for the Eleventh to Fourteenth Centuries

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ABSTRACT

This article reexamines the evidence of Jewish presence in Poland from the eleventh to the fourteenth centuries in connection with problems of origins, periodization, and localization of Jewish settlement in Poland. It deals *inter alia* with questions regarding the balance between Jewish and Christian evidence, as well as with reports of Jewish presence from neighboring areas of Eastern Europe such as Kievan Rus'. The reevaluation of evidence on medieval Polish Jews helps to illuminate the origins of eastern Ashkenazi Jewry, as well as to clarify diverse aspects of the history of early Eastern Europe. Thus, for example, among the most important general conclusions is the lack of continuity across three waves of Jewish migration and settlement in Poland. Since most Polish Jews were descendants of the third wave of Jewish migration into Poland, there is little doubt that the vast majority of them came from Germany and Bohemia, mostly via Silesia. We can also reliably conjecture that the Jewish population of southwestern Rus'—whatever its origins (possibly also at least partially Ashkenazi) and size (possibly reduced by the Mongol conquest)—came to be integrated with immigrants from the west due to the eastward expansion of Lithuania and Poland during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Thus, most modern Ashkenazi Jewry must go back to the melding of these two communities.

KEYWORDS: Jews, Poland, Eastern Europe, Ashkenazi, migration, origins

Declaration on Possible Conflicts of Interest

The authors have declared that no conflicts of interest exist.

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It is well known that “the vast majority of Jews in the United States and the Former Soviet Union together with about half of the Jewish population of the State of Israel are descended from East European ancestors.”¹ As a result, the forms of their social, cultural, religious, and political organization have deep roots in Eastern Europe. Nevertheless, the origins of East European Jewry remain poorly understood, leading to many misunderstandings and misconceptions both in the public sphere and in scholarly discourse.

Jews began to appear on the margins of Eastern Europe—in the Balkans and the Pontic coast—already in antiquity. In fact, written evidence for the period prior to the ninth century is available only for these areas of Eastern Europe. Only with the emergence of the first East European Slavic states, such as Kievan Rus’ and Piast Poland, do the earliest written sources referring to the larger territories of the region begin to appear, and they already contain the first references to a Jewish presence in these areas. The corpus of evidence on the Jewish presence grows steadily as Eastern Europe gradually integrates into the broader European economic, social, and political network. Especially impressive is the accumulation of evidence on the demographic explosion of the Jewish population in Crown Poland and, later, in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania. Upon the formation of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth in 1569, this East European state became home to the largest Jewish community in the early modern age and stood as the spiritual, cultural, religious, and economic center of the Jewish world. Even after the Partitions of Poland, this reality continued in effect nearly until the Holocaust, in spite of the frequently changing political borders that crisscrossed this center of Jewish life.

It is not surprising, therefore, that the problem of the origins of this extraordinarily large concentration of the Jewish population has attracted major attention, both on the part of many scholars and of the general public. Numerous articles have been dedicated to this problem.² However, these authors have not arrived at even minimal consensus. Moreover, in spite of the diversity of views expressed in the research literature, the foundational study of sources on the history of Jews in medieval Eastern Europe has remained underdeveloped and inconsistent. A few monographs on the subject do exist, but no general, comprehensive overview of existing sources and their published editions has been produced so far (in contrast to the resources that have been created for later periods).

A noticeable discrepancy also separates historical research based on written sources from research into the roots of the Yiddish language operating solely on the basis of linguistic arguments.³ In consequence, the most basic

¹ HUNDERT, Preface, p. ix.

² BALABAN; GIEYSZTOR; GRODECKI; HORN; VETULANI; WEINRYB, *Beginnings*; ZAREMSKA, *Migracje Żydów*; EADEM, *Początki*.

³ The Yiddish language, although a later phenomenon, has two aspects directly related to the question of the origins of Yiddish-speaking Polish Jewry: the dialectal basis of

problems have remained unsolved. The decisive factors in the formation of East European Jewry are still unclear: were these so-called Romaniote (Greek-speaking), Canaanite (Slavic-speaking), or Ashkenazi (German-speaking) Jews? and what could be the origins of such groups in the region in question? In respect of the Canaanite Jews, for instance, views range from outright denial of their very existence⁴ to the claim that they constitute the ultimate ancestors of the majority of modern Ashkenazi Jews.⁵ Their original homeland is supposed to be either Kievan Rus', or Bulgaria, or the Western Slavic lands (such as Bohemia or Lusatia); their ethnic origin has been traced to the Romaniote Jews of the northern Black Sea coast, or to Khazarian Turkic proselytes,⁶ or else to Sorbian-speaking Jews.⁷ The Khazarian theory gained especially wide popularity due to Arthur Koestler's *The Thirteenth Tribe*,⁸ which was based on Poliak's ideas that had been published only in Hebrew.⁹ The same theory may be found in earlier authors as well.¹⁰

Even the application of geographical terms such as "Rusi'ah" in Hebrew sources is uncertain: scholars disagree on whether they refer to Kievan Rus' or to another entity, such as the so-called "Ruzaria" on the Danube at the borders of Bavaria, Austria, Bohemia, and Moravia,¹¹ or other homeophonic locations.¹² The appellation "Polin" and "Polania" in early medieval Hebrew sources is not less problematic. The name of Poland in all neighboring languages except for German is derived from the tribe of Lędzianie, who lived in the eastern part of Little Poland, somewhere near the current Polish-Ukrainian border: the East Slavic *Lęchi* (ЛАХИ), Lithuanian *Lenkija*, Hungarian *Lengyel*, Old Norse *Læsir*, and Turkish *Lehistan*. In contrast, the German *Polen* and Latin *Polonia*, which served as the sources for the Hebrew/Yiddish names of Poland, originally applied to Great Poland only, the homeland of the tribe of Polanie. Only gradually, with the consolidation of the rule of the Piast dynasty which originated in Gniezno in Great Poland, did this name come to be applied to the whole of Poland.¹³

the Germanic component of Yiddish can help to pinpoint a specific locus of the origin of the Ashkenazi Jews inside Germany, and the non-Germanic substrata of Yiddish can help to reveal previous languages spoken by Yiddish-speaking Jews.

⁴ E.g., PERESWETOFF-MORATH, vol. 2, pp. 59–60, 80–82, 120–122.

⁵ E.g., POLIAK, pp. 255–275.

⁶ For the latest iteration of this theory, see SAND.

⁷ WEXLER.

⁸ KOESTLER.

⁹ POLIAK.

¹⁰ NEUMANN; RENAN, pp. 25 ff.; GUMPCOWICZ, Początki; VON KUTSCHERA.

¹¹ NAZARENKO.

¹² WEINRYB, Myth; KULIK, Locating.

¹³ Some Polish historians derive the name of Poland directly from the common Slavic word "pole" (field); see URBAŃCZYK, pp. 320–324.

The origin of the German-speaking Ashkenazi Jews in Eastern Europe is not less problematic, and is usually discussed in connection with the origins of the Yiddish language. The central problem is that “classic” early medieval Ashkenazi Jewry was comprised of the Jewish communities in the Rhineland and Northern France, but the Yiddish language spoken by the vast majority of East European Jews is based on the South German Swabian-Bavarian dialect. The linguistic research, therefore, has concentrated on the search for the supposed “substrate” of this dialect, which could reveal the origin of this South German cluster of the Jewish population that later migrated to Eastern Europe. Lower German,¹⁴ Romance,¹⁴ Sorbian,¹⁵ East Slavic,¹⁶ and Hebrew-Aramaic¹⁷ have all been proposed as possible candidates.¹⁸ The controversial hypothesis of a mass Jewish proselytism in Swabia in the sixth century, against the background of an uneasy choice between Gothic Arian and Frankish Catholic forms of Christianity, was also cautiously advanced.¹⁹

Historians have also made many important contributions to research on the problem of the origins of Eastern European Jews. Among the most instructive are Grodecki's²⁰ and Witkowski's²¹ overviews of medieval Polish Jewry, Gorlińska's monograph on the Jews in medieval Polish administration,²² Stampfer's innovative approach connecting his insight into early Jewish demography with the problem of the origins of East European Jewry,²³ Ta-Shma's study of the early rabbinic tradition in Poland,²⁴ Toch's pioneering research on rural Jews in early medieval Western and Eastern Europe,²⁵ and Zaremska's monograph on the medieval Jewish community in Kraków.²⁶ However, and even taking into account the most recent studies, the field of medieval Polish Jewry remains underdeveloped in contrast to the flourishing and abundant research on early modern Polish-Lithuanian Jewry present in several penetrating studies.²⁷ Such questions as the direction of migration (from east to west or from west to east), and the relative contributions of the

¹⁴ WEINREICH.

¹⁵ WEXLER.

¹⁶ STRATEN.

¹⁷ KATZ.

¹⁸ For a summary, see BEIDER, *Origins*.

¹⁹ FABER.

²⁰ GRODECKI.

²¹ WITKOWSKI.

²² GORLIŃSKA, *Żydzi*.

²³ STAMPFER, *Did the Khazars*.

²⁴ TA-SHMA, *On the History*.

²⁵ TOCH, *'Ikarim yehudim*; TOCH, *Economic History*.

²⁶ ZAREMSKA, *Żydzi w średniowiecznej Polsce*.

²⁷ E.g. DOKTÓR; FRAM; HEYDE; HUNDERT, *Jews*; KALIK, *Scepter of Judah*; KAŻMIER-CZYK; MICHAŁOWSKA-MYCIELSKA; POLONSKY, vol. 1; ROSMAN; PETROVSKY-SHTERN; TELLER, *Kesef*; IDEM, *Money*.

Eastern (so-called Canaanite, i.e., Slavic-speaking) Jews and their Western (Ashkenazi, i.e., German-speaking) counterparts are hotly disputed.²⁸ An alternative approach has emphasized the demographic growth of the population already present on Polish soil.²⁹ The chronology of the main stages of Jewish penetration into Eastern Europe, as well as the geography of Jewish settlement in the region, likewise remain problematic. The development of forms of Jewish internal organization and communal structures remains very poorly understood.

The state of source publication is at least partially to blame for this situation. Historical evidence of the Jewish presence in Slavic lands during the Middle Ages is found in very diverse sources and independent traditions which often belong to different cultures. Thus, the natural division of the sources into groups and sub-groups became an impediment to progress in investigation of the subject, because most scholars were not fully adept in using all the tools needed for a comprehensive study of the complete body of material. It is quite surprising, in fact, that despite the great scholarly attention devoted to the medieval origins of East European Jewry, no comprehensive source collection has ever been published. The existing collections of sources on the history of Polish Jews in the Middle Ages—in Hebrew,³⁰ Polish,³¹ and Yiddish³²—are both highly selective and outdated, include only translations without the original texts, and often confine themselves to the sources found within a single cultural tradition, either Jewish or Christian. The Polish and Yiddish collections of Rafael Mahler and Emanuel Ringelblum in reality merely constitute textbooks for Jewish schools in interwar Poland. It should be stressed that no similar collection in English exists at all.

The reexamination of all relevant sources in all languages (Hebrew, Latin, German), with origins in different cultural traditions (Jewish, Christian), and of all types (literary, legal, economic, etc.) must be regarded as a necessary prerequisite for the fruitful continuation of research into this topic. Though most of the sources are known, they have not been considered in the Jewish context. The published sources are scattered throughout numerous and varied source collections and research works, many of which do not focus specifically on Jewish themes; moreover, many remain unavailable to interested scholars (some, for instance, have not been republished since the eighteenth century). The very assemblage of all these sources for integral analysis would produce a substantially new picture of medieval Jewry in Eastern Europe. Even consideration of the geographical and chronological distribution of the sources alone can clarify many unsolved problems, such as patterns, routes, and stages of migration.

²⁸ WEINRYB, *Beginnings*.

²⁹ STAMPFER, *Presledovaniia*.

³⁰ CYGIELMAN, *Yehude Polin*.

³¹ FIJAŁKOWSKI; MAHLER/RINGELBLUM, *Teksty źródłowe*.

³² MAHLER/RINGELBLUM, *Gekleibene mekorim*.

The present article presents preliminary observations resulting from our attempt to revise the corpus of early Judaica Polonica as a whole.³³ We base our analysis here on all known sources of information on the beginnings of the Jewish presence in Crown Poland. This geographical delineation follows from the historic fate of the Jewish population of these lands, which in the early modern age came to be, in many senses, a single distinct Jewish community, and the most populated, most important, and most influential Jewish community in the world. Chronologically, we revise sources dating from the earliest references to a Jewish presence in Poland in the eleventh century up to 1388, when Grand Duke Vytautas (Witold) the Great granted the first privilege to Lithuanian Jews. This event signified the beginning of documented Ashkenazi settlement in the territory of Grand Duchy of Lithuania and, consequently, of a new epoch in the history of Jewish-Slavic relations.

We have analyzed all the relevant texts, originating in different cultures and representing a diversity of languages and genres. These comprise 74 distinct Hebrew records (in addition to 39 Hebrew legends on Polish bracteates and coins and 11 tombstone inscriptions); 249 Latin documents; and 10 German documents. Each of these subcorpora presents its own challenges and contributions to a general picture of the beginnings of Polish Jewry.

1 Jewish Evidence

1.1 Rabbinical Writings

We considered the evidence in Jewish sources composed before 1388 or evidence known in direct quotations from earlier authors in compositions written after this date. This body of evidence has been preserved entirely in Hebrew and consists of halachic (legal) works (mostly rabbinic responsa), biblical and talmudic commentaries (including numerological calculations), memorial books, liturgical poetry, a travel itinerary, homiletics, and epigraphics. Most of them have been preserved via later compilations.

This “internal,” that is, Jewish, evidence presents distinct advantages, furnishing an angle on communal and intellectual life unavailable in the non-Jewish evidence, which comes mainly from documentary, legislative, or scarce and biased ecclesiastic sources. The Jewish evidence also comes with its own disadvantages, since most has survived outside the lands of Poland, and almost exclusively via the later compilations of—or in references to—German and Bohemian scholars who were either in contact with Polish colleagues or treated in their works the topic of business trips and transactions involving Poland. Moreover, some medieval Jewish scholars whose titles include the names of Poland or Polish cities might actually have been of Polish

³³ This work is based on the conclusions of our ongoing book project, which assembles the complete evidence relevant to the topic.

origin but no longer resident there, especially when there is no clear indication of their knowledge of Polish customs (this may be the case, e.g., with R. Yitshak of Poland; see below). Or, conversely, some may have been recent migrants from Germany (as suggested by Ta-Shma).³⁴

At the same time, since most of the Jewish sources—among them, the most informative ones—comprise halachic cases occurring in Poland, we should take into account the following factors. These cases all survived not in authentic legal documents, but rather as theoretical precedents preserved in later compilations. For this reason, whenever a text does not specifically discuss Polish customs, we may understand that its indication of a location (which is often irrelevant for the case) has survived by mere chance. This suggests that some additional cases lacking geographical attribution may also refer to the region in question; i.e., the surviving evidence may actually be richer but, alas, indiscernible amidst the vast treasury of Ashkenazi halachic literature. The fact that such sources must exist may be demonstrated by the existence of parallel sources in which one version includes geographical identifiers but a second version omits them (see, e.g., Maharam's versions of Polish cases from *Sefer ha-dinim* by R. Yehudah ben Meir,³⁵ or the reports of the case of R. Yaakov Svara³⁶). Another kind of material which may benefit from sophisticated contextual reconstruction consists of records that employ only very common personal names or, indeed, ambiguous initials instead of full names (as in the case of "R.Y.K.," which can be deciphered as "R. Yaakov ha-Kohen [Svara of Kraków]" or "R. Yehudah ha-Kohen [of Freiburg]").³⁷

The majority of the extant Hebrew evidence belongs to the period between the First Crusade (1095–1099) and the Mongol invasion (1241). For the period before the Crusades, we have a brief mention of Poland being on R. Petachyah's route between Bohemia and Rus' (though without any mention of a Jewish presence there)³⁸ and a responsum in *Sefer ha-dinim* by R. Yehu-

³⁴ TA-SHMA, *On the History*, pp. 316–317.

³⁵ MAHARAM, § 881, § 885; BLOCH, *She'elot u-teshuvot*, pp. 120–121; KUPFER/LEWICKI, p. 37; FARBSHTAIN, *She'elot u-teshuvot*. For discussion, see GÜDEMANN, *Geschichte*, vol. 1, p. 110; IDEM, *Ha-torah*, vol. 1, p. 84; AGUS, *Urban Civilization*, vol. 1, pp. 220–224; vol. 2, pp. 701–705; EMANUEL, *Teshuvot Maharam me-Rotenburg she'-enan shel Maharam*, p. 205.

³⁶ As cited in *Sefer 'Or zarua'*: HIRSCHENSOHN, pp. 206–207 (§ 740); FARBSHTAIN, *Sefer 'Or zarua'*, vol. 1, pp. 661–662 (§ 740). For discussion, see URBACH, *Sefer 'Arugat ha-bosem*, vol. 4, pp. 120–121; KUPFER, *Responsa et Decisiones*, p. 278, footnote 36; URBACH, *Ba'ale ha-tosafot*, pp. 490–491; KUPFER, *Mi-ginze ha-makhon*, pp. 959–960; TA-SHMA, *On the History*, pp. 294–296, 311; BAUMGARTEN, pp. 225–226. Compare MAHARAM; BLOCH, *She'elot u-teshuvot*, p. 115 (§ 864); NATHANSOHN, p. 33 (§ 362).

³⁷ See TA-SHMA, *On the History*, p. 298.

³⁸ PETACHYAH, *Sivuv*, 1595; IDEM, *Sivuv*, 1772; IDEM, *Sivuv*, 1795; IDEM, *Sivuv*, 1806; IDEM, *Sivuv*, 1817; IDEM, *Sivuv*, 1851; IDEM, *Sivuv*, 1855; IDEM, *Sivuv*, 1856; IDEM, *Sivuv*, 1952; and numerous other editions and translations of the work, including, e.g., WAGENSEIL, pp. 160–203; UGOLINO, pp. 1159–1212; ZANOLINI, pp. 139–164; CARMO-

dah ben Meir of Mainz mentioning a community in Kraków.³⁹ Three additional pieces of evidence all go back to the same *Sefer ha-dinim*; none of them, however, refers indisputably to Poland. We find a report on a Jew who “brought merchandise from the land of פולום (Polom [?])”—possibly Poland,⁴⁰ a mention of Jewish presence in פרומוט (Prumut) or פרימוט (Primut)—possibly Przemęt (Latin *Primut*)⁴¹ or Przemyśl, a city that may have belonged to Rus’ at the time,⁴² and a highly conjectural location “in the north” בַּצְפוֹן [ba-tsafon]) that has been interpreted as being Poland.⁴³ Still, R. Yehudah’s responsum is quite instructive: it contradicts the traditional view, following Cosmas of Prague, that the Jews arrived in Poland only after the First Crusade; it mentions the “kahal” (קהל) or “community” of Kraków and, as noted by Ta-Shma, it implies the existence of a religious court empowered to enforce its decisions and even impose fines on Jews traveling through the city, in the spirit of a ruling to this effect by Rabbenu Gershom ben Yehudah (known as “Me’or ha-golah” [The Light of the Exile]).⁴⁴ Ta-Shma speaks of the community of *Zimri*, following the name given in the text to an offender;⁴⁵ however, in all probability, this is in fact a fictitious/prototypical personal name assigned on the basis of biblical precedent. The *Zimri* of this text was *inter alia* involved with a “female slave, who was also [another man’s]

LY; OTTENSOSER; BENISCH/AINSWORTH; MARGOLIN; GRÜNHUT, vol. 1, pp. 2–4; KLETER; DAVID; VENTRICE. For discussion, see HALPERIN, *Yehudim*, pp. 15–16.

³⁹ Mss. New York (Ashkenazi script, 15th c.): Jewish Theological Seminary, Rab. 673, fol. 252b; Oxford (Ashkenazi script, 15th c.): Bodleian Library, Opp. 42 (Neubauer no. OX 678), fol. 253b. For discussion, see AGUS, *Urban Civilization*, vol. 1, pp. 93–97; IDEM, *Heroic Age*, pp. 27, 46 (footnote 52), 103, 249; GROSSMAN, pp. 140–141; TA-SHMA, *On the History*, p. 287; FRISHMAN, pp. 148–149.

⁴⁰ MAHARAM, p. 86b (§ 885); BLOCH, *She’elot u-teshuvot*, p. 121; KUPFER/LEWICKI, p. 37; FARBSHTAIN, *She’elot u-teshuvot*. For discussion, see GÜDEMANN, *Geschichte*, vol. 1, p. 110; IDEM, *Ha-torah*, vol. 1, p. 84; AGUS, *Urban Civilization*, vol. 1, pp. 220–224.

⁴¹ See BEIDER, *Origins*.

⁴² As cited by R. Eliezer ben Yoel ha-Levi of Bonn (Raavyah): APTOWITZER, vol. 4, p. 451; KUPFER/LEWICKI, p. 36; PRISMAN/KOHEN; DABLITSKY, vol. 3, p. 33 (§ 900). For discussion, see BRUTZKUS, *Der Handel*, p. 107; APTOWITZER, vol. 4, p. 451; KUPFER/LEWICKI, pp. 36–37; WEINRYB, *Beginnings*, pp. 481–482; AGUS, *Urban Civilization*, vol. 1, pp. 105–107; IDEM, *Heroic Age*, p. 103; URBACH, *Ba’ale ha-tosafot*, pp. 378–388; GROSSMAN, pp. 175–210, 443–444; ABRAMSON, p. 166; PERESWETOFF-MORATH, vol. 2, p. 125; FRISHMAN, pp. 148–149; JANKOWIAK, pp. 131–132. As cited by R. Yitshak ben Moshe of Vienna: FARBSHTAIN, *Sefer ’Or zarua’*, vol. 1, p. 586 (§ 694). For discussion, see BRUTZKUS, *Di ershte yediot*, pp. 66–72; STARR, pp. 31–32, 192–194; KUPFER/LEWICKI, pp. 40–49; KULIK, *Judeo-Greek Legacy*, pp. 56–57; IDEM, *Jews of Slavia Graeca*, p. 311.

⁴³ MAHARAM, § 881; BLOCH, *She’elot u-teshuvot*, p. 120; FARBSHTAIN, *She’elot u-teshuvot*. For discussion, see AGUS, *Urban Civilization*, vol. 2, pp. 701–705; EMANUEL, *Teshuvot Maharam me-Rotenburg she’-enan shel Maharam*, p. 205.

⁴⁴ TA-SHMA, *On the History*, p. 287.

⁴⁵ Ibidem, p. 287, footnote 2.

concubine”; compare this with the Zimri of the Book of Numbers 25:6–15, who was involved with a Midianite woman.

Quite expectedly for this early period, the entire case described by R. Gershom ben Yehudah is connected to the ownership, trade, abduction, and sexual exploitation of a slave. Jewish slave ownership was also known to Gallus Anonymus (in an entry pertaining to 1080–1086; II.1).⁴⁶ These two early sources exhaust the subject of Jewish slave ownership in Poland.⁴⁷ The earliest corroboration of a Jewish presence in Kraków in non-Jewish sources was to come only a century later in 1173 (in the chronicle of Vincent Kadłubek, IV.2).⁴⁸

Later sources are richer, and they become especially abundant for the early thirteenth century, just prior to the Mongol invasion. In the twelfth century R. Eliezer ben Yitshak of Prague, in a responsum to R. Yehudah he-Chassid, still listed Polish Jewish communities among those lacking in Jewish learning (“in most of the places in Poland and Rus’ and Hungary, where there are no students of Torah due to their deficiency ...”).⁴⁹ Already in the first half of the thirteenth century, however, we find authoritative Polish scholars (or scholars of Polish origin) forming part of wide international rabbinic networks. The two best documented of these are R. Moshe of Poland (or Poler, Polak, etc.) and R. Yaakov Svava of Kraków.

R. Moshe of Poland, a recognized authority in ritual slaughter who also manifested much broader interests, was possibly connected to the Chasside Ashkenaz. The breadth of R. Moshe’s circle may be demonstrated by the fact that his works refer not only to the omnipresent R. Moshe ben Chasdai Ta-chau (on whom, see below) and R. Yaakov ben Nachman of Magdeburg, but also to R. Yeshayahu ben Mali di Trani, a contemporary Italian author with Byzantine and German connections. R. Moshe’s halachic and exegetic views were cited by his contemporaries in the Rhineland (R. Eleazar ben Yehudah [Rokeach] of Worms),⁵⁰ Bohemia (R. Avraham Cheldik),⁵¹ and Italy (R.

⁴⁶ Ed. LENGNICH; KOLOF; BANDTKIE, Martini Galli Chronicon; SZLACHTOWSKI/KÖPKE; BIELOWSKI, Galla Kronika, pp. 428–429; FINKEL/KĘTRZYŃSKI; KRZYŻANOWSKI, Galla Anonima; MALECZYŃSKI, Galli Anonymi Cronica.

⁴⁷ The earliest evidence of Jewish involvement in the slave trade in the Slavic context pertains to Dalmatia and dates to 960, in LJUBIĆ, p. 1 (no. 1).

⁴⁸ SZELIGA; GRODECKII, pp. 593–826; LENGNICH; KOWNACKI; PRZEŹDZIECKI; MUŁKOWSKI; BIELOWSKI, Magistri Vincentii Chronicon Polonorum, p. 381; PLEZIA; MÜHLE.

⁴⁹ Ed. HIRSCHENSOHN; KUPFER/LEWICKI, p. 159 [partial excerpt]; FARBSHTAIN, Sefer ‘Or zarua’, vol. 1, pp. 107–108 (§ 113). For discussion, see GÜDEMANN, Geschichte, vol. 1, p. 115; IDEM, Ha-torah, vol. 1, p. 89; ABRAHAMS, p. 62; FRANK, p. 25; MAHLER, p. 25; KUPFER/LEWICKI, pp. 159–160; HALPERIN, Yehudim, p. 15; ZIMMER, Harmony and Discord, p. 115; WEINRYB, Jews of Poland, pp. 24, 74; URBACH, Ba’ale ha-tosafot, pp. 213–214; YUVAL, p. 14; ELBAUM, p. 13; TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 288–289; REINER, p. 126; BEREND, p. 267; KULIK, Evrei Drevnei Rusi, p. 60; KANARFOGEL, Appointment, pp. 5–31; KULIK, Jews of Slavia Graeca, pp. 303–304.

⁵⁰ Ms. Paris (Ashkenazi script, 1465): L’Ecole rabbinique de France, no. 147, fol. 51a.

Yeshayahu ben Mali di Trani),⁵² as well as by a Byzantine scholar of the fourteenth century (R. Dosa the Greek, who studied under R. Sar Shalom of Vienna/Wiener Neustadt) or a revisor of his work.⁵³ Thus, when R. Yitshak ben Moshe (Or Zarua) of Vienna refers to Polish customs of *kashruth* (dietary laws) pertaining to the evaluation of lung defects (cf. “in Mainz and Poland [פולנית] (Polanit) the custom is to permit it as well, according to their rulings”),⁵⁴ this should be viewed against the background of the unique status enjoyed by R. Moshe of Poland, who was considered an expert in such matters.⁵⁵

R. Yaakov Svava of Kraków was also possibly associated with the circle of R. Yehudah he-Chassid.⁵⁶ His scandalous marriage and pending excommunication left traces from Vienna—in the responsa of R. Yitshak ben Moshe Or Zarua⁵⁷ and in *Kitsur Sefer mitsvot gadol* by R. Avraham ben Efraim, where R. Yaakov is called “a great scholar” (חכם גדול [*hakham gadol*])⁵⁸—to Toledo (in the writings of R. Asher ben Yechiel [Rosh]).⁵⁹ R. Yaakov of Kraków exchanged responsa with R. Yechizkiyahu ben Yaakov of Magdeburg and R. Aharon of Regensburg.⁶⁰ R. Yaakov (and/or, less probably, namesakes of the

⁵¹ Ms. Oxford (Ashkenazi script, 14th c.): Bodleian Library, Mich. 307 (Neubauer no. OX 696; formerly Mich. 44), fol. 40. For discussion, see TA-SHMA, On the History, p. 303.

⁵² Ms. Moscow (Italian script, 13th c.): Russian State Library, Günsburg 303, fol. 71a (§ Gen. 42:8). For discussion, see TA-SHMA, Keneset mehkarim, vol. 3, p. 22; EMANUEL, Shivre luhot, p. 241, footnote 90; KANARFOGEL, Ha’umnam, p. 681, footnote 35.

⁵³ Ms. Paris (1627): Alliance Israélite Universelle, no. H 166 A, fol. 107a–108b. For discussion, see TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 304–307.

⁵⁴ HIRSCHENSOHN, p. 112; FARBSHTAIN, Sefer ‘Or zarua’, vol. 1, p. 337 (§ 411); cf. ibidem, § 411/84. For discussion, see TA-SHMA, On the History, p. 308.

⁵⁵ See the numerous works mentioning R. Moshe of Poland, especially mss. Oxford (15th–16th c.): Bodleian Library, Opp. 319 (Neubauer no. OX 690; formerly Opp. 629), fol. 158a–158b, 160a, 165b, 170b, 172a; Jerusalem (Ashkenazi script, 14th–15th c.): National Library of Israel, Heb. 8°4199.1–2, fol. 224a–224b. Ed. (one excerpt) BEDIKOT, p. 15. For discussion, see EMANUEL, Shivre luhot, pp. 241–243, footnote 91.

⁵⁶ ABRAMS, pp. 33, 50–51; STAL. For discussion, see TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 300–301; IDEM, Keneset mehkarim, vol. 1, p. 238, footnote 40, p. 261; STAL, vol. 2, pp. 43–44, footnote 25, pp. 133–135.

⁵⁷ HIRSCHENSOHN, pp. 206–207 (§ 740); FARBSHTAIN, Sefer ‘Or zarua’, vol. 1, pp. 661–662 (§ 740). For discussion, see URBACH, Sefer ‘Arugat ha-bošem, vol. 4, pp. 120–121; KUPFER, Responsa et Decisiones, p. 278, footnote 36; URBACH, Ba’ale ha-tosafot, pp. 490–491; KUPFER, Mi-ginze ha-makhon, pp. 959–960; TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 294–296, 311; BAUMGARTEN, pp. 225–226.

⁵⁸ HOROWITZ, Korowi sefer mitssit gadol, pp. 88–89. For discussion, see KUPFER, Me-rahok, p. 218; TA-SHMA, On the History, p. 294; IDEM, Keneset mehkarim, vol. 1, p. 157; vol. 4, pp. 266–267.

⁵⁹ Ed. YUDLOW, p. 225 (§ 53b).

⁶⁰ Ed. KUPFER, Responsa et Decisiones, pp. 272, 277–281. For discussion, see ibidem, p. 278, footnote 36, p. 280, footnote 13; IDEM, Mi-ginze ha-makhon, p. 959; TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 296–297.

same era) was cited by his (semi-)contemporaries in Bohemia (R. Avraham ben Azriel)⁶¹ and Franconia (R. Meir ben Barukh of Rothenburg)⁶². If the “R. Yaakov of K.” in the *Pa‘aneach Raza*’ (first half of the fourteenth century) is the same person, he was also connected to R. Moshe ben Chasdai Tachau.⁶³ As with R. Moshe of Poland, the teachings of R. Yaakov Svava have multiple attestations in later sources. The image of R. Yaakov Svava probably even survives as the “(Ben) Savur” of a folktale included in a sixteenth-century Ashkenazi collection of stories.⁶⁴

R. Moshe ben Chasdai Tachau (Taku), for his part, was one of the most notorious and prolific of the Chasside Ashkenaz. His cognomen implies that he was a native of Tachov in Bohemia or possibly Dachau in Bavaria. R. Moshe was known to be active in various parts of Ashkenaz (the German lands), and he enjoyed connections with R. Moshe of Poland and possibly R. Yaakov Svava of Kraków. On one occasion only, he is called “of Poland” (in a text by his contemporary Nachmanides of Catalonia, who refers to him as a “great scholar”).⁶⁵ Although the words “of Poland” are found only in an added gloss in the manuscript,⁶⁶ this may indicate that R. Moshe was a Polish resident, at least for some time. His patronymic is atypical for the Ashkenazi world and should perhaps be regarded as being in line with the onomastic peculiarities of other East European Jews (compare the use of “Sinai” and “Chanukkah” in Rus’).⁶⁷

The scholars known as R. Mordekhai of Poland and R. Yitshak of Poland each transmitted one of R. Yehudah he-Chassid’s commentaries on the Pentateuch to R. Yehudah’s son, R. Moshe Zaltman, who compiled his father’s commentaries into a book.⁶⁸ The same composition contains 35 commentaries transmitted, according to the same model, by R. Yitshak of Rus’.⁶⁹ Ta-Shma

⁶¹ URBACH, *Sefer ‘Arugat ha-bošem*, vol. 3, p. 126. For discussion, see KUPFER, *Mi-ginze ha-makhon*, p. 959; TA-SHMA, *On the History*, p. 296.

⁶² EMANUEL, *Teshuvot Maharam me-Rotenburg ve-haverav*, vol. 1, p. 428 (§ 134).

⁶³ Ms. Oxford (Italian script, 15th c.): Bodleian Library, Opp. Add. Qu. 103 (Neubauer no. OX 2344), fol. 51b, 57b. For discussion, see TA-SHMA, *On the History*, p. 299 (note that the ms. citation given there is incorrect).

⁶⁴ Ms. Jerusalem (Ashkenazi cursive script, 16th c.): National Library of Israel, Heb. 28°3182, fol. 125a–126a. For discussion, see TA-SHMA, *On the History*, p. 299, footnote 34, p. 315, footnote 83.

⁶⁵ וְהַחֲכָם הַגָּדוֹל ר' מֹשֶׁה בֶּר חַסְדָּא מִפְּלוֹנִי שִׁיחִיָּה וִיאֲרִיךְ יָמִים (ve-ha-hakham ha-gadol R. Moshe bar Hasda'i me-Poloni she-yihyeh ve-ya'arikh yamim).

⁶⁶ Ms. New York (Sephardi script, 1397): Jewish Theological Seminary, Rab. 740, fol. 13a.

⁶⁷ See the Kievan letter (GOLB/PRITSACK, pp. 10–14) and KULIK, *Earliest Evidence*.

⁶⁸ Ms. Cambridge (Ashkenazi script, 14th–15th c.): Cambridge University Library, Add. 669, 2, fol. 34b–35a, 37b. LANGE, *Perushe ha-Torah*, p. 94 (§ Yithro 19:18); cf. *ibidem*, p. 86. For discussion, see LUZZATTO, p. 69; KUPFER, *Responsa et Decisiones*, p. 162, footnote 14; TA-SHMA, *On the History*, pp. 309, 312.

⁶⁹ KULIK, *Jews from Rus’*.

identifies R. Yitshak of Rus' with R. Yitshak of Poland and R. Yitshak of Moriat;⁷⁰ in fact, these figures can possibly be identified with several other East European Yitshaks of the same time.⁷¹ Among the Polish scholars we also find a R. Yitshak of Wrocław, who is cited by R. Avraham ben Azriel of Bohemia in his *'Arugat ha-bosem* dated to 1234.⁷²

Following the Mongol invasion and up to the end of the fourteenth century, internal evidence on Jewish life in Poland is much more limited. Records of anti-Jewish violence connected to the Black Death (1348/49), as found in the *Memorbücher* and memorial poems, provide the earliest attestations of several Jewish communities. Wrocław (Breslau), Kraków, and Opole (Oppeln) are listed in the *Memorbücher* of Metz and Nuremberg.⁷³ Kraków, Bytom (Beuthen), Zülz (now Biała Prudnicka), and Wrocław appear in the *Memorbuch* of Deutz.⁷⁴ Wrocław, Kalisz (Kalisch), Kraków, and Głogów (Glogau) figure in an elegy by R. Yisrael ben Yoel Zislin.⁷⁵ The existence of some of these communities is corroborated by non-Jewish sources from the same period (see below). The chronicle of Oliwa by Abbot Stanisław (§ 72) also refers to these events.⁷⁶

A certain R. Shimon "of Poland" and an R. Pinchas, who knew a Polish word for "berries," were both known to R. Chaim Eliezer ben Yitshak Ashkenazi (Or Zarua) of Wiener Neustadt, who was active in the second half of the thirteenth century and lived also in Styria and France.⁷⁷ A certain R. Yisrael of Poland, active in the last quarter of the thirteenth century, is also briefly mentioned in a manuscript deriving from the circle of the Chasside Ashkenaz.⁷⁸

All the rest of the evidence for this period comes from R. Shalom ben Yitshak of Wiener Neustadt (aka Maharash of Vienna, ca. 1350 – ca. 1413) and his disciple R. Yaakov ben Moshe Moellin ha-Levi (Maharil, ca. 1350s–

⁷⁰ TA-SHMA, On the History, p. 309.

⁷¹ See KULIK, Jews from Rus', pp. 382–389.

⁷² URBACH, Sefer 'Arugat ha-bosem, vol. 1, pp. 190–191. For discussion, see ibidem, vol. 4, p. 120; TA-SHMA, On the History, p. 312.

⁷³ BERNFELD, vol. 2, p. 101 (one excerpt); SALFELD, pp. 69, 77–78. For discussion, see NEUBAUER.

⁷⁴ SALFELD, pp. 81–85.

⁷⁵ Sefer kinot, appendix 3a–6a; LANDSHUTH, appendix iii–vii. For discussion, see ZUNZ, Die synagogale Poesie, pp. 39–44; IDEM, Literaturgeschichte, p. 509; IDEM, Sufferings, pp. 62–70; BERNFELD, vol. 2, p. 97; BETH-HALEVI, pp. 66–67; HALPERIN, Yehudim, pp. 19–20.

⁷⁶ Ed. HIRSCH/TÖPPEN, vol. 1, pp. 649–805; IDEM, vol. 5, pp. 591–624; BIELOWSKI, Chronica Oliuensis, p. 347 (this excerpt).

⁷⁷ Ed. LANGE, Piske halakhah, pp. 72–73, 84–85; AVITAN, Derashot, appendix 30 (§ 20), appendix 36 (§ 21). For discussion, see FREIMANN, vol. 2, p. 53; MARMORSTEIN, p. 226; TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 310–311.

⁷⁸ GELLIS, 6.96. For discussion, see TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 312–313.

1427). R. Shalom cites his Polish teacher R. Ozer of Silesia,⁷⁹ shows intimate knowledge of Polish customs (*minhag*), and replies to halachic queries from Poland.⁸⁰ His responsum regarding an interesting murder case may indicate the absence of a criminal justice system in the Jewish community of Poland.⁸¹ R. Shalom also mentions a custom that the Jewish community of Poland had in common with those of Styria, Mehren, and Hungary.⁸² R. Shalom's disciple, the famous and influential Maharil, was appointed head of the esteemed academy in Mainz. The Maharil knew the works of older Polish scholars such as R. Moshe of Poland.⁸³ Moreover, he discusses Polish customs⁸⁴ and halachic cases occurring in Poland.⁸⁵

In neighboring Rus', which suffered to a greater extent from the Mongol invasion, the noticeable decrease in extant records is even more striking. The relatively rich Jewish and Slavic evidence for the period from the tenth to the early thirteenth centuries gives way after the invasion to scattered, lone sources—and these come mainly from Volhynia⁸⁶ or from Jewish migrants outside Rus'.⁸⁷ In Poland, however, non-Jewish sources provide incomparably richer documentation for this period (see below). Yet even though Jewish communities and guilds are well attested for this period in the Latin sources, from both the Rus' and the Polish evidence, we learn next to nothing about Jewish communal, let alone intellectual, life. After the invasion, the communities had to be renewed and possibly repopulated, leading to divergent levels of relative economic development. The degradation of Jewish learning and possibly also communal institutions in this context may explain the imbalance between these two corpora. Part of the repopulation of Jewish communities in Poland may have been due to westward migration from the territories of Rus', an additional factor that could help explain the imbalance between Polish and Russian sources after the invasion.

⁷⁹ SPITZER, *Sefer Maharil*, pp. 450–451 (§ Qeri'ath ha-Torah 3); SATZ.

⁸⁰ SPITZER, *Hilkhot*, pp. 57 (§ 95), 84 (§ 211), 137 (§ 402), 160 (§ 489), 207 (§ Qidushin, Ketuboth, Gittin we-Chalitsah 6); IDEM, *Sefer Maharil*, pp. 602–603 (§ Semachoth 13); SATZ, pp. 206–207 (§ 153); ISSERLEIN; AVITAN, *Sefer*. For discussion, see EIDELBERG, pp. 90–91; SPITZER, *Hilkhot*; ZIMMER, 'Olam ke-minhago noheg, pp. 197–204; KAPLAN.

⁸¹ SPITZER, *Hilkhot*, p. 57 (§ 95). For discussion, see EIDELBERG, pp. 90–91.

⁸² SPITZER, *Hilkhot*, p. 207 (§ Qidushin, Ketuboth, Gittin we-Chalitsah 6); ISSERLEIN, *Sefer Terumat ha-deshen*, 1519; IDEM, *Sefer Terumat ha-deshen*, 1546; IDEM, *Sefer Terumat ha-deshen*, 1778; IDEM, *Sefer Terumat ha-deshen*, 1835; IDEM, *Sefer Terumat ha-deshen*, 1882; AVITAN, *Sefer*.

⁸³ Ed. SATZ, p. 57 (§ 46); SPITZER, *Sefer Maharil*, p. 7 (§ R'osh Chodesh 9). See also above.

⁸⁴ Ed. SPITZER, *Sefer Maharil*, pp. 602–603 (§ Semachoth 13); SATZ. For discussion, see ZIMMER, 'Olam ke-minhago noheg, pp. 197–204.

⁸⁵ Ed. SATZ, pp. 206–207 (§ 153). For literature, see KAPLAN.

⁸⁶ See KULIK, *Earliest Evidence*.

⁸⁷ IDEM, *Jews from Rus'*, pp. 374–376.

In general, for the entire period under discussion, the Hebrew evidence regarding Jews in Poland comes almost exclusively from Ashkenaz and Bohemia (with the exception of two records from Catalonia⁸⁸ and Verona⁸⁹). This stands in contrast with the vast diversity of sources regarding neighboring Rus', which come *inter alia* from Khazaria, Byzantium, France, England, Italy, and Spain.⁹⁰ Rabbinic authorities in the Rhineland, southern Germany, Styria, and Bohemia show a peculiar awareness of conditions in Poland and Rus' during this period, drawing not only on halachic correspondence but also on real-life experiences of trading voyages to these countries. Sometimes this was even first-hand experience, as in the case of R. Yitshak ben Dorbelo, who left interesting observations on Jewish customs in both Poland and Rus'.⁹¹ In other cases the authors may have met visitors from the region, e.g., the Polish disciples of Yehudah he-Chassid,⁹² if they were not instead migrants to Poland (see also below).

Some eastern German connections are also noticeable. Thus, the first unequivocal attestation of a Jew actually being born in Poland (in Kraków), as confirmed by witnesses in a rabbinical court in the late twelfth century, mentions that he had brothers in Magdeburg ("regarding this man, witnesses have testified that he was born in Kraków but sometimes went to visit his brothers in Magdeburg, where the latter had married and settled").⁹³ Especially ob-

⁸⁸ Ed. NACHMANIDES, p. 56a; HERSHLER, vol. 5, p. 41 (§ Chiddushe Gittin 7a; this vol. ed. by R. ELIYAHU RAFAEL HISHRIK, published 1995). For discussion, see URBACH, Ba'ale ha-tosafot, pp. 420–425; TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 308–309.

⁸⁹ Ed. KUPFER/LEWICKI, p. 170; PRISMAN/KOHEN, vol. 4, pp. 133–140 (§ 901); HERZOG, vol. 1, pp. 113a–115b (§ 'Even ha-'ezer 23); DABLITSKI, vol. 3, pp. 38–41 (§ 901). For discussion, see ZUNZ, Zur Geschichte und Literatur, p. 48; GROSS, p. 521; BRANN, Germania Judaica, vol. 1, p. 295; APTOWITZER, vol. 4, pp. 312, 429–431, 452–453; KUPFER/LEWICKI, pp. 170–172; WEINRYB, Beginnings, pp. 501–502; URBACH, Ba'ale ha-tosafot, pp. 433–435.

⁹⁰ KULIK, Jews from Rus', pp. 374–376; IDEM, Judeo-Greek Legacy.

⁹¹ Ed. BERLINER; HOROWITZ, Maḥzor Viṭri, pp. 243 (§ Hilkhoth 'Evel 275), 248 (§ Hilkhoth 'Evel 280); KUPFER/LEWICKI, p. 152; GOLDSCHMIDT. For discussion, see GÜDEMANN, Geschichte, vol. 1, p. 110; IDEM, Ha-torah, vol. 1, p. 84; KUPFER/LEWICKI, pp. 152–156; AGUS, Heroic Age, p. 46, footnote 52; WEINRYB, Jews of Poland, p. 24; URBACH, Ba'ale ha-tosafot, p. 216; REINER, p. 128; TA-SHMA, On the History, p. 288.

⁹² Ms. Cambridge (Ashkenazi script, 14th–15th cent.): Cambridge University Library, Add. 669, 2, fol. 34b–35a, 37b. Ed. LANGE, Perushe ha-Torah, p. 94 (§ Yithro 19:18); cf. ibidem, p. 86. For discussion, see LUZZATTO, p. 69; KUPFER, Responsa et Decisiones, p. 162, footnote 14; TA-SHMA, On the History, pp. 309, 312.

⁹³ וזה האיש העידנו עדי'ם] שנולד בכרכוב או פעמי'ם] הולך למיידבורק אל אחיו שנשא שם ונתיישבו שם (ve-zeh ha-'ish he'idu bi-penenu 'edim she-nolad be-Kerakov 'o pe'amim holekh le-Maideburk 'el 'ehay she-naša'u sham nashim ye-nityashvu sham), cf. another connection between the two cities attested in *Sefer 'Or zaru'a*. Ed. HIRSCHENSOHN, pp. 229–230 (§ 775); FARBSHTAIN, *Sefer 'Or zaru'a*, vol. 1, pp. 687–688 (§ 775). For discussion, see KUPFER, Responsa et Decisiones, p. 278, footnote 36; IDEM, Mi-ginze ha-makhon, p. 959; TA-SHMA, On the History, p. 297.

vious are the close connections between almost all known Polish scholars and the circle of Yehudah he-Chassid. This led Ta-Shma to propose that the Polish scholars formed part of a group migration of Chasside Ashkenaz from the German lands to Poland,⁹⁴ which should thus be regarded in the context of German colonization and other aspects of German cultural influences in Eastern Europe. This hypothesis has the ability to explain several phenomena: R. Yehudah's own move eastward to Regensburg from his native Speyer; the relative "literary silence" of Polish rabbis, a tendency typical of the Chasside Ashkenaz, who held to brief, mainly oral, genres; and the specificity of later Polish kabbalah, in particular its preoccupation with *notarikon* and *gematria*, which were foreign to Lurianic kabbalah but very characteristic of the Chasside Ashkenaz.⁹⁵

Jewish sources from Poland enable us to learn about the international connections of local scholars (which, as we can see, may shed some light on the cardinal question of migration patterns), as well as some of their intellectual interests and elements of Polish *minhag*. On the other hand, however, they shed next to no light on communal organization, or for that matter on the communities' economic conditions, occupations, spoken language, and interrelations with the Christian (Polish and German) environment. To a certain extent, some of this lack is compensated for by non-Jewish sources, which are not only more abundant but also, by the very nature of their genres (mostly documentary and legal), better reflect the physical conditions of everyday life. In this respect, neighboring Rus' presents us with a mirror image: we find a relative dearth of relevant Christian sources (259 for Poland as opposed to 27 for Rus'), more diverse and informative Hebrew evidence, and a lack of documentary sources, but incomparably better representation of inter-confessional relations (since most of the Christian Rus' sources belong to the genres of chronography and ecclesiastic literature). The differences may be explained by, *inter alia*, (1) the poorer preservation of documentation within Rus' (the extant Hebrew evidence comes mostly from outside), (2) the earlier roots and greater role of Jews and Judaism (at least as a concept) in the religious and political processes of Rus', and, probably, (3) more significant migration from Rus' to the west, which left traces in sources from Western Europe.

1.2 Numismatic Evidence

A different set of challenges accompanies the use of numismatic Jewish evidence, namely Hebrew legends on bracteates and coins. It should be noted that the activity of Jewish mint-masters in Poland resulted from the so-called

⁹⁴ TA-SHMA, *On the History*, pp. 314–317.

⁹⁵ See also, e.g., LIFSHITZ, 'Ehad be-khol dimyonot; IDEM, Rabbi Meir.

“renewal of the coinage” (*renovatio monetae*) in twelfth-century Poland.⁹⁶ This occurred after a break in minting of about a century, as no coins were minted in the eleventh century (the earliest Piast coins of the tenth century bore Latin legends).

Gorlińska’s monograph of 2015 considerably altered scholarly understanding of the chronology and geography of Jewish minting in Poland.⁹⁷ It now seems that the first Polish coins with Hebrew legends were minted in Silesia in the 1170s for Mieszko I Tanglefoot, the duke of Silesia from 1163 to 1173. In the last decades of the twelfth century, under the rule of Mieszko III the Old (1181–1202), the phenomenon of Hebrew legends on bracteates spread to Great Poland and Kuyavia. In the beginning of the thirteenth century, they could also be found in Kraków in Little Poland, during the rule of Władysław III Spindleshanks (Laskonogi) (1202–1231). Nearly simultaneously with their appearance in Poland in the 1170s, Hebrew legends also began to appear in Germany on bracteates minted for Kuno, the Imperial treasurer (*camerarius*) of Münzenberg (1151–1207) in Hesse, and on bracteates minted for King Vladislav II of Bohemia (1158–1172) in Meissen in the Bohemian part of Lusatia.⁹⁸ The minting of bracteates and coins with Hebrew legends continued in Poland until the mid thirteenth century but did not survive the Mongol invasion of 1241.

The coins and bracteates minted in the late twelfth century in Poland and Germany are very similar in their physical appearance, both typically bearing an image in the center encircled by a Hebrew legend. It is possible that one and the same family of Jewish mint-masters, of priestly origin, operated in both countries: the name of David ha-Kohen (“the Priest”) appears on the bracteates of Kuno of Münzenberg, and the name of Yosef bar Yehudah ha-Kohen on those of Mieszko III in Kalisz.⁹⁹ The presence of such Jewish priestly symbols as the blooming staff of Aaron and the priestly blessing (*nesi’at kapayim*)¹⁰⁰ in the iconography of some Polish bracteates (types 11–13)¹⁰¹ may also testify to the priestly origins of these Jewish mint-masters.

⁹⁶ See TRAWKOWSKI.

⁹⁷ GORLIŃSKA, Żydzi.

⁹⁸ See HAVERKAMP.

⁹⁹ Ed. POLKOWSKI, p. 34; STRONCZYŃSKI, pp. 159–160; ZAKRZEWSKI, O brakteatach, 1909, p. 217; IDEM, O brakteatach, 1910, pp. 6–7; IDEM, Gniezno i Kalisz, pp. 25–29; PINIŃSKI, Pierwsze monety kaliskie, pp. 516–519; GUMOWSKI, Hebräische Münzen, pp. 79–81; GARBACZEWSKI, Ikonografia, p. 321; IDEM, Mennica, pp. 69–78; GORLIŃSKA, Żydzi, p. 260.

¹⁰⁰ This image has generally been interpreted as depicting an angel. In our opinion, however, the supposed “wings” are actually hands covered by a prayer shawl (tallith).

¹⁰¹ Ed. POLKOWSKI, pp. 29–31, 39–40, 42–45, 74; STRONCZYŃSKI, pp. 147–148, 153–156; ZAKRZEWSKI, O brakteatach, 1910, p. 75; IDEM, O brakteatach, 1911, pp. 4, 19, 55; IDEM, O brakteatach, 1912, pp. 69–70; IDEM, O brakteatach, 1913, p. 101; IDEM, Gniezno i Kalisz, pp. 19–20; GUMOWSKI, Monety hebrajskie, pp. 22–23, 26–28, 30–31, 33–34, 40; PINIŃSKI, Brakteaty gnieźnieńskie, pp. 411–414; GUMOWSKI, Hebräische Mün-

1.3 Evidence from Tombstones

Jewish gravestones found at Wrocław and Świdnica in Silesia, at Tyvriv in Podolia, and at Chełm in Red Ruthenia testify to a Jewish presence in these regions in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Unfortunately, most of them no longer exist. Six gravestones from Wrocław were transferred in 1851 to the Jewish cemetery on Claassenstraße (now ul. Gwarna), where the cemetery guard misinterpreted his instructions and destroyed the stones.¹⁰² Fortunately, S. Nissen had copied the inscriptions and published his transcripts in 1855.¹⁰³

The gravestone from Świdnica was held at the Silesian Museum for Artistic Crafts and Antiquities (Schlesisches Museum für Kunstgewerbe und Altertümer) in Wrocław, where it was destroyed in 1945 together with all other exhibits of the museum. Its content is known from the previous publications by Marcus Brann.¹⁰⁴

The gravestone from Tyvriv is known only according to the 1895 transcription by Menachem Nachum Litinsky¹⁰⁵ and is apparently no longer extant. Mikhail Nosonovskii has expressed skepticism concerning the dating of the monument (1240).¹⁰⁶ It is worth noting that the oldest Ashkenazi epitaph from Ukraine that can be dated with any certainty has been assigned to 1520.¹⁰⁷

A report concerning a Jewish gravestone in Chełm dating from 1248 was published by Shimon (Simon) Milner (1882–1952) in 1902 and again in 1954.¹⁰⁸ According to the report, Milner heard of the existence of this early Jewish gravestone in Chełm at some point during the first two decades of his life. His testimony appeared in an article that also supplied transcriptions of known, extant gravestones from Chełm. Though intriguing, Milner's report relies on hearsay and thus has limited evidentiary value.

zen, pp. 49–50, 55–61, 68–69; PASZKIEWICZ, p. 20; GARBACZEWSKI, *Ikonografia*, pp. 59, 140, 273, 276, 291, 302, 318–319; GORLIŃSKA, *Monety*, pp. 199–200, 206, 208; EADEM, *Żydzi*, pp. 220–223, 236–254.

¹⁰² See LEWIN, p. 7.

¹⁰³ NISSEN, pp. 23 (no. 1–2), 23–24 (no. 3), 24 (no. 4, 5, 6).

¹⁰⁴ BRANN, *Alte jüdische Grabsteine*, pp. 7–8; IDEM, *Geschichte der Juden*, Anhang II, p. xiii (no. 22).

¹⁰⁵ LITINSKY.

¹⁰⁶ Cited by PERESWETOFF-MORATH, vol. 2, pp. 128–129; cf. NOSONOVSKII.

¹⁰⁷ FISHEL/NOSONOVSKY.

¹⁰⁸ MILNER, *Le-ḳorot*, 1902; IDEM, *Le-ḳorot*, 1954.

2 Christian Evidence¹⁰⁹

In contradistinction to the Hebrew sources, Latin and German sources referring to Polish Jews show a remarkable geographical diversity and comprehensiveness. They come from Silesia, Great Poland, Little Poland, Mazovia, Pomerania, Lusatia, and Red Ruthenia. These data also help to clarify the chronology of Jewish migration from Germany and Bohemia into Poland: the Silesian documents are the earliest, and the Ruthenian ones the latest. The boundaries of Poland changed considerably over the course of its turbulent history. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, for instance, Silesia was ruled by the local branch of the Polish Piast dynasty, but during the fourteenth century, this territory gradually became part of Bohemia and lost its political vassalage to Poland. For this reason, we consider documents from Silesia only up to 1327, when the first vassal treaties were signed between the king of Bohemia (John of Luxemburg) and the major Silesian dukes. From this point on, the Bohemian king began to appear in the capacity of protector of the Jews of Silesia.

The special situation of Silesia is in some respect mirrored by that of Red Ruthenia. Until 1340, Red Ruthenia constituted one of the Rus' principalities, after which it was incorporated into the Polish Crown by Kazimierz III the Great. Hence, we consider only evidence pertaining to Red Ruthenia after this date. Pomerania, for its part, experienced brief Polish rule in 1102–1138, after which it became an independent duchy ruled by the local Slavic dynasty of the Ratiborides until 1648. The western part of Pomerania (Vorpommern) now belongs to Germany. Evidence from the 1260s on the Jews of Pomerania has been included in our analysis due to its historical connection to Poland. Similarly, West Slavic Lusatia (Łużyce) was also very briefly under Polish rule in 1002–1031; later, it came to be divided between Brandenburg and Bohemia. Nevertheless, we include in the discussion a single German document from 1304 from Görlitz (Zgorzelec), which serves as the only evidence for a Jewish presence in medieval Upper Lusatia.¹¹⁰ This document carries importance in the light of a theory about a possible Sorbian (i.e., Lusatian) substratum in the Yiddish language.¹¹¹

Latin sources include literary compositions as well as legislative, judicial, economic, and ecclesiastic documents. The Middle German texts from

¹⁰⁹ By “Christian evidence” we mean documents written by Christians in medieval Poland that mention Jews and thus serve as evidence of a Jewish presence in the country. We do not deal either with Jewish-Christian religious polemics or with Christian attitudes towards Jews, though rich documentation from medieval Poland can also shed light on these topics. This problem deserves separate research and should be regarded against the background of the West European context as discussed in modern research by Jeremy Cohen, Ora Limor, Kenneth Stow, Israel Yuval, and others.

¹¹⁰ Ed. SCHOTT, pp. 58–88; TZSCHOPPE/STENZEL, p. 473.

¹¹¹ WEXLER.

Wrocław constitute legal documents,¹¹² while those from Kraków are all of an economic nature.¹¹³ The existence of these sources reflects the respective historic fates of these two cities. Both were destroyed by the Mongols in 1241 and later re-founded as German urban colonies. However, the German character of Kraków was lost after the rebellion of Mayor Albert in 1311 against Władysław I Elbow-High (Łokietek), as the city was gradually re-Polonized. The Germanization of Wrocław, by contrast, only intensified during the fourteenth century, especially after the incorporation of Silesia into the Kingdom of Bohemia during the reign of John of Luxemburg (1310–1346).

Sources referring to Jews that belong to the genre of literary compositions include medieval chronicles (three Polish and one Czech) and one Polish life of saints. The earliest Polish chronicle, that of Gallus Anonymus (II.1), provides the only Latin reference to Jewish slave ownership in eleventh-century Poland,¹¹⁴ the existence of which is corroborated by several Hebrew and Arabic sources. The earliest Czech chronicle, ascribed to Cosmas of Prague (III.4–5), furnishes the only literary description of the migration of Bohemian Jews to Poland during the First Crusade (1095–1099).¹¹⁵ The chronicle of Vincent Kadłubek (IV.2)¹¹⁶ and the “Life of St. Stanisław” by Vincent of Kielcza (II.24)¹¹⁷ give evidence concerning the early Jewish presence in Kraków (in 1173 and 1253). The fourteenth-century chronicle of Oliwa by Abbot Stanisław (chapter 72) describes the fate of the Jews in Poland during the great plague of 1348–1350.¹¹⁸

The most important among the legislative documents are, of course, the Jewish privileges. There are seven of them in our discussion: the earliest privilege of Bolesław the Pious to the Jews of Great Poland in 1264;¹¹⁹ two Silesian privileges, granted by Duke Bolko I the Strict of Silesia to the Jews of Świdnica in 1295¹²⁰ and by Duke Henry III of Silesia to the Jews of Głogów in 1299;¹²¹ and four privileges granted by Kazimierz III the Great: to the Jews

¹¹² Ed. KORN, pp. 48–49; GÖRLITZ, pp. 108–109; TZSCHOPPE/STENZEL, pp. 444–446.

¹¹³ ESTREICHER, pp. 29–30 (no. 2.13); PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 1, pp. 4 (no. 1), 8 (no. 28), 17 (no. 131), 20 (no. 167), 23 (no. 208); MAHLER/RINGELBLUM, *Teksty źródłowe*, p. 25; WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, pp. 23 (no. 1–4), 37 (no. 82).

¹¹⁴ BIEŁOWSKI, *Galla Kronika*, pp. 428–429.

¹¹⁵ Ed. FREHER, *Cosmae Pragensis*, 1602; IDEM, *Cosmae Pragensis*, 1607; MENCKEN; PERLCEL/DOBROVSKY; KÖPKE; MIGNE; EMLER; BRETHOLZ, pp. 164–166 (this passage).

¹¹⁶ BIEŁOWSKI, *Magistri Vincentii Chronicon Polonorum*, p. 381.

¹¹⁷ Ed. BANDTKIE, *Martini Galli Chronicon*; KĘTRZYŃSKI, p. 390.

¹¹⁸ BIEŁOWSKI, *Chronica Oliviensis*, p. 347.

¹¹⁹ Ed. ŁASKI, pp. 163 ff.; PRZYŁUSKI [no pagination]; KONARSKI, pp. 309–317; BANDTKIE, *Ius Polonicum*, pp. 1–21; ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 1, pp. 563–566 (no. 605); STERNBERG, pp. 39–52; BLOCH, *Die General-Privilegien*, pp. 10–12; LABUDA, pp. 289–298; WITKOWSKI, pp. 136–139.

¹²⁰ Ed. SOMMERSBERG, pp. 91–94 (no. 85).

¹²¹ *Ibidem*, pp. 105–107 (no. 105).

of Great Poland in 1357,¹²² to the Jews of Poland generally in 1364¹²³ and in 1367,¹²⁴ and to the Jews of Rus' (i.e., Red Ruthenia) also in 1367.¹²⁵ The authenticity of the privilege of 1357 is contested: Romuald Hube, Stanisław Kutrzeba, and most recently Hanna Zaremska have argued that this is a fifteenth-century forgery.¹²⁶ Ludwik Gumplowicz, Ignacy Schiper, and Arthur Cygielman defend its authenticity.¹²⁷ Both sides proffer many convincing arguments; the document has been included in our discussion in the absence of any certain resolution of the question.

Both Silesian privileges are based upon two earlier privileges that have not survived: those issued by Henry IV Probus, duke of Silesia in 1266–1290; and Henry V the Fat, duke of Wrocław in 1290–1296. All these privileges, except for the charter of 1357, were based on the privilege granted to the Jews of Moravia in 1254 by King Ottokar II of Bohemia.¹²⁸ However, the Silesian privileges were modeled after this document independently of the earliest Polish privilege of 1264.¹²⁹ The privileges of 1367, by contrast, represent slight modifications of the privilege of 1264.

References to the most archaic feature of the judicial procedure—the so-called “divine judgment” in the form of trial by judicial combat—have survived in both Silesian privileges of 1295 and 1299 and in both of Kazimierz’s general privileges of 1364 and 1367. The present discussion also includes later confirmations of the privileges: in 1334, Kazimierz the Great confirmed the privilege of Bolesław the Pious and extended it to all Jews of Crown Poland, thus making it the first general Polish Jewish privilege,¹³⁰ and in 1387 Władysław II Jagiełło confirmed the 1367 privilege of Kazimierz the Great to Ruthenian Jews.¹³¹

Other legislative documents are not dedicated specifically to the Jews but do include “Jewish” sections, which are presented here. To this category belong the following: the so-called Piotrków-Wiślica Statutes of Kazimierz the

¹²² Ed. BANDTKIE, *Ius Polonicum*, pp. 1–21; ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 3, pp. 88–94 (no. 1368); BLOCH, *Die General-Privilegien*, pp. 102–120; POGONOWSKI, pp. 39–58 (erroneously marked as the 1264 privilege).

¹²³ Ed. BERSHADSKII, pp. 3–7.

¹²⁴ Ed. BLOCH, *Die General-Privilegien*, pp. 10–32; BERSHADSKII, pp. 23–28; BERSOHN, pp. 18–22.

¹²⁵ Ed. WISŁOCKI; KAPRAL', pp. 381–383.

¹²⁶ HUBE, *Przywilej żydowski*; KUTRZEBA; ZAREMSKA, *Przywileje Kazimierza Wielkiego*.

¹²⁷ GUMPLOWICZ, *Prawodawstwo*; SCHIPER, *Przegląd krytyczny*; CYGIELMAN, *Basic Privileges*.

¹²⁸ For a textological comparison of the privilege of 1254 with the privilege of 1264, see WITKOWSKI, pp. 136–139.

¹²⁹ BRANN, *Geschichte der Juden*, Appendix I: “Schlesische Juden-Privilegien,” pp. i–v.

¹³⁰ Ed. ŁASKI, pp. 163 ff.; PRZYŁUSKI [no pagination]; KONARSKI, pp. 309–317; BANDTKIE, *Ius Polonicum*, pp. 1–21; ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 2, p. 463 (no. 1135).

¹³¹ Ed. WISŁOCKI; KAPRAL', p. 388.

Great,¹³² the first attempt at a codification of Polish law begun in 1346/47; the granting of the Magdeburg Law to Szczecin (Stettin) in 1261,¹³³ Görlitz in 1304,¹³⁴ and Lviv (Lwów, Lemberg) in 1356¹³⁵ with reconfirmation in 1386,¹³⁶ the granting of the Lübeck Law to the city of Greifswald in 1264;¹³⁷ the municipal statutes of Wrocław dated 1280¹³⁸ and 1315;¹³⁹ and various other privileges and immunity grants issued to towns, monasteries, and individuals.

The legislative documents are usually connected to specific events known from general Polish history. Thus, the city of Greifswald received the Lübeck Law after the unification of western and eastern Pomerania under the rule of Duke Barnim I, and the city of Świdnica received a privilege from Duke Henry IV after he took the city from the hands of Bishop Thomas II Zaremba in 1285.¹⁴⁰ Kazimierz the Great bestowed his long, detailed, and generous privilege on the Jews of Great Poland in 1357 during the final stages of the rebellion of Great Polish nobles against his rule; his privilege to the city of Lviv¹⁴¹ was reconfirmed in 1386 by Queen Jadwiga of Poland¹⁴² after the Polish reconquest of Red Ruthenia.

We also note that the Magdeburg Law tolerated the Jews, while the Lübeck Law did not. For this reason, the same Pomeranian Duke Barnim I allowed the Jews to settle in Szczecin but expelled them from Greifswald. This case shows that the choice between a tolerant or intolerant attitude towards the Jews did not necessarily depend on the personal preferences of this or that prince, but rather on a choice between this or that urban law. The Lübeck Law did not tolerate Jews in consequence of the fact that Lübeck was a center of the maritime union of merchant cities—the so-called Hanseatic League—which had no interest in permitting Jewish competitors to settle in its member cities. Magdeburg, however, constituted a center of the German settlement movement in the east (the so-called *Drang nach Osten*) and was therefore interested in attracting Jewish settlers among others.

The judicial documents comprise the records of castle and municipal courts in Poznań, Kraków, and Lviv, with cases mostly of an economic nature. Only

¹³² Ed. ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 2, pp. 584–594 (no. 1261); HUBE, *Prawo polskie*, vol. 4, pp. 38–55 (Piotrków Statutes); BANDTKIE, *Ius Polonicum*; LELEWEL; HELCEL, pp. 110–111, 150 (Wiślica Statutes).

¹³³ Ed. PRÜMERS, pp. 85–86 (no. 708); GROTEFEND, p. 110, footnote 2.

¹³⁴ TZSCHOPPE/STENZEL, p. 473.

¹³⁵ Ed. STADNICKI, pp. 13–18 (no. 5).

¹³⁶ *Ibidem*, pp. 75–76 (no. 42).

¹³⁷ Ed. GROTEFEND, p. 110, footnote 4.

¹³⁸ Ed. KORN, pp. 48–49.

¹³⁹ *Ibidem*, pp. 91–92.

¹⁴⁰ Ed. TZSCHOPPE/STENZEL, p. 403.

¹⁴¹ Ed. STADNICKI, pp. 13–18 (no. 5).

¹⁴² *Ibidem*, pp. 75–76 (no. 42).

a handful of relevant criminal records have survived: the interesting case of an arrest of a Jew for riding a horse in 1366;¹⁴³ two homicide cases—one of a Jewish bathhouse attendant in 1368,¹⁴⁴ and the other of a Christian tailor by a Jew in 1369;¹⁴⁵ a theft case against the son of a Christian organist in 1375;¹⁴⁶ a charge of incorrect weights brought against a Jew in 1378;¹⁴⁷ and a case of injury and robbery in 1387 in which one defendant was the Christian servant of a Jew.¹⁴⁸ All these cases come from Kraków. The first of them is particularly interesting, since it arose out of a contradiction in medieval law: on the one hand, Jews frequently came into possession of horses through unclaimed pledges,¹⁴⁹ and this right was anchored in their privileges; but on the other hand, the right to ride horses was reserved to the nobles, to the exclusion of Jews and others.

The economic documentation consists of promissory letters, real estate transactions, purchase contracts, and tax records filed in courts or in municipal books. Especially interesting among these is an uninterrupted series of tax records from Wrocław for the years 1299–1358¹⁵⁰ and a purchase contract for seven sacks of pepper bought by the Lviv city council from the Jews in 1385.¹⁵¹

Among the ecclesiastic documents, the most important are the first papal bull dedicated to Polish Jews, issued by Clement IV in 1265,¹⁵² and the Jewish sections of the resolutions of the first Polish provincial synod in Wrocław in 1267.¹⁵³ These documents are closely connected with each other, having been promulgated under the direct influence of Guido, the papal nuncio in Poland, whose alarming reports probably provoked the papal bull and who himself convened the provincial synod at Wrocław in order to “rectify” the misconduct of the Polish Jews. The reference in the bull of Clement IV to synagogues “painted with diverse colors inside” in a manner more beautiful than that of the churches is particularly striking. The resolutions of the Wrocław synod set for centuries the general framework of the Jewish experience in Poland, and they would be repeated by numerous Polish provincial and diocesan synods up to the eighteenth century. The conditions of life for Polish Jews, as described in both these documents, differed substantially from

¹⁴³ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 2, p. 7; WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 28 (no. 39).

¹⁴⁴ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 2, p. 15; WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 30 (no. 47).

¹⁴⁵ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 2, p. 26; WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 31 (no. 50).

¹⁴⁶ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 2, p. 40; WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 36 (no. 76).

¹⁴⁷ Ed. CHMIEL, p. 113; WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 37 (no. 83).

¹⁴⁸ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 2, p. 68; WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 40 (no. 94).

¹⁴⁹ For discussion see KALIK, *Haḳḳadah*, p. 29.

¹⁵⁰ Ed. GRÜNHAGEN, pp. 2–50.

¹⁵¹ Ed. CZOŁOWSKI, p. 39 (no. 247–248).

¹⁵² Ed. PTAŚNIK, pp. 466–467; SIMONSOHN, pp. 225–226 (no. 221).

¹⁵³ Ed. HUBE, *Antiquissimae constitutiones*, pp. 57–71; HELCEL, pp. 360–363; ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 1, pp. 374–375 (no. 423); LABUDA, pp. 116–118.

the situation familiar to the pope and his nuncio in the medieval Italian setting, where the Jews were enclosed in a ghetto. A connection between these documents and the first Polish privilege granted to the Jews of Great Poland in 1264,¹⁵⁴ which could have been viewed by the clergy as being too lenient toward the Jews, is also possible.

Other ecclesiastic documents include: the “License to Grant Municipal Rights to the Town of Płock,” issued by Bishop Peter I Półkozic of Płock in 1237;¹⁵⁵ the statutes of Archbishop Jacob II Świnka of Gniezno, confirmed by the diocesan synod at Łęczyca in 1285;¹⁵⁶ the statutes of Bishop John IV Grot of Kraków in 1331;¹⁵⁷ the complaints of Bishop Thomas II Zaremba of Wrocław against Duke Henry IV Probus of Silesia;¹⁵⁸ and the complaints of Bishop Henry I of Wrocław against Duke Henry VI the Good of Wrocław.¹⁵⁹ These documents mostly reflect conflicts between secular and ecclesiastic authorities, as well as internal conflicts inside the church (between John IV Grot and the papal nuncio Peter of Alvernia). Two lists of monks from Wrocław (1219)¹⁶⁰ and Henryków (1227)¹⁶¹ provide the earliest evidence of Jewish converts to Christianity in Silesia.

Though all these documents may be found in published collections of sources, many of them have never before been brought to bear on the Jewish historical context. Moreover, such important documents as the late thirteenth-century privileges to the Silesian Jews have not been republished in centuries (in this case, since 1732). Therefore, the very assemblage of all the documentary evidence for one integrative analysis of their combined geographical and chronological distribution produces a considerably new picture of the patterns, periodization, and character of Jewish settlement in Poland.

¹⁵⁴ ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 1, pp. 563–566 (no. 605).

¹⁵⁵ Ed. LUBOMIRSKI, pp. 8–9 (no. 11).

¹⁵⁶ Ed. HELCEL, p. 387.

¹⁵⁷ Ed. HAYZMANN, pp. 36–40.

¹⁵⁸ Ed. STENZEL, *Urkunden*, p. 195.

¹⁵⁹ Ed. WATTENBACH, pp. 57 (no. I.73), 57–58 (no. I.74).

¹⁶⁰ Ed. APPELT, no. 190.

¹⁶¹ Ed. STENZEL, *Liber foundationis*, p. 69.

3 Periodization and Localization of Jewish Settlement in Poland

Thus, three distinct stages of Jewish presence in Poland can be apprehended on the basis of our evidence: (1) prior to the First Crusade (up to 1096); (2) from the First Crusade until the Mongol invasion (1096–1241); and (3) after the Mongol invasion (1241–1388). The earliest Arabic, Hebrew, and Latin sources on the Jewish presence in Poland refer to itinerant Jewish merchants passing through Slavic lands, which may have included Poland; the ninth-century Arabic author Ibn Khordadbeh (ca. 820–912) calls them the “Radhanites” (*al-Rādhāniyya*).¹⁶² The meaning of this term is hotly disputed. Some consider that it may reveal their Provençal origins, being derived from the Latin name of the river Rhône: Rhodanus.¹⁶³ However, these merchants’ roots may have lain instead in the Islamic lands.¹⁶⁴ A similar itinerant Jewish merchant—the Spanish Jew Ibrāhīm ibn Yaqūb (Abraham son of Jacob)—visited Poland during the reign of Mieszko I (960–992) and left the earliest description of this country in Arabic. He did not mention any permanent Jewish presence in Poland.¹⁶⁵ The Latin chronicle of Gallus Anonymus confirms the presence of Jewish slave owners in Poland in 1080–1086 (during the reign of Queen Judith, the wife of Duke Władysław I Herman).¹⁶⁶ With the beginning of a permanent Jewish settlement in Poland in the late eleventh century, the Jewish itinerant merchants gradually disappear from the sources. They are mentioned for the last time in 1226 in a customs regulation regarding transit through Olesno and Siewierz in Silesia.¹⁶⁷

The Jewish migration from Bohemia to Poland, which marked the beginning of the permanent Jewish settlement in the latter, is described in dramatic form in the Czech chronicle of Cosmas of Prague, who dates the movement to 1098.¹⁶⁸ At this time, according to the chronicle, Bohemian Jews were being forcefully converted to Christianity by crusaders passing through Bohemia and they therefore fled to Poland and Hungary. It is difficult to say to what extent this passage should be taken at face value,¹⁶⁹ though it was written by a contemporary. Jews begin to appear in Silesian documents as permanent residents only in the late twelfth—early thirteenth centuries. Surprisingly, these Jews were farmers who lived in at least three Silesian villages: Mały Tyniec,¹⁷⁰ Sokolniki (both near Wrocław),¹⁷¹ and Bytom near Katowice.¹⁷²

¹⁶² LEWICKI, vol. 1, pp. 74–77; CAHEN; QABALĀWĪ.

¹⁶³ See LEWICKI, vol. 1, pp. 119–120.

¹⁶⁴ See GIL; RABINOWITZ.

¹⁶⁵ KOWALSKI, p. 50.

¹⁶⁶ BIEŁOWSKI, Galla Kronika, pp. 428–429.

¹⁶⁷ Ed. MAŁECCZYŃSKI, Codex diplomaticus, vol. 3, pp. 114–115 (no. 309).

¹⁶⁸ Ed. BRETHOLZ, pp. 164–166.

¹⁶⁹ For a critical view see STAMPFER, Presledovania.

¹⁷⁰ Ed. MAŁECCZYŃSKI, Codex diplomaticus, vol. 1, p. 158 (no. 68).

Mały Tyniec was bought from the Jews, and Sokolniki was said to “belong to Joseph and Chazkel the Jews” (*quod habuerunt Ioseph et Chazkel Iudei*),¹⁷³ while the Jewish inhabitants of Bytom actually tilled the castle lands.

The existence of Jewish farmers is well attested for Western Europe in the early Middle Ages, but mostly in southeastern France rather than in Germany.¹⁷⁴ Ignacy Schiper sees in the agricultural character of the earliest Silesian Jews evidence for their alleged Khazarian origin,¹⁷⁵ while Franciszek Bujak in his review on Schiper’s book claims that these Jews may have been landowners rather than farmers.¹⁷⁶ Bujak rightly remarks, on the one hand, that there is no evidence whatsoever for Khazarian migration into Silesia; but he struggles, on the other hand, to dismiss the agricultural character of Bytom’s ploughing Jews and claims that “ploughing” is a metonymy for administering.¹⁷⁷ Since the very notion of a “village” had not yet stabilized in the twelfth century, it is possible that the Jewish “owners” of the Silesian villages were simply the first settlers of several farmsteads. Nor was this a uniquely Silesian pattern of behavior—Cosmas’s chronicle mentions a certain Podiva as the eleventh-century Jewish founder of a village called Slivnice in Moravia.¹⁷⁸ In Sokolniki, at least, the Jewish residents may have been falconers, since the name of this village is translated thus into Latin in several documents.¹⁷⁹

The only Silesian Jews mentioned outside of this group of documents in the pre-Mongol era are R. David son of Sar Shalom, whose gravestone of 1204 was discovered in Wrocław,¹⁸⁰ some monks who bore the sobriquet “Jew” (*Iudeus*) in two monasteries in Wrocław¹⁸¹ and Henryków,¹⁸² Jewish merchants passing through Olesno and Siewierz,¹⁸³ and R. Yitshak of Wrocław, who flourished sometime before 1234. Outside Silesia, Jews are attested very poorly before the Mongol invasion. We find in Kadłubek’s chron-

¹⁷¹ Ibidem, vol. 1, pp. 249 (no. 103), 275–277 (no. 107); ibidem, vol. 2, pp. 35 (no. 130), 180–194 (no. 193).

¹⁷² Ibidem, vol. 3, pp. 161–165 (no. 337).

¹⁷³ Ed. MALECZYŃSKI, *Codex diplomaticus*, vol. 1, pp. 275–277 (no. 107).

¹⁷⁴ TOCH, *’Ikarim yehudim*; TOCH, *Economic History*, p. 83.

¹⁷⁵ SCHIPER, *Studia*.

¹⁷⁶ BUJAK.

¹⁷⁷ “*Liberi vero et Iudei ubicumque in dicta Bytomiensi castellatura araverint ...*” [Free peasants and Jews ploughing castle lands in whatever part of the aforementioned Bytom]; MALECZYŃSKI, *Codex diplomaticus*, vol. 3, p. 164 [no. 337]).

¹⁷⁸ BRETHOLZ, p. 113.

¹⁷⁹ Ed. MALECZYŃSKI, *Codex diplomaticus*, vol. 1, pp. 249 (no. 103), 273–277 (no. 107); ibidem, vol. 2, pp. 35 (no. 130), 185 (no. 193).

¹⁸⁰ Ed. BRANN, *Ein neuer Grabsteinfund*, pp. 97–107; IDEM, *Ein Breslauer Grabdenkmal*, pp. 11–16; WODZIŃSKI, p. 169 (no. 1).

¹⁸¹ Ed. APPELT, no. 190.

¹⁸² Ed. STENZEL, *Liber foundationis*, p. 69.

¹⁸³ MALECZYŃSKI, *Codex diplomaticus*, vol. 3, pp. 114–115 (no. 309).

icle a reference to a certain Jew injured in Kraków in 1173,¹⁸⁴ the urban micro-toponym “Jewish well” (*puteum Iudeorum*) attested at Płock in 1237,¹⁸⁵ and the Hebrew legends on Polish bracteates minted in Silesia, Great Poland (Gniezno and Kalisz), Kuyavia, and Kraków from the late twelfth to the early thirteenth centuries,¹⁸⁶ which testify to the presence of Jewish mint-masters in these locations. In fact, the Hebrew legends on the bracteates minted in Kuyavia represent the only evidence of a Jewish presence in this area before the fifteenth century.

The early reference to a Jewish site in Płock in Mazovia is also an isolated case, and no Jewish presence in this area is otherwise attested until the fifteenth century. The only similar evidence for a “Jewish well” is in Cologne and dates to 1270.¹⁸⁷ It is difficult to say to what extent the presence of two identical micro-toponyms (i.e., the unique *puteum Judeorum* instead of the more common *balneum Judeorum*) in two distant places may indicate some connection between the Jews of the Rhineland and those of Eastern Europe—a plausible question in light of the theory on the Rhinish origin of East European Jewry.¹⁸⁸ If this well served as an open-air *mikveh* (a basin for ritual purification), then this text could also represent the only (indirect) evidence in Christian sources for the existence of a local urban Jewish community in the pre-Mongol period. Hebrew sources for the same period, however, do specifically mention Jews residing in Kraków, as well as Jewish businessmen and rabbis who most probably resided in towns. They also document rich and diverse connections with the Rhineland in the fields of trade, learning, halachic rulings, and intellectual exchange (see above).

Though rural Jews did not disappear after the Mongol invasion—they are mentioned for the last time in 1301 in the village of Grzegorzów near Strzelin in Lower Silesia¹⁸⁹—the character of Jewish settlement in Poland in the post-Mongol age was entirely different. The impact of the Mongol invasion on the Jews of the Middle East is well known: it caused the destruction of the ancient Jewish center in Babylonia (i.e., Iraq).¹⁹⁰ In Poland, though, the Mongol invasion had rather the opposite effect: the destruction caused a need for rapid recovery, which attracted a new (third) wave of settlers to the region. In 1241, the Mongols destroyed the Slavic cities of Kraków and Wrocław, as well as many other towns of Little Poland and Silesia. Yet already in the following year, Wrocław was re-founded; and Kraków was reestablished in 1257. The rebuilt cities were settled mainly by Germans who came from Bavaria, Saxony, and Bohemia. Jews also formed an integral part of this

¹⁸⁴ BIEŁOWSKI, *Magistri Vincentii Chronicon Polonorum*, p. 381.

¹⁸⁵ LUBOMIRSKI, pp. 8–9 (no. 11).

¹⁸⁶ GORLIŃSKA, *Żydzi*.

¹⁸⁷ STERN/HOENIGER, p. 24.

¹⁸⁸ WEINREICH.

¹⁸⁹ Ed. GRÜNHAGEN/WUTKE, *Regesten*, vol. 4, p. 16 (no. 2666).

¹⁹⁰ For a recent overview, see BOTTICINI/ECKSTEIN, pp. 311–325.

migration movement. These migrating Jews came from a very different background in comparison to those of the previous period: their occupations centered overwhelmingly around moneylending.

The Jews of this third wave of migration settled throughout Silesia, Great Poland, Little Poland, Lusatia, and Pomerania, but they reached Red Ruthenia much later—only after the incorporation of this region into the Polish Crown in 1340. In Red Ruthenia, these Ashkenazi Jews met the so-called “Canaanite” (Slavic-speaking) Jews who are attested there from much earlier: as early as in the eleventh century in Przemyśl and in the twelfth century in Włodzimierz Wołyński (Volodymyr-Volynskyi).¹⁹¹ This wave of settlement also encompassed a much more massive movement of people than had previous waves. During this period of 1241–1388, a Jewish presence is attested in Wrocław,¹⁹² Świdnica,¹⁹³ Głogów,¹⁹⁴ Legnica,¹⁹⁵ Nysa,¹⁹⁶ Jawor,¹⁹⁷ Ziębice (Münsterberg),¹⁹⁸ Namysłów,¹⁹⁹ Wińsko,²⁰⁰ Opole, Bytom, and Zülz in Silesia; in Kraków,²⁰¹ Kazimierz,²⁰² Koprzywnica,²⁰³ Jasło,²⁰⁴ Nowy Sącz,²⁰⁵ and Olkusz²⁰⁶ in Little Poland; in Kalisz,²⁰⁷ Poznań,²⁰⁸ and Pyzdry²⁰⁹ in Great Poland; in Szczecin²¹⁰ and Greifswald²¹¹ in Pomerania; in Görlitz²¹² in Lusatia; and in Lviv²¹³ in Red Ruthenia. The prominence of Silesia in the geography of Jewish settlement during this period most likely demonstrates that this

¹⁹¹ See KUPFER/LEWICKI, pp. 34, 271; KULIK, *Earliest Evidence*.

¹⁹² *Passim* in the sources.

¹⁹³ Ed. TZSCHOPPE/STENZEL, p. 403; SOMMERSBERG, pp. 91–94 (no. 85); WODZIŃSKI, p. 200 (no. 24).

¹⁹⁴ Ed. SOMMERSBERG, pp. 105–107 (no. 105); GRÜNHAGEN/WUTKE, *Regesten*, vol. 4, p. 16 (no. 2666); TZSCHOPPE/STENZEL, pp. 444–446.

¹⁹⁵ Ed. SCHIRRMACHER, pp. 16–17, 38 (no. 57); IRGANG, pp. 195–196 (no. 243).

¹⁹⁶ Ed. STENZEL, *Urkunden*, p. 69.

¹⁹⁷ Ed. IDEM, *Liber fundationis*, p. 105.

¹⁹⁸ Ed. IDEM, *Urkunden*, pp. 138–139; IDEM, *Liber fundationis*, pp. 116–117.

¹⁹⁹ GRÜNHAGEN/WUTKE, *Regesten*, vol. 5, pp. 177–178 (no. 4113).

²⁰⁰ *Ibidem*, vol. 4, p. 284 (no. 3482).

²⁰¹ *Passim* in the sources.

²⁰² Ed. CHMIEL, p. 82; WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 36 (no. 80).

²⁰³ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI, *Kodeks dyplomatyczny małopolski*, p. 77 (no. 60).

²⁰⁴ *Ibidem*.

²⁰⁵ *Ibidem*, p. 206 (no. 173).

²⁰⁶ Ed. WYROZUMSKA, *Fragmenty*, p. 54.

²⁰⁷ Ed. ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 1, pp. 534 (no. 574).

²⁰⁸ *Passim* in the sources.

²⁰⁹ Ed. LEKSZYCKI, pp. 4 (no. 20), 5 (no. 27), 18 (no. 123–124), 28 (no. 215), 35 (no. 267).

²¹⁰ GROTEFEND, p. 110, footnote 2.

²¹¹ *Ibidem*, footnote 4.

²¹² TZSCHOPPE/STENZEL, p. 473.

²¹³ *Passim* in the sources.

area served as a transitional station along the routes of Jewish migration eastward into Little Poland and northward into Great Poland.

4 Jewish Communities and Micro-toponymics

Especially important is that references to Jewish communities begin to appear for the first time during this period: “the community of the Jews” (*universitas Judeorum*) in Kalisz in 1287,²¹⁴ a “Jewish street” (*Judengasse*) in Kraków in 1304,²¹⁵ a “Jewish quarter” (*vicus Judeorum*) in Poznań in 1313²¹⁶ and in Kraków in 1347,²¹⁷ the “Jewish town” (*civitas Judeorum*) in Legnica in 1317,²¹⁸ and a “Jewish street” (*platea Judeorum*) in Namysłów in 1321²¹⁹ and in Lviv in 1383.²²⁰ The Jewish street in Kraków (now called St. Anne’s street) is particularly well attested: it is mentioned in no fewer than 19 documents. This does not mean that Jews lived only on this street, nor that only Jews lived there: numerous Christians were involved in real estate transactions with premises on this street, and Jews lived also on Vistula street (*platea Wislensi*), St. Stephen’s street (*platea Sancti Stephani*), Sławkowska street (*platea Slacoviensi*), St. Florian’s street (*platea Sancti Floriani*), Kraków street (*platea Cracoviensis*), and Salt street (*platea Salis*). The Jewish street probably received its name due to the location of the synagogue there, as is explicitly mentioned in one of the documents: “in front of the synagogue on the Jewish street” (*in platea Iudeorum, in opposito synagoge*).²²¹ The synagogue of Kraków itself is attested for the first time in 1356 in this very text.

Other Jewish micro-toponyms in Kraków include a Jewish cemetery (*der Iuden kyroff*) first mentioned in 1311,²²² a Jewish bath (*balneum Iudeorum*, i.e., *mikweh*) first mentioned in 1358,²²³ and the Jewish Gate (*valva/porta Judeorum*) first mentioned in 1366.²²⁴ One of the city gates of Kraków was called “Jewish” because the Jewish cemetery was located between this gate

²¹⁴ Ed. ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 1, p. 534 (no. 574).

²¹⁵ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 1, p. 8 (no. 28); MAHLER/RINGELBLUM, *Teksty źródłowe*, p. 25.

²¹⁶ Ed. GAŚSIOROWSKI/KOWALEWICZ, pp. 92–93 (no. 82).

²¹⁷ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 1, p. 178 (no. 1584); WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 27 (no. 29).

²¹⁸ Ed. SCHIRRMACHER, p. 38 (no. 57).

²¹⁹ GRÜNHAGEN/WUTKE, *Regesten*, vol. 5, pp. 177–78 (no. 4113).

²²⁰ Ed. CZOŁOWSKI, p. 18 (no. 112).

²²¹ Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 1, p. 193 (no. 1682); WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 27 (no. 31).

²²² Ed. PIEKOSIŃSKI/SZUJSKI, vol. 1, p. 23 (no. 208); WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 23 (no. 4).

²²³ Ed. WOLAŃSKI, no. 7, 8, 9, 14; STADNICKI, pp. 18–22 (no. 6); PIEKOSIŃSKI, *Kodeks dyplomatyczny miasta Krakowa*, p. 36 (no. 32).

²²⁴ Ed. KRZYŻANOWSKI, *Księgi ławnicze krakowskie*, p. 4 (no. 31); WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 28 (no. 35).

and the nearby “Cobblers’ gate” (*valva Sutorum*). The sources read “the Jewish Gate near their cemetery” (*portam Judeorum prope cimiterium eorum*),²²⁵ and “the Cobblers’ gate near the Jewish cemetery” (*valvam Sutorum, prope cimiterium Judeorum sitis*).²²⁶ Jewish cemeteries also existed, of course, in other towns, and two foundation charters of Jewish cemeteries have survived from Kalisz in 1287²²⁷ and from Wrocław in 1315/16.²²⁸ The Jewish cemeteries of Wrocław and Świdnica in Silesia, moreover, produced impressive collections of Hebrew gravestones.²²⁹

The Jewish Gate of Kraków deserves special attention. Outside Kraków, the urban micro-toponym “Jewish Gate” is similarly attested in several places in Eastern Europe: in Lublin in Poland, in Brno in Moravia, and in Kiev in Rus’. The Jewish Gate of Lublin was built by Kazimierz the Great in 1342; however, since a Jewish presence in Lublin is attested only from the fifteenth century, it probably received this name much later. The Jewish Gate at Brno has been known under this name since 1328. The Kievan toponym is the oldest: the Jewish Gate of Kiev (*жидовьски ворота* [zhidov’ski vorota]) is already mentioned in the twelfth-century Rus’ Primary Chronicle (under the years 1146 and 1151). This name may have reached Kiev under the influence of the Byzantine model, since at Constantinople, there was also a “Jewish Gate” (Greek *Ἑβραϊκὴ Πόρτα* [Hebraikē Porta]; Latin *Porta Hebraica*), and another city gate of Kiev is known to have been named after the Constantinople prototype—the “Golden Gate” (Old Rus’ *золотые ворота* [zolotyie vorota] at Kiev; Greek *Χρυσεία Πύλη* [Chryseia Pylē] or Latin *Porta Aurea* at Constantinople). However, the earliest reference to a “Jewish Gate” (*Judentor*) appeared as early as 1080 at Worms.²³⁰ Therefore, it is not clear whether this urban micro-toponym reached Poland and Moravia from the Rhineland or from Kiev.

5 Occupations

The predominant occupation of Jews in Poland in the post-Mongol age was moneylending. This reality is clearly reflected in the earliest privileges granted to the Jews of Great Poland and Silesia, which are preoccupied predominantly with conditions surrounding the borrowing of money from Jews against a pledge. This stands in sharp contrast to the first known privilege of

²²⁵ Ed. KRZYŻANOWSKI, *Księgi ławnicze krakowskie*, p. 120 (no. 1035); WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 35 (no. 75).

²²⁶ Ed. KRZYŻANOWSKI, *Księgi ławnicze krakowskie*, p. 112 (no. 966); WYROZUMSKA, *Jews*, p. 35 (no. 71).

²²⁷ Ed. ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 1, p. 534 (no. 574).

²²⁸ Ed. KORN, pp. 92–93.

²²⁹ WODZIŃSKI.

²³⁰ GILOMEN, p. 89.

this type, which was granted to the Jews of Speyer in Germany in 1084.²³¹ There, moneylending is not mentioned at all, and the sole Jewish occupations are said to be currency exchange and trade. The transition of Jews to the profession of moneylending from their other previous occupations occurred in Western Europe only after the excommunication of Christian usurers by Pope Alexander III in Canon 25 of the Third Lateran Ecumenical Council of 1179.

In the course of this activity, Jews could become the lords of Christian serfs due to cases of foreclosure on mortgaged estates. The privilege of 1264 explicitly prohibits this practice,²³² whereas the privilege of 1357 permits it.²³³ All other privileges, however, stipulate some form of compensation for the Jewish lenders in such cases. Halperin claims that the relevant clause in the privilege of 1264 is a fifteenth-century forgery written after 1496, when Jewish landownership came to be prohibited by law.²³⁴ Court records from Great Poland from the late fourteenth century²³⁵ certainly do show mortgaged villages passing into Jewish possession.

In the post-Mongol age, attested Jewish occupations other than moneylending are few indeed—mainly butchery and weaving. The existence of Jewish butchers was required by the Jewish religious rules of *kashruth*. Indeed, regulations for Jewish ritual slaughter were issued in Wrocław in 1302,²³⁶ and a guild of Jewish butchers was authorized by Kazimierz the Great in Kraków in 1333.²³⁷ Since Jewish butchers were accustomed to selling non-kosher meat to non-Jews on a regular basis, regulations for the Jewish meat trade were also issued in Wrocław in 1301.²³⁸ A guild of Jewish weavers was established at Legnica in 1301 by Duke Bolko I of Silesia.²³⁹ Jews also continued to lease state monopolies, showing some degree of continuity from the previous period, but these were now royal salt mines rather than mints. In 1368 Kazimierz the Great dismissed his personal banker, the famous Lewko son of Jordan, from his capacity of administrator of the royal salt mines at Wieliczka, due to a quarrel between him and his Christian colleagues.²⁴⁰ Jewish merchants are practically unattested in the post-Mongol age, with the sole but significant exception of Jewish involvement in the pepper trade between the Middle East and Poland via Red Ruthenia in 1385.²⁴¹

²³¹ ALTMANN/BERNHEIM, p. 156.

²³² ŁEBIŃSKI, vol. 1, pp. 563–566 (no. 605).

²³³ Ibidem, vol. 3, pp. 88–94 (no. 1368).

²³⁴ HALPERIN, *Bet Yisra'el*, pp. 231–233.

²³⁵ Ed. LEKSZYCKI, pp. 5 (no. 25), 15 (no. 95), 17–18 (no. 121), 18 (no. 124), 19 (no. 141). For discussion see KALIK, *Hafkadah*, pp. 33–35.

²³⁶ Ed. WATTENBACH, pp. 58–59 (no. I.75).

²³⁷ Ed. WYROZUMSKA, *Nieznany dokument*, p. 194.

²³⁸ Ed. GÖRLITZ, pp. 108–109.

²³⁹ Ed. SCHIRRMACHER, pp. 16–17.

²⁴⁰ Ed. HELCEL, pp. 217–218.

²⁴¹ Ed. CZOŁOWSKI, p. 39 (no. 247–248).

No fewer than 28 documents of various kinds (legislative, judicial, and economic) from the reigns of Kazimierz the Great, Louis I of Anjou, and Władysław II Jagiełło reflect the activities of Lewko son of Jordan, the famous personal banker of the king. It seems that it was Lewko who was responsible for the especially favorable conditions granted to the Polish Jews by Kazimierz rather than the legendary Esterka, the king's supposed Jewish mistress, since no contemporary documents about this woman have survived.²⁴²

6 Jews and Their Neighbors

The sources also show that Polish Jews and their Slavic neighbors shared common beliefs and superstitions. The sources mention two magic rings, one beneficial and one maleficent, that are relevant in this connection. According to the *Life of St. Stanisław* by Vincent of Kielcza, "After they were touched by his pontifical finger-ring [...] innumerable sick people [...]—not only faithful Christians, but also faithless Jews—[...] recovered their health and remain healthy until this day."²⁴³ According to the proceedings of the trial against John of Czarnków, who was accused in 1373 of the desecration of Kazimierz's grave and the robbery of royal regalia, the defendant "daily wears on his hand the maleficent ring of Lewko the Jew."²⁴⁴ St. Stanisław was martyred in 1079 but canonized in 1253, so the words of the hagiographer writing in about 1260—"and [they] remain healthy until this day"—most likely refers to miracles of recent date, especially in view of the fact that the canonization procedure for Christian saints required evidence of miracles produced by their relics. Both of these cases imply that Christians and Jews alike believed in the miraculous powers of magical rings, whether these belonged to a Christian saint or a powerful Jew.

The degree of acculturation of medieval Polish Jews is truly surprising: many Jewish women bore Slavic names, such as Kaszyca (the mother of Lewko son of Jordan), Zwonka, and Libusha.²⁴⁵ The last name is especially interesting, since "Libuše" is the name of the legendary founding mother of the Přemyslid dynasty in the Czech historical tradition.²⁴⁶ The appearance of this name on a Hebrew gravestone from Wrocław in 1304²⁴⁷ actually comprises the only evidence that this figure was also known in Silesia.

²⁴² SHMERUK.

²⁴³ "Denique anulo eius pontificali consignati ... innumerabiles infirmi ... non solum fideles Christiani, sed et perfidi Iudei ... usque in diem hodiernum optate restituuntur sanitati." KĘTRZYŃSKI, p. 390.

²⁴⁴ "[...] ferretque cotidie penes se anulum Leuconis iudei maleficatum." Ed. HELCEL, pp. xiii–xiv, footnote 5.

²⁴⁵ For the distribution of Slavic names among medieval East European Jews, see BEIDER, *Onomastic Analysis*.

²⁴⁶ BRETHOLZ, pp. 11–17.

²⁴⁷ Ed. NISSEN, p. 23 (no. 2); BRANN, *Geschichte der Juden*, Anhang II., p. viii (no. 3); WODZIŃSKI, p. 174 (no. 4).

Conclusions

Among the most important general conclusions to be reached from our reevaluation of all the evidence is probably the lack of continuity across the three waves of Jewish migration and settlement outlined here. The Silesian Jewish farmers of the eleventh and twelfth centuries could hardly be direct descendants of the earlier Jewish itinerant merchants who travelled through Poland, while the Jewish moneylenders of the post-Mongol age, in turn, are unlikely to have been the descendants of the earlier farmers. These three waves of migration are closely connected to the development of the early Slavic states. Established by Scandinavian merchant-warriors—not only in Rus', but possibly also in Poland (see the *Dagome judex* controversy)²⁴⁸—these countries depended economically to a large extent on the slave trade, which naturally attracted (among others) Jewish itinerant merchants. The later consolidation of these states, their transition to predominantly agricultural economies, and the development of state administration by the twelfth century attracted Jewish farmers as well and contributed to the appearance of the Jewish mint-masters. Furthermore, the rapid post-Mongol economic recovery, which entailed a desperate demand for credit, attracted Jewish money-lenders.

Our analysis also clarifies considerably the economic history of Eastern Europe. Thus, for example, the appearance of Jewish farmers in Silesia coincides with the consolidation of the very concept of the East European village, whereas the practical disappearance of Jewish merchants from the sources coincides with the agrarization of the East European economy.

No support for either the Khazarian or the Sorbian theories of the origin of Polish Jewry can be found in the extant evidence. No traces of Khazarian Jews can be found in Poland at all, and the only evidence of a Jewish presence in medieval Lusatia (homeland of the Sorbs) is the presence of Jewish mint-masters in the twelfth century and a single fourteenth-century German document. The direction of Jewish migration in the second and third waves is overwhelmingly from west to east through Silesia. A certain westward movement from Rus' after the Mongol invasion can be only conjectured from the abrupt imbalance observed between Polish and Rus' sources for this period. However, the very fact that the Hebrew evidence regarding Jews in Poland comes almost exclusively from Germany and Bohemia testifies to the strong connection between Jewish communities in these countries. The predominantly agricultural character of the second wave does not exclude mass proselytism of migrants in their original homeland somewhere in southern Germany, but the possible priestly origin of the Jewish mint-masters of the same era excludes them from a proselyte background. The strong institutional and personal connections with the Rhineland, as reflected in rabbinic sources (and possibly also in common micro-toponyms), must also indicate a migration of elite groups.

²⁴⁸ KÜRBIS.

All these considerations also help to clarify the origins of eastern Ashkenazi Jewry. Since most Polish Jews were descendants of the third wave of Jewish migration into Poland, there is little doubt that the vast majority of them came from Germany and Bohemia, mostly via Silesia. We can also reliably conjecture that the Jewish population of southwestern Rus'—whatever its origins (possibly also at least partially Ashkenazi) and size (possibly reduced by the Mongol conquest)—came to be integrated with the immigrants from the west due to the eastward expansion of Lithuania and Poland during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.²⁴⁹ Thus, most modern Ashkenazi Jewry must go back to the melding of these two communities.

²⁴⁹ See KULIK: *Judeo-Greek Legacy*, and his forthcoming volume *Jews in Old Rus': A Documentary History*, Cambridge/MA.

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