In this module, you will learn how the effects of the Crusades, the Hundred Years’ War, and the plague transformed medieval society.

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The Big Idea As the kingdoms of England and France began to develop into nations, certain democratic traditions evolved.

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The Big Idea In the 1300s, Europe was torn apart by religious strife, famine, the bubonic plague, and the Hundred Years’ War.
Timeline of Events 800–1500

Europe

987 Capetian dynasty begins in France.


< 1095 First Crusade begins.

1215 King John approves Magna Carta.

< 1315 Great Famine spreads across Northern Europe.

1325 The Aztec establish Tenochtitlán.

1347 The plague strikes Europe.

1429 Joan of Arc leads the French to victory over the English at Orléans.

World

980 Toltec Empire at its peak (a Toltec warrior figurine).

1041 Movable type invented in China.

1206 Genghis Khan unites Mongols and is proclaimed the Great Khan.

1453 Hundred Years’ War ends with a French victory.
Lesson 1

The Power of the Church

The Big Idea
Church leaders and political leaders competed for power and authority.

Why It Matters Now
Today many religious leaders still voice their opinions on political issues.

Key Terms and People
clergy
sacrament
canon law
Holy Roman Empire
lay investiture

Setting the Stage
Amid the weak central governments in feudal Europe, the Church emerged as a powerful institution. It shaped the lives of people from all social classes. As the Church expanded its political role, strong rulers began to question the pope’s authority. Dramatic power struggles unfolded in the Holy Roman Empire, the scene of mounting tensions between popes and emperors.

The Far-Reaching Authority of the Church
In crowning Charlemagne as the Roman Emperor in 800, the Church sought to influence both spiritual and political matters. Three hundred years earlier, Pope Gelasius I recognized the conflicts that could arise between the two great forces—the Church and the state. He wrote, “There are two powers by which this world is chiefly ruled: the sacred authority of the priesthood and the authority of kings.”

Gelasius suggested an analogy to solve such conflicts. God had created two symbolic swords. One sword was religious. The other was political. The pope held a spiritual sword. The emperor wielded a political one. Gelasius thought that the pope should bow to the emperor in political matters. In turn, the emperor should bow to the pope in religious matters. If each ruler kept the authority in his own realm, Gelasius suggested, the two leaders could share power in harmony. In reality, though, they disagreed on the boundaries of either realm. Throughout the Middle Ages, the Church and various European rulers competed for power.

The Structure of the Church
Like the system of feudalism, the Church had its own organization. Power was based on status. Church structure consisted of different ranks of clergy, or religious officials. The pope in Rome headed the Church. All clergy, including bishops and priests, fell under his authority. Bishops supervised priests, the lowest ranking members of the clergy. Bishops also settled disputes over
Church teachings and practices. For most people, local priests served as the main contact with the Church.

**Religion as a Unifying Force** Feudalism and the manor system created divisions among people. But the shared beliefs in the teachings of the Church bonded people together. The Church was a stable force during an era of constant warfare and political turmoil. It provided Christians with a sense of security and of belonging to a religious community. In the Middle Ages, religion occupied center stage. Medieval Christians’ everyday lives were harsh. Still, they could all follow the same path to salvation—everlasting life in heaven. Priests and other clergy administered the **sacraments**, or important religious ceremonies. These rites paved the way for achieving salvation. For example, through the sacrament of baptism, people became part of the Christian community.

At the local level, the village church was a unifying force in the lives of most people. It served as a religious and social center. People worshiped together at the church. They also met with other villagers. Religious holidays, especially Christmas and Easter, were occasions for festive celebrations.

**The Law of the Church** The Church’s authority was both religious and political. It provided a unifying set of spiritual beliefs and rituals. The Church also created a system of justice to guide people’s conduct. All medieval Christians, kings and peasants alike, were subject to **canon law**, or Church law, in matters such as marriage and religious practices. The Church also established courts to try people accused of violating canon law. Two of the harshest punishments that offenders faced were excommunication and the interdict.

Popes used the threat of excommunication, or banishment from the Church, to wield power over political rulers. For example, a disobedient king’s quarrel with a pope might result in his excommunication. This punishment meant the king would be denied salvation. Excommunication also freed all the king’s vassals from their duties to him. If an excommunicated king continued to disobey the pope, the pope, in turn, could use an even more frightening weapon, the interdict.

Under an interdict, many sacraments and religious services could not be performed in the king’s lands. As Christians, the king’s subjects believed that without such sacraments they might be doomed to hell. In the 11th century, excommunication and the possible threat of an interdict would force a German emperor to submit to the pope’s commands.

A pope’s tiara symbolized his power.
Three groups vied for power during this time:

- The Church
- The Holy Roman Empire
- The Papacy

**The Church and the Holy Roman Empire**

When Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne emperor in 800, he unknowingly set the stage for future conflicts between popes and emperors. These clashes would go on for centuries.

**Otto I Allies with the Church**

The most effective ruler of medieval Germany was Otto I, known as Otto the Great. Otto, crowned king in 936, followed the policies of his hero, Charlemagne. Otto formed a close alliance with the Church. To limit the nobles’ strength, he sought help from the clergy. He built up his power base by gaining the support of the bishops and abbots, the heads of monasteries. He dominated the Church in Germany. He also used his power to defeat German princes. Following in Charlemagne’s footsteps, Otto also invaded Italy on the pope’s behalf. In 962, the pope rewarded Otto by crowning him emperor.

**Signs of Future Conflicts**

The German-Italian empire Otto created was first called the Roman Empire of the German Nation. It later became the Holy Roman Empire. It remained the strongest state in Europe until about 1100. However, Otto’s attempt to revive Charlemagne’s empire caused trouble for future German leaders. Popes and Italian nobles, too, resented German power over Italy.

**An Age of Superstition**

Lacking knowledge of the laws of nature, many people during the Middle Ages were led to irrational beliefs. They expected the dead to reappear as ghosts. A friendly goblin might do a person a good deed, but an evil witch might cause great harm. Medieval people thought an evil witch had the power to exchange a healthy child for a sickly one.

The medieval Church frowned upon superstitions such as these:
- preparing a table with three knives to please good fairies
- making a vow by a tree, a pond, or any place but a church
- believing that a person could change into the shape of a wolf
- believing that meeting a priest or the croak of a raven would bring a person good or bad luck

According to medieval superstitions, ravens were thought to bring bad luck.

Critical Thinking

1. **Draw Conclusions**  Why were people during the Middle Ages more likely to believe in superstitions?

2. **Make Inferences**  Why do you think the medieval Church frowned upon many superstitions?
The Emperor Clashes with the Pope

The Church was not happy that kings, such as Otto, had control over clergy and their offices. It especially resented the practice of **lay investiture**, a ceremony in which kings and nobles appointed church officials. Whoever controlled lay investiture held the real power in naming bishops, who were very influential clergy that kings sought to control. Church reformers felt that kings should not have that power. In 1075, Pope Gregory VII banned lay investiture.

The furious young German emperor, Henry IV, immediately called a meeting of the German bishops he had appointed. With their approval, the emperor ordered Gregory to step down from the papacy. In response, Gregory then excommunicated Henry. German bishops and princes feared losing salvation. By Church law, they no longer had an obligation to serve Henry, so they sided with the pope. To save his throne, Henry tried to win the pope’s forgiveness.
Showdown at Canossa  In January 1077, Henry crossed the snowy Alps to the Italian town of Canossa (kuh•nAHS•uh). He approached the castle where Gregory was a guest. Gregory later described the scene:

“There, having laid aside all the belongings of royalty, wretchedly, with bare feet and clad in wool, he [Henry IV] continued for three days to stand before the gate of the castle. Nor did he desist from imploring with many tears the aid and consolation of the apostolic mercy until he had moved all of those who were present there.”

Pope Gregory, in Basic Documents in Medieval History

The pope was obligated to forgive any sinner who begged so humbly. Still, Gregory kept Henry waiting in the snow for three days before ending his excommunication. Their meeting actually solved nothing. The pope had humiliated Henry, the proudest ruler in Europe. Yet, Henry felt triumphant and rushed home to punish the rebellious nobles.

Concordat of Worms  The successors of Gregory and Henry continued to fight over lay investiture until 1122. That year, representatives of the Church and the emperor met in the German city of Worms (wurms). They reached a compromise known as the Concordat of Worms. By its terms, the Church alone could appoint a bishop, but the emperor could veto the appointment. As a result of Henry’s struggle, German princes regained power they lost under Otto. But a later king, Frederick I, would resume the battle to build royal authority.

Disorder in the Empire  By 1152, the seven princes who elected the German king realized that Germany needed a strong ruler to keep the peace. They chose Frederick I, nicknamed “barbarossa” for his red beard.

The Reign of Frederick I  Frederick I was the first ruler to call his lands the Holy Roman Empire. However, this region was actually a patchwork of feudal territories. His forceful personality and military skills enabled him to dominate the German princes. Yet, whenever he left the country, disorder returned. Following Otto’s example, Frederick I repeatedly invaded the rich cities of Italy to assert his Imperial dominance. His brutal tactics spurred Italian merchants to unite against him. He also angered the pope, who joined the merchants in an alliance called the Lombard League.

In 1176, the foot soldiers of the Lombard League faced Frederick’s army of mounted knights at the Battle of Legnano (lay•NYAHN•oh). In an astonishing victory, the Italian foot soldiers used crossbows to defeat feudal knights for the first time in history. In 1177, Frederick made peace with the pope and returned to Germany. His defeat, though, had undermined his authority with the German princes. After he drowned in 1190, his empire fell to pieces.
German States Remain Separate  German kings after Frederick I, including his grandson Frederick II, continued their attempts to revive Charlemagne’s empire and his alliance with the Church. This policy led to wars with Italian cities and to further clashes with the pope. These conflicts were one reason why the feudal states of Germany did not unify during the Middle Ages. Another reason was that the system of German princes electing the king weakened royal authority. German rulers controlled fewer royal lands to use as a base of power. In contrast, the French and English kings of the same period were establishing a strong central authority.

This manuscript shows Frederick I at the height of his imperial power.

Lesson 1 Assessment

1. Organize Information  List the major events and dates of the power struggles between the Church and rulers. What do these power struggles have in common?

Date/Event

2. Key Terms and People  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. Summarize  What were some of the matters covered by canon law?

4. Analyze Effects  How did Otto the Great make the crown stronger than the German nobles?

5. Analyze Motives  Why did lay investiture cause a struggle between kings and popes?

6. Compare  How was the structure of the Church like that of the feudal system?

7. Evaluate  Was the Concordat of Worms a fair compromise for both the emperor and the Church? Why or why not?

8. Draw Conclusions  Why did German kings fail to unite their lands?
Church Reform and the Crusades

Setting the Stage

Some historians have called the period in Western Europe between 500 and 1000 a “dark age.” Magyars seeking plunder pushed up from the Danube River region. Vikings raided western European church monasteries. These groups destroyed many centers of learning. Around the 900s, however, a new spirit infused the Church and brought about a spiritual revival in the clergy. Filled with new energy, the Church began restructuring itself and started massive building programs to create new places of worship.

The Age of Faith

Monasteries led the spiritual revival. The monastery founded at Cluny in France in 910 was especially important. The reformers there wanted to return to the basic principles of Christianity. To do so they established new religious orders. Influenced by the devotion and reverence for God shown by the new monasteries, the popes began to reform the Church. They restored and expanded its power and authority. A new age of religious feeling was born—the Age of Faith. Still, many problems troubled the Church.

Problems in the Church

Some priests were nearly illiterate and could barely read their prayers. Some of the popes were men of questionable morals. Many bishops and abbots cared more about their positions as feudal lords than about their duties as spiritual leaders. Reformers were most distressed by three main issues.

- Many village priests married and had families. Such marriages were against Church rulings.
- Bishops sold positions in the Church, a practice called simony (SY•muh•nee).
- Using the practice of lay investiture, kings appointed church bishops. Church reformers believed the Church alone should appoint bishops.

Key Terms and People

simony
Gothic
Urban II
Crusade
Saladin
Richard the Lion-Hearted
**Reform and Church Organization** Pope Leo IX and Pope Gregory VII enforced Church laws against simony and the marriage of priests. The popes who followed Leo and Gregory reorganized the Church to continue the policy of reform. In the 1100s and 1200s, the Church was restructured to resemble a kingdom, with the pope at its head. The pope’s group of advisers was called the papal Curia. The Curia also acted as a court. It developed canon law (the law of the Church) on matters such as marriage, divorce, and inheritance. The Curia also decided cases based on these laws. Diplomats for the pope traveled through Europe dealing with bishops and kings. In this way the popes established their authority throughout Europe.

The Church collected taxes in the form of tithes. These consumed one-tenth the yearly income from every Christian family. The Church used some of the money to perform social services such as caring for the sick and the poor. In fact, the Church operated most hospitals in medieval Europe.

**New Religious Orders** The Cluniac Reforms of the early 900s renewed interest in monastic life. In the early 1200s, wandering friars traveled from place to place preaching and spreading the Church’s ideas. Like monks, friars took vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience. Unlike monks, friars did not live apart from the world in monasteries. Instead they preached to the poor throughout Europe’s towns and cities. Friars owned nothing and lived by begging.

Dominic, a Spanish priest, founded the Dominicans, one of the earliest orders of friars. Because Dominic emphasized the importance of study, many Dominicans were scholars. Francis of Assisi (uh•SEE•zee), an Italian, founded another order of friars, the Franciscans. Francis treated all creatures, including animals, as if they were his spiritual brothers and sisters.

Women played an important role in the spiritual revival. Women joined the Dominicans, Benedictines, and Franciscans. In 1212, a woman named Clare and her friend Francis of Assisi founded the Franciscan order for women. It was known as the Poor Clares. In Germany, Hildegard of Bingen founded a Benedictine convent in 1147. Like friars, these women lived in poverty and worked to help the poor and sick. Unlike the friars, however, women were not allowed to travel from place to place as preachers.

**Cathedrals—Cities of God**

During the medieval period, most people worshiped in small churches near their homes. Larger churches called cathedrals were built in city areas. The cathedral was viewed as the representation of the City of God. As such, it was decorated with all the richness that Christians could offer. Between about 800 and 1100, churches were built in the Romanesque (ROH•muh•NEHSK) style. The churches had round arches and a heavy roof held up by thick walls and pillars. The thick walls had tiny windows that let in little light.
Gothic Architecture

The master builders in France, where the Gothic style originated, developed techniques of structural engineering that were key to Gothic architecture: (1) ribbed vaults that supported the roof’s weight, (2) flying buttresses that transferred weight to thick, exterior walls, (3) pointed arches that framed huge, stained-glass windows, and (4) tall spires that seemed to be pointing to heaven.

Interpret Visual Sources
1. **Draw Conclusions**  
   Think about elements in the style and engineering of Gothic architecture.
   a. What features enabled a cathedral to be built several stories high?
   b. What elements made the building seem even higher that it was?
   c. How did light get into the church?
2. **Compare and Contrast**  
   Think about stained-glass windows you have seen. Do they tell a story? What figures or events do they illustrate?

Chartres Cathedral

The cathedral of Chartres (shahrt) is a masterpiece of Gothic architecture. The cathedral has hundreds of sculptures. The stone carvings that frame every door illustrate Bible stories. The cathedral has not one, but two bell towers.

Stained Glass

In addition to its sculpture and soaring towers, Chartres Cathedral has some of the most beautiful stained-glass windows of any Gothic cathedral in Europe. The windows illustrate stories from the Bible. As illiterate peasants walked past the 176 windows, they could view those stories. The window above depicts the parable of the Good Samaritan.
A New Style of Church Architecture  A new spirit in the church and access to more money from the growing wealth of towns and from trade helped fuel the building of churches in several European countries. In the early 1100s, a new style of architecture, known as Gothic, evolved throughout medieval Europe. The term Gothic comes from a Germanic tribe named the Goths. Unlike the heavy, gloomy Romanesque buildings, Gothic cathedrals thrust upward as if reaching toward heaven. Light streamed in through huge stained-glass windows. Other arts of the medieval world were incorporated around or in the Gothic cathedral—sculpture, wood-carvings, and stained-glass windows. These elements were meant to inspire the worshiper with the magnificence of God. Soon Gothic cathedrals were built in many French towns. In Paris, the vaulted ceiling of the Cathedral of Notre Dame (NOH•tru•DAHM) rose to more than 100 feet. In all, nearly 500 Gothic churches were built between 1170 and 1270.

The Crusades

The Age of Faith also inspired wars of conquest. In 1093, the Byzantine emperor Alexius Comnenus sent an appeal to Robert, Count of Flanders. The emperor asked for help against the Muslim Turks. They were threatening to conquer his capital, Constantinople:

“Come then, with all your people and give battle with all your strength, so that all this treasure shall not fall into the hands of the Turks... Therefore act while there is still time lest the kingdom of the Christians shall vanish from your sight and, what is more important, the Holy Sepulchre [the tomb where Jesus was buried] shall vanish. And in your coming you will find your reward in heaven, and if you do not come, God will condemn you.”

—Emperor Alexius Comnenus, quoted in The Dream and the Tomb by Robert Payne

Pope Urban II also read that letter. Shortly after this appeal, he issued a call for what he termed a “holy war,” a Crusade, to gain control of the Holy Land. Over nearly 200 years, a number of such Crusades were launched and fought.

Goals of the Crusades  The Crusades had economic, social, and political goals as well as religious motives. Muslims controlled Palestine (the Holy Land) and threatened Constantinople. The Byzantine emperor in Constantinople appealed to Christians to stop Muslim attacks. In addition, the pope wanted to reclaim Palestine and reunite Christendom, which had split into Eastern and Western branches in 1054.

Kings and the Church both saw the Crusades as an opportunity to get rid of quarrelsome knights who fought each other. These knights threatened the peace of the kingdoms, as well as Church property.

Others who participated in the Crusades were younger sons who, unlike eldest sons, did not stand to inherit their father’s property. They were looking for land and a position in society, or for adventure.
In the later Crusades, merchants profited by making cash loans to finance the journey. They also leased their ships for a hefty fee to transport armies over the Mediterranean Sea. At the same time, the merchants of Pisa, Genoa, and Venice hoped to win control of key trade routes to India, Southeast Asia, and China from Muslim traders.

The First and Second Crusades  Pope Urban’s call brought a tremendous outpouring of religious feeling and support for the Crusade. According to the pope, those who died on Crusade were assured of a place in heaven. With red crosses sewn on tunics worn over their armor and the battle cry of “God wills it!” on their lips, knights and commoners were fired up by religious zeal and became Crusaders.

By early 1097, three armies of knights and people of all classes had gathered outside Constantinople. Most of the Crusaders were French, but Bohemians, Germans, Englishmen, Scots, Italians, and Spaniards came as well. The Crusaders were ill prepared for war in this First Crusade. Many knew nothing of the geography, climate, or culture of the Holy Land. They had no grand strategy to capture Jerusalem. The nobles argued among themselves and couldn’t agree on a leader. Finally an army of 12,000 (less than one-fourth of the original army) approached Jerusalem. The Crusaders besieged the city for over a month. On July 15, 1099, they captured the city.

All in all, the Crusaders had won a narrow strip of land. It stretched about 650 miles from Edessa in the north to Jerusalem in the south. Four feudal Crusader states were carved out of this territory, each ruled by a European noble.

The Crusaders’ states were extremely vulnerable to Muslim counterattack. In 1144, Edessa was reconquered by the Turks. The Second Crusade was organized to recapture the city. But its armies straggled home in defeat. In 1187, Europeans were shocked to learn that Jerusalem itself had fallen to a Kurdish warrior and Muslim leader Saladin (SAL•uh•dihn).
What are the dangers and rewards of going on a Crusade?

You are a squire in England. The knight you serve has decided to join a Christian Crusade (a holy war) to capture the city of Jerusalem from the Muslims. He has given you the choice of joining or staying home to look after his family and manor. On an earlier Crusade, the knight and his friends looted towns and manors, taking jewels and precious objects. But some of the knights were also held for ransom, robbed, and murdered. You are torn between the desire for adventure and possible riches that you might find on the Crusade, and fear of the hazards that await you on such a dangerous journey.

Richard the Lion-Hearted leads a group of Crusaders on the Third Crusade to regain Jerusalem from the Muslims.

Servants and women sometimes accompanied the Crusaders as they made their way toward the Holy Land.

Critical Thinking
1. Analyze Motives  What reasons might an individual have to join a Crusade?
2. Evaluate  What might be the advantages and disadvantages of staying home to defend the knight’s family and estate?
The Third Crusade

The Third Crusade to recapture Jerusalem was led by three of Europe’s most powerful monarchs. They were Philip II (Augustus) of France, German emperor Frederick I (Barbarossa), and the English king, Richard the Lion-Hearted. Philip argued with Richard and went home. Barbarossa drowned on the journey. So Richard was left to lead the Crusaders in an attempt to regain the Holy Land from Saladin. Both Richard and Saladin were brilliant warriors. After many battles, the two agreed to a truce in 1192. Jerusalem remained under Muslim control. In return, Saladin promised that unarmed Christian pilgrims could freely visit the city’s holy places.

William of Tyre

A Christian bishop, William of Tyre, drew upon eyewitness accounts of the capture of Jerusalem by Crusaders.

“It was impossible to look upon the vast numbers of the slain without horror; everywhere lay fragments of human bodies, and the very ground was covered with the blood of the slain. It was not alone the spectacle of headless bodies and mutilated limbs strewn in all directions that roused horror in all who looked upon them. Still more dreadful was it to gaze upon the victors themselves, dripping with blood from head to foot, an ominous sight which brought terror to all who met them. It is reported that within the Temple enclosure alone about ten thousand infidels perished, in addition to those who lay slain everywhere throughout the city in the streets and squares, the number of whom was estimated as no less.”

Saladin

This is an excerpt of Saladin’s reply to a letter from Frederick I (Barbarossa) threatening Saladin. Saladin wrote the letter after he recaptured Jerusalem.

“Whenever your armies are assembled . . . we will meet you in the power of God. We will not be satisfied with the land on the seacoast, but we will cross over with God’s good pleasure and take from you all your lands in the strength of the Lord. . . . And when the Lord, by His power, shall have given us victory over you, nothing will remain for us to do but freely to take your lands by His power and with His good pleasure. . . . By the virtue and power of God we have taken possession of Jerusalem and its territories; and of the three cities that still remain in the hands of the Christians . . . we shall occupy them also.”

Analyze Historical Sources

How did the brutal battles for Jerusalem affect each side? Explain.
The Crusading Spirit Dwindles

In 1204, the Fourth Crusade to capture Jerusalem failed. The knights did not reach the Holy Land. Instead, they ended up looting the city of Constantinople. In the 1200s, four more Crusades to free the holy land were also unsuccessful. The religious spirit of the First Crusade faded, and the search for personal gain grew. In two later Crusades, armies marched not to the Holy Land but to Egypt. The Crusaders intended to weaken Muslim forces there before going to the Holy Land. But none of these attempts conquered much land.

Historical Source

Luttrell Psalter

This illustration from a Latin text shows Richard the Lion-Hearted unhorsing Saladin during the Third Crusade. However, the two men never actually met in personal combat.

Analyze Historical Sources

What evidence reveals the artist’s bias about the confrontation between Islam and Christianity?
The Strange Story of the Children’s Crusade  Some stories of the Crusades mention that in 1212, thousands of children set out to conquer Jerusalem. From France, Stephen of Cloyes led as many as 30,000 children south to the Mediterranean. From Germany, Nicholas of Cologne marched about 20,000 young people over the Alps to the sea. Many died of cold and starvation on the journey. Thousands more were sold into slavery or drowned at sea after boarding ships for the Holy Land. Perhaps as few as one-tenth of those who set out on this Children’s Crusade returned home.

Historians doubt that this Children’s Crusade happened. The “children” probably were landless peasants and laborers searching for a better life. There certainly were young people in the crowds who took to the road in 1212, and some may have intended to travel to the Holy Land. However, the story of pious young people taking up the crusaders’ banner is more fiction than fact.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Effect</th>
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<tr>
<td>Crusaders travel to Holy Land</td>
<td>Increased trade and commerce</td>
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<td></td>
<td>More jobs for women and others left behind</td>
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<tr>
<td>Failure of Crusades</td>
<td>Weakened feudal nobility; increased power of kings</td>
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<td>Weakened pope and Byzantine Empire</td>
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<tr>
<td>Christian/Muslim interaction</td>
<td>Increased trade and shared knowledge</td>
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<td>Left legacy of hatred because of Christian intolerance</td>
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The Effects of the Crusades

The Crusades are a forceful example of the power of the Church during the medieval period. The call to go to the Holy Land encouraged thousands to leave their homes and travel to faraway lands. For those who stayed home, especially women, it meant a chance to manage affairs on the estates or to operate shops and inns.

European merchants who lived and traded in the Crusader states expanded trade between Europe and Southwest Asia. The goods imported from Southwest Asia included spices, fruits, and cloth. This trade with the West benefited both Christians and Muslims.

However, the failure of later Crusades also lessened the power of the pope. The Crusades weakened the feudal nobility and increased the power of kings. Thousands of knights and other participants lost their lives and fortunes. The fall of Constantinople weakened the Byzantine Empire.

For Muslims, the intolerance and prejudice displayed by Christians in the Holy Land left behind a legacy of bitterness and hatred. This legacy continues to the present. For Christians and Jews who remained in the Muslim-controlled region after the fall of the Crusader states, relations with the Muslim leadership worsened. The Crusades grew out of religious fervor, feudalism, and chivalry, which came together with explosive energy. This same energy led to the growth of trade, towns, and universities in medieval Europe.

Lesson 2 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Fill in a timeline like the one below to organize key events. Which of the events of the Age of Faith do you think were most important to the Church? Explain.

2. **Key Terms and People**  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Summarize**  What were the three main causes for the need to reform the Church?

4. **Evaluate**  Which Crusade was the only successful one?

5. **Develop Historical Perspective**  How did the goals of the Crusades change over the years?

6. **Form and Support Opinions**  Which of the following do you think best represents the spirit of the Age of Faith—Church reform, the Crusades, or the Gothic cathedrals? Explain.

7. **Make Inferences**  What evidence supports the idea that the Church functioned like a kingdom?

8. **Analyze Effects**  How did the Crusades change the history of Europe? Give reasons for your answer.
Lesson 3

Changes in Medieval Society

The Big Idea
The feudal system declined as agriculture, trade, finance, towns, and universities developed.

Why It Matters Now
The changes in the Middle Ages laid the foundations for modern Europe.

Key Terms and People
three-field system
guild
Commercial Revolution
burgher
vernacular
Thomas Aquinas
scholastics

Setting the Stage
While Church reform, cathedral-building, and the Crusades were taking place, other important changes were occurring in medieval society. Between 1000 and 1300, agriculture, trade, and finance made significant advances. Towns and cities grew. This was in part due to the growing population and to territorial expansion of western Europe. Cultural interaction with the Muslim and Byzantine worlds sparked the growth of learning and the birth of an institution new to Europe—the university.

A Growing Food Supply
Europe's great revival would have been impossible without better ways of farming. Expanding civilization required an increased food supply. A warmer climate, which lasted from about 800 to 1200, brought improved farm production. Farmers began to cultivate lands in regions once too cold to grow crops. They also developed new methods to take advantage of more available land.

Switch to Horsepower  For hundreds of years, peasants had depended on oxen to pull their plows. Oxen lived on the poorest straw and stubble, so they were easy to keep. Horses needed better food, but a team of horses could plow three times as much land in a day as a team of oxen.

Before farmers could use horses, however, a better harness was needed. Sometime before 900, farmers in Europe began using a harness that fitted across the horse's chest, enabling it to pull a plow. As a result, horses gradually replaced oxen for plowing and for pulling wagons. All over Europe, axes rang as the great forests were cleared for new fields.

The Three-Field System  Around AD 800, some villages began to organize their lands into three fields instead of two. Two of the fields were planted, and the other lay fallow.
(resting) for a year. Under this new **three-field system**, farmers could grow crops on two-thirds of their land each year, not just on half of it. As a result, food production increased. Villagers had more to eat. Well-fed people, especially children, could better resist disease and live longer, and as a result the European population grew dramatically.

**The Guilds**

A second change in the European economy was the development of the guild. A **guild** was an organization of individuals in the same business or occupation working to improve the economic and social conditions of its members. The first guilds were merchant guilds. Merchants banded together to control the number of goods being traded and to keep prices up. They also provided security in trading and reduced losses.

About the same time, skilled artisans, such as wheelwrights, glassmakers, winemakers, tailors, and druggists, began craft guilds. In most crafts, both husband and wife worked at the family trade. In a few crafts, especially for cloth making, women formed the majority. The guilds set standards for quality of work, wages, and working conditions. For example, bakers were required to sell loaves of bread of a standard size and weight. The guilds also created plans for supervised training of new workers.

By the 1000s, artisans and craftspeople were manufacturing goods by hand for local and long-distance trade. More and better products were now available to buyers in small towns, in bigger cities, and at trade fairs. Guilds became powerful forces in the medieval economy. The wealth they accumulated helped them establish influence over the government and the economy of towns and cities.

**SOCIAL HISTORY**

**Surnames**

Many people can trace their last names, or surnames, back to a medieval occupation in Europe. The name Smith, for example, refers to someone who “smites,” or works, metal. The surname Silversmith would belong to a person who works silver. In German-speaking areas, a smith was named Schmidt.

Someone who made goods out of wood was often surnamed Carpenter. In French-speaking areas, a carpenter was called Charpentier, while in German areas, the same person would be called Zimmerman.

The last name of Boulanger indicated a baker in France. A baker in Germany often had the surname Becker.

**Critical Thinking**

1. **Synthesize** What kind of information did a surname relay in medieval times?

2. **Make Inferences** What occupation do you think someone with the surname Taylor might have had in the Middle Ages?
Commercial Revolution

Just as agriculture was expanding and craftsmanship changing, so were trade and finance. Increased availability of trade goods and new ways of doing business changed life in Europe. Taken together, this expansion of trade and business is called the Commercial Revolution.

Fairs and Trade Most trade took place in towns. Peasants from nearby manors traveled to town on fair days, hauling items to trade. Great fairs were held several times a year, usually during religious festivals, when many people would be in town. People visited the stalls set up by merchants from all parts of Europe.

Cloth was the most common trade item. Other items included bacon, salt, honey, cheese, wine, leather, dyes, knives, and ropes. Such local markets met all the needs of daily life for a small community. No longer was everything produced on a self-sufficient manor.
More goods from foreign lands became available. Trade routes spread across Europe from Flanders to Italy. Italian merchant ships traveled the Mediterranean to ports in Byzantium such as Constantinople. They also traveled to Muslim ports along the North African coast. Trade routes were opened to Asia, in part by the Crusades.

Increased business at markets and fairs made merchants willing to take chances on buying merchandise that they could sell at a profit. Merchants then reinvested the profits in more goods.

Business and Banking As traders moved from fair to fair, they needed large amounts of cash or credit and ways to exchange many types of currencies. Enterprising merchants found ways to solve these problems. For example, bills of exchange established exchange rates between different coinage systems. Letters of credit between merchants eliminated the need to carry large amounts of cash and made trading easier. Trading firms and associations formed to offer these services to their groups.

Merchants looked for new markets and opportunities to make a profit. Merchants first had to purchase goods from distant places. To do so they had to borrow money, but the Church forbade Christians from lending money at interest, a sin called usury. Over time, the Church relaxed its rule on usury and Christians entered the banking business. Banking became an important business, especially in Italy.
The Commercial Revolution

Society Changes The changes brought about by the Commercial Revolution were slow, yet they had a major effect on the lives of Europeans. Increased trade brought many changes to aspects of society. Two of the most important changes involved what people did to earn a living and where they lived. As towns attracted workers, the towns grew into cities. Life in the cities was different from life in the sleepy villages or on manors.

Urban Life Flourishes

Scholars estimate that between 1000 and 1150, the population of western Europe rose from around 30 million to about 42 million. Towns grew and flourished. Compared to great cities like Constantinople, European towns were unsophisticated and tiny. Europe’s largest city, Paris, probably had no more than 60,000 people by the year 1200. A typical town in medieval Europe had only about 1,500 to 2,500 people. Even so, these small communities became a powerful force for change in Europe.

Trade and Towns Grow Together By the later Middle Ages, trade was the very lifeblood of the new towns, which sprung up at ports and crossroads, on hilltops, and along rivers. As trade grew, towns all over Europe swelled with people. The excitement and bustle of towns drew many people. But there were some drawbacks to living in a medieval town. Streets were narrow, filled with animals and their waste. With no sewers, most people dumped household and human waste into the street in front of the house. Most people never bathed, and their houses lacked fresh air, light,
and clean water. Because houses were built of wood with thatched roofs, they were a constant fire hazard. Nonetheless, many people chose to move to towns to pursue the economic and social opportunities they offered.

People were no longer content with their old feudal existence on manors or in tiny villages. Even though legally bound to their lord’s manor, many serfs ran away. According to custom, a serf could now become free by living within a town for a year and a day. A saying of the time went, “Town air makes you free.” Many of these runaway serfs, now free people, made better lives for themselves in towns.

**Merchant Class Shifts the Social Order** The merchants and craftspeople of medieval towns did not fit into the traditional medieval social order of noble, clergy, and peasant. At first, towns came under the authority of feudal lords, who used their authority to levy fees, taxes, and rents. As trade expanded, the **burguers**, or merchant-class town dwellers, resented this interference in their trade and commerce. They organized themselves and demanded privileges. These rights included freedom from certain kinds of tolls and the right to govern the town. At times they fought against their landlords and won these rights by force.

**The Revival of Learning**

During the Crusades, European contact with Muslims and Byzantines greatly expanded. This contact brought a new interest in learning, especially in the works of Greek philosophers. The Muslim and Byzantine libraries housed copies of these writings. Most had disappeared during the centuries following the fall of Rome and the invasions of western Europe.

**The Muslim Connection** In the 1100s, Christian scholars from Europe began visiting Muslim libraries in Spain. Few Western scholars knew Greek, but most did know Latin. So Jewish scholars living in Spain translated the Arabic versions of works by Aristotle and other Greek writers into Latin. All at once, Europeans acquired a huge new body of knowledge. This included science, philosophy, law, mathematics, and other fields. In addition, the Crusaders brought back to Europe superior Muslim technology in ships, navigation, and weapons.

**Scholars and the University** At the center of the growth of learning stood a new European institution—the university. The word **university** originally referred to a group of scholars meeting wherever they could. People, not buildings, made up the medieval university. Universities arose in Paris and in Bologna, Italy, by the end of the 1100s. Others followed in the English town of Oxford and in Salerno, Italy. Most students were the sons of burguers or well-to-do artisans. For most students, the goal was a job in government or the Church. Earning a bachelor’s degree in theology might take five to seven years in school; becoming a master of theology took at least twelve years of study.
New ideas and forms of expression began to flow out of the universities. At a time when serious scholars and writers were writing in Latin, a few remarkable poets began using a lively vernacular, or the everyday language of their homeland. Some of these writers wrote masterpieces that are still read today. Dante Alighieri wrote *The Divine Comedy* (1308–1314) in Italian. Geoffrey Chaucer wrote *The Canterbury Tales* (about 1386–1400) in English. Christine de Pisan wrote *The Book of The City of Ladies* (1405) in French. Since most people couldn’t read or understand Latin, these works written in the vernacular brought literature to many people.

**Aquinas and Medieval Philosophy**  Christian scholars were excited by the ideas of Greek philosophers. They wondered if a Christian scholar could use Aristotle’s logical approach to truth and still keep faith with the Bible.

In the mid-1200s, the scholar Thomas Aquinas (uh-KWIY-nuhs) argued that the most basic religious truths could be proved by logical argument. Between 1267 and 1273, Aquinas wrote the *Summa Theologicae*. Aquinas’s great work, influenced by Aristotle, combined ancient Greek thought with the Christian thought of his time.
Aquinas and his fellow scholars who met at the great universities were known as schoolmen, or **scholastics**. The scholastics used their knowledge of Aristotle to debate many issues of their time. Their teachings on law and government influenced the thinking of western Europeans, particularly the English and French. Accordingly, they began to develop democratic institutions and traditions.

Thomas Aquinas’s writings focused on questions of faith versus reason and logic.
England and France Develop

The Big Idea
As the kingdoms of England and France began to develop into nations, certain democratic traditions evolved.

Why It Matters Now
Modern concepts of jury trials, common law, and legal rights developed during this period.

Key Terms and People
William the Conqueror
Henry II
common law
Magna Carta
parliament
Hugh Capet
Philip II
Estates-General

Setting the Stage
By the early 800s, small Anglo-Saxon kingdoms covered the former Roman province of Britain. In Europe, the decline of the Carolingian Empire in the 900s left a patchwork of feudal states controlled by local lords. Gradually, the growth of towns and villages and the breakup of the feudal system were leading to more centralized government and the development of nations. The earliest nations in Europe to develop a strong unified government were England and France. Both would take similar paths.

England Absorbs Waves of Invaders
For centuries, invaders from various regions in Europe landed on English shores. The Angles and the Saxons stayed, bringing their own ways and creating an Anglo-Saxon culture.

Early Invasions
In the 800s, Britain was battered by fierce raids of Danish Vikings. These invaders were so feared that a special prayer was said in churches: “God, deliver us from the fury of the Northmen.” Only Alfred the Great, Anglo-Saxon king from 871 to 899, managed to turn back the Viking invaders. Gradually he and his successors united the kingdom under one rule, calling it England, “land of the Angles.” The Angles were one of the Germanic tribes that had invaded the island of Britain.

In 1016, the Danish king Canute (kuh•NOOT) conquered England, molding Anglo-Saxons and Vikings into one people. In 1042, King Edward the Confessor, a descendant of Alfred the Great, took the throne. Edward died in January 1066 without an heir. A great struggle for the throne erupted, leading to one last invasion.

The Bayeux Tapestry uses embroidered scenes on linen panels to tell the story of the conquest of England by William the Conqueror.
The Norman Conquest  The invader was William, duke of Normandy, who became known as William the Conqueror. Normandy is a region in the north of France that had been conquered by the Vikings. Its name comes from the French term for the Vikings—North men, or Norman. The Normans were descended from the Vikings, but they were French in language and in culture. As King Edward’s cousin, William claimed the English crown and invaded England with a Norman army.

William’s rival was Harold Godwinson, the Anglo-Saxon who claimed the throne. Harold was equally ambitious. On October 14, 1066, Normans and Anglo-Saxons fought the battle that changed the course of English history—the Battle of Hastings. After Harold was killed by an arrow that pierced his eye, the Normans won a decisive victory.

After his victory, William declared all England his personal property. William kept about one-fifth of England for himself. The English lords who supported Harold lost their lands. William then granted their lands to about 200 Norman lords who swore oaths of loyalty to him personally. By doing this, William unified control of the lands and laid the foundation for centralized government in England.

England’s Evolving Government

Over the next centuries, English kings tried to achieve two goals. First, they wanted to hold and add to their French lands. Second, they wanted to strengthen their own power over the nobles and the Church.

William the Conqueror’s descendants owned land both in Normandy and in England. The English king Henry II added to these holdings by marrying Eleanor of Aquitaine from France.

The marriage brought Henry a large territory in France called Aquitaine. He added Aquitaine to the lands in Normandy he had already inherited from William the Conqueror. Because Henry held lands in France, he was a vassal to the French king. But he was also a king in his own right.

Juries and Common Law  Henry ruled England from 1154 to 1189. He strengthened the royal courts of justice by sending royal judges to every part of England at least once a year. They collected taxes, settled lawsuits, and punished crimes. Henry also introduced the use of the jury in English
courts. A jury in medieval England was a group of local people—usually 12 neighbors of the accused—who answered a royal judge’s questions about the facts of a case. Jury trials became a popular means of settling disputes. Only the king's courts were allowed to conduct them.

Over the centuries, case by case, the rulings of England’s royal judges formed a unified body of law that became known as common law. Today the principles of English common law are the basis for law in many English-speaking countries, including the United States.

**The Magna Carta** Henry was succeeded first by his son Richard the Lion-Hearted, hero of the Third Crusade. When Richard died, his younger brother John took the throne. John ruled from 1199 to 1216. He failed as a military leader, earning the nickname John Softsword. John lost Normandy and all his lands in northern France to the French under Philip Augustus. This loss forced a confrontation with his own nobles.

Some of John’s problems stemmed from his own personality. He was cruel to his subjects and tried to squeeze money out of them. He alienated the Church and threatened to take away town charters guaranteeing self-government. John raised taxes to an all-time high to finance his wars. His nobles revolted. On June 15, 1215, they forced John to agree to the most celebrated document in English history, the **Magna Carta** (Great Charter). This document, drawn up by English nobles and reluctantly approved by King John, guaranteed certain basic political rights. The nobles wanted to safeguard their own feudal rights and limit the king’s powers. In later years, however, English people of all classes argued that certain clauses in the Magna Carta applied to every citizen. Guaranteed rights included no taxation without representation, a jury trial, and the protection of the law. The Magna Carta guaranteed what are now considered basic legal rights both in England and in the United States.

**The Model Parliament** Another important step toward democratic government came during the rule of the next English king, Edward I. Edward needed to raise taxes for a war against the French, the Welsh, and the Scots. In 1295, Edward summoned two burgesses (citizens of wealth and property) from every borough and two knights from every county to serve as a parliament, or legislative group. In November 1295, knights, burgesses, bishops, and lords met together at Westminster in London. This is now called the Model Parliament because its new makeup (commoners, or nonnobles, as well as lords) served as a model for later kings.

Over the next century, from 1300 to 1400, the king called the knights and burgesses whenever a new tax was needed. In Parliament, these two groups gradually formed an assembly of their own called the House of Commons. Nobles and bishops met separately as the House of Lords. Under Edward I, Parliament was in part a royal tool that weakened the great lords. As time went by, Parliament became strong. Like the Magna Carta, it provided a check on royal power.
**The Magna Carta**

The Magna Carta is considered one of the cornerstones of democratic government. The underlying principle of the document is the idea that all must obey the law, even the king. Its guaranteed rights are an important part of modern liberties and justice.

> “38. No bailiff [officer of the court] for the future shall, upon his own unsupported complaint, put anyone to his “law,” without credible witnesses brought for this purposes. 39. No freeman shall be taken or imprisoned . . . or exiled or in any way destroyed, nor will we [the king] go upon him nor send upon him, except by the lawful judgement of his peers or by the law of the land. 40. To no one will we sell, to no one will we refuse or delay, right or justice. 45. We will appoint as justices, constables, sheriffs, or bailiffs only such as know the law of the realm and mean to observe it well.”

**Capetian Dynasty Rules France**

The kings of France, like those of England, looked for ways to increase their power. After the breakup of Charlemagne’s empire, French counts and dukes ruled their lands independently under the feudal system. By the year 1000, France was divided into about 47 feudal territories. In 987, the last member of the Carolingian family—Louis the Sluggard—died. Hugh Capet (kuh•PAY), an undistinguished duke from the middle of France, succeeded him. The Capet family ruled only a small territory, but at its heart stood Paris. Hugh Capet began the Capetian dynasty of French kings that ruled France from 987 to 1328.

**France Becomes a Separate Kingdom**

Hugh Capet, his son, and his grandson all were weak rulers, but time and geography favored the Capetians. Their territory, though small, sat astride important trade routes in northern France. For 300 years, Capetian kings tightened their grip on this strategic area. The power of the king gradually spread outward from Paris. Eventually, the growth of royal power would unite France.

**Philip II Expands His Power**

One of the most powerful Capetians was Philip II, called Philip Augustus, who ruled from 1180 to 1223. As a child, Philip had watched his father lose land to King Henry II of England.
When Philip became king at the age of 15, he set out to weaken the power of the English kings in France. Philip was crafty, unprincipled, and willing to do whatever was necessary to achieve his goals.

Philip had little success against Henry II or Henry’s son, Richard the Lion-Hearted. However, when King John, Richard’s brother, gained the English throne, it was another matter. Philip earned the name Augustus (from the Latin word meaning “majestic”), probably because he greatly increased the territory of France. He seized Normandy from King John in 1204 and within two years had gained other territory. By the end of Philip’s reign, he had tripled the lands under his direct control. For the first time, a French king had become more powerful than any of his vassals.

Philip II not only wanted more land, he also wanted a stronger central government. He established royal officials called bailiffs. They were sent from Paris to every district in the kingdom to preside over the king’s courts and to collect the king’s taxes.

**Philip II’s Heirs**  France’s central government became even stronger during the reign of Philip’s grandson, Louis IX, who ruled from 1226 to 1270. Unlike his grandfather, Louis was pious and saintly. He was known as the ideal king. After his death, he was made a saint by the Catholic Church. Louis created a French appeals court, which could overturn the decisions of local courts. These royal courts of France strengthened the monarchy while weakening feudal ties.

In 1302, Philip IV, who ruled France from 1285 to 1314, was involved in a quarrel with the pope. The pope refused to allow priests to pay taxes to the king. Philip disputed the right of the pope to control Church affairs

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**The Development of England and France**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>England</th>
<th>France</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>William the Conqueror invades England in 1066.</td>
<td>Hugh Capet increases the territory of France.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Henry II (1154–1189) introduces the use of the jury in English courts.</td>
<td>Philip II (1180–1223) establishes bailiffs to preside over courts and collect taxes.</td>
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**Interpret Charts**

1. **Clarify**  What aspects of courts were developed during the rule of Henry II and Philip II?
2. **Develop Historical Perspective**  Which aspect of centralized government developed about the same time in both England and France?
in his kingdom. As in England, the French king usually called a meeting of his lords and bishops when he needed support for his policies. To win wider support against the pope, Philip IV decided to include commoners in the meeting.

**Estates-General** In France, the Church leaders were known as the First Estate, and the great lords as the Second Estate. The commoners, wealthy landholders or merchants who Philip invited to participate in the council, became known as the Third Estate. The whole meeting was called the Estates-General.

Like the English Parliament in its early years, the Estates-General helped to increase royal power against the nobility. Unlike Parliament, however, the Estates-General never became an independent force that limited the king’s power. However, centuries later, the Third Estate would play a key role in overthrowing the French monarchy during the French Revolution.

**Beginnings of Democracy** England and France were just beginning to establish a democratic tradition. This tradition rested on setting up a centralized government that would be able to govern widespread lands. The creation of common law and court systems was a first step toward increased central government power. Including commoners in the decision-making process of government was also an important step in the direction of democratic rule. Before England and France could move forward in this direction, however, they had to contend with a century of turmoil that included religious disputes, plague, and war.

### Lesson 4 Assessment

1. **Organize Information** Use a graphic like the one below to organize your notes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1.</td>
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List four steps toward democratic government you read about in this lesson that are similar to U.S. practices. Explain.

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Summarize** What two legal practices date back to Henry II?

4. **Synthesize** What are some basic rights guaranteed by the Magna Carta?

5. **Analyze Causes** Why did Philip II call the Estates-General together?

6. **Compare** Compare the way in which England and France began developing as nations.

7. **Analyze Effects** Which of the changes in English government is reflected in the government of the United States today?

8. **Evaluate** What steps were necessary to centralize governments in England and France?
Troubles of the 14th Century

The Big Idea
In the 1300s, Europe was torn apart by religious strife, famine, the bubonic plague, and the Hundred Years’ War.

Why It Matters Now
Events of the 1300s led to a change in attitudes toward religion and the state, a change reflected in modern attitudes.

Key Terms and People
Avignon
Great Schism
John Wycliffe
Jan Hus
Great Famine
Black Death
bubonic plague
Hundred Years’ War
Joan of Arc

Setting the Stage
The 1300s were filled with disasters, both natural and human made. The Church seemed to be thriving but soon would face a huge division. Europe’s booming population experienced a devastating famine. Then a deadly epidemic claimed millions of lives. So many people died in the epidemic that the structure of the economy changed. Claims to thrones in France and England led to wars in those lands. The wars would result in changes in the governments of both France and England. By the end of the century, the medieval way of life was beginning to disappear.

A Church Divided
At the beginning of the 1300s, the Age of Faith still seemed strong. Soon, however, both the pope and the Church were in desperate trouble.

Pope and King Collide  In 1300, Pope Boniface VIII attempted to enforce papal authority on kings as previous popes had. When King Philip IV of France asserted his authority over French bishops, Boniface responded with an official document. It stated that kings must always obey popes.

Philip merely sneered at this statement. In fact, one of Philip’s ministers is said to have remarked that “my master’s sword is made of steel, the pope’s is made of [words].” Instead of obeying the pope, Philip had him held prisoner in September 1303. The king planned to bring him to France for trial. The pope was rescued, but the elderly Boniface died a month later. Never again would a pope be able to force monarchs to obey him.
Avignon and the Great Schism  In 1305, Philip IV persuaded the College of Cardinals to choose a French archbishop as the new pope. Clement V, the newly selected pope, moved from Rome to the city of Avignon (av•vee•NYAWN) in France. Popes would live there for the next 69 years.

The move to Avignon badly weakened the Church. When reformers finally tried to move the papacy back to Rome, however, the result was even worse. In 1378, Pope Gregory XI died while visiting Rome. The College of Cardinals then met in Rome to choose a successor. As they deliberated, they could hear a mob outside screaming, “A Roman, a Roman, we want a Roman for pope, or at least an Italian!” Finally, the cardinals announced to the crowd that an Italian had been chosen: Pope Urban VI. Many cardinals regretted their choice almost immediately. Urban VI’s passion for reform and his arrogant personality caused the cardinals to elect a second pope a few months later. They chose Robert of Geneva who spoke French. He took the name Clement VII.

Now there were two popes. Each declared the other to be a false pope, excommunicating his rival. The French pope lived in Avignon, while the Italian pope lived in Rome. This began the split in the Church known as the Great Schism (SIHZ•uhm), or division.

In 1414, the Council of Constance attempted to end the Great Schism by choosing a single pope. By now, there were a total of three popes: the Avignon pope, the Roman pope, and a third pope elected by an earlier council at Pisa. With the help of the Holy Roman Emperor, the council forced all three popes to resign. In 1417, the Council chose a new pope, Martin V. The Great Schism finally had ended, but it left the papacy greatly weakened.

Scholars Challenge Church Authority  The papacy was further challenged by an Englishman named John Wycliffe (WIHK•lihf). He preached that Jesus Christ, not the pope, was the true head of the Church. He was much offended by the worldliness and wealth many clergy displayed. Wycliffe believed that the clergy should own no land or wealth. Wycliffe also taught that the Bible alone—not the pope—was the final authority for Christian life. He helped spread this idea by inspiring an English translation of the New Testament of the Bible.

Influenced by Wycliffe’s writings, Jan Hus, a professor in Bohemia (now part of the Czech Republic), taught that the authority of the Bible was higher than that of the pope. Hus was excommunicated in 1412. In 1414 he was seized by Church leaders, tried as a heretic, and then burned at the stake in 1415.
The Great Famine and Bubonic Plague Strike

By 1300, Europe’s population was booming. Then a series of disasters struck, beginning with the Great Famine. From 1315 to 1317, abnormally severe winters and torrential rains throughout the spring and summer growing seasons ruined crop yields across northern Europe. Grains were the main staple of the European diet, but soggy fields became difficult, if not impossible, to plow. In addition, the inclement weather limited the ability to dry or cure hay to feed livestock. In desperation, starving people ate the grain seeds they needed to plant more crops and killed the animals they used to plow the fields. The famine devastated the population and damaged the social network. Its lingering effects were felt until the early 1320s. However, the longer-term impact on this population whose immune systems were weakened by famine would prove costly.

The Plague Strikes

During the 1300s an epidemic struck parts of Asia, North Africa, and Europe. Approximately one-third of the population of Europe, and millions more in Asia and Africa, died of the deadly disease known as the Black Death. It got this name because of the purplish or black spots it produced on the skin. This devastating plague swept across Europe between 1347 and 1351. Historians are still not sure what disease the Black Death was, or even if it was a single disease. One theory is that the disease took two different forms. One, called bubonic plague, was spread by fleas that lived on rats and other animals. The other, pneumonic plague, could be spread through the air from person to person through coughs and sneezes. Pneumonic plague spread more quickly.

Unlike catastrophes that pull communities together, this epidemic was so terrifying that it ripped apart the very fabric of society. Giovanni Boccaccio, an Italian writer of the time, described its effect:

“This scourge had implanted so great a terror in the hearts of men and women that brothers abandoned brothers, uncles their nephews, sisters their brothers, and in many cases wives deserted their husbands. But even worse, . . . fathers and mothers refused to nurse and assist their own children.”

—Giovanni Boccaccio, The Decameron

Origins and Impact of the Plague

In 1346, plague struck Mongol armies laying siege to Kaffa, a port on the Black Sea. From there rats infested with fleas carrying the disease made their way onto ships. Infected fleas bit humans transferring the disease to them. As merchants traveled, so did the plague. It spread quickly throughout Europe, first striking coastal regions of Italy. From there it moved inland along trade routes to Spain, France, Germany, England, and beyond. By 1351, almost no part of Europe remained untouched by the Black Death. Remarkably, some communities escaped the plague relatively unharmed. In others, two-thirds to three-quarters of those who caught the disease died.
The Black Death

The plague, or Black Death, was a killer disease that swept repeatedly through many areas of the world. It wiped out two-thirds of the population in some areas of China, destroyed populations of Muslim and Byzantine towns in North Africa and Southwest Asia, and then decimated one-third of the population of Europe, almost 25 million people.

Disease Spreads

Black rats carried fleas that were infested with a bacillus called Yersinia pestis. Because people did not bathe, almost all had fleas and lice. In addition, medieval people threw their garbage and sewage into the streets. These unsanitary streets became breeding grounds for more rats. The fleas carried by rats leapt from person to person, thus spreading the bubonic plague with incredible speed.

Symptoms of the Bubonic Plague

- Painful swellings called buboes (BOO-bohz) in the lymph nodes, particularly those in the armpits and groin
- Sometimes purplish or blackish spots on the skin
- Extremely high fever, chills, delirium, and in most cases, death

Death Tolls, 1300s

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Number</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Western Europe</td>
<td>20–25 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China, India, other Asians</td>
<td>25 million</td>
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<td>= 4 million</td>
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Critical Thinking

1. **Hypothesize** Had people known the cause of the plague, what might they have done to slow its spread?

2. **Compare** What diseases of today might be compared to the bubonic plague? Why?
The plague returned every few years, though it never struck as severely as in the first outbreak. However, the periodic attacks further reduced the population.

**Effects of the Plague** The economic and social effects of the plague were enormous. The old manorial system began to crumble. Some of the effects included:

- Town populations fell.
- Trade declined. Prices rose.
- Serfs left manors in search of better wages.
- Nobles fiercely resisted peasant demands for higher wages, causing peasant revolts in England, France, Italy, and Belgium.
- Jews were falsely blamed for bringing on the plague. All over Europe, Jews were driven from their homes or, worse, massacred.
- The Church suffered a loss of prestige when its prayers failed to stop the onslaught of the bubonic plague and priests abandoned their duties.

The plague and its aftermath disrupted medieval society, hastening changes that were already in the making. The society of the Middle Ages was collapsing. The century of war between England and France was that society’s final death struggle.

**Now and Then**

**If the Plague Struck America Today**

The bubonic plague reportedly wiped out about one-third of Europe’s population in the 1300s. In the United States today, a one-third death toll would equal over 96 million people, or the number living in the states represented by the color red.

**Interpret Charts**

1. **Summarize** How many states on the chart would have lost their entire population to the plague?

2. **Draw Conclusions** How might the chart help explain why many Europeans thought the world was ending?
Not only did the people in Europe during the 1300s have to deal with epidemic disease, but they also had to deal with war. England and France battled with each other on French soil for just over a century. The century of war between England and France marked the end of medieval Europe’s society.

When the last Capetian king died without a successor, England’s Edward III, as grandson of Philip IV, claimed the right to the French throne. The war that Edward III launched for that throne continued on and off from 1337 to 1453. It became known as the **Hundred Years’ War**. Victory passed back and forth between the two countries. Finally, between 1421 and 1453, the French rallied and drove the English out of France entirely, except for the port city of Calais.

The Hundred Years’ War brought a change in the style of warfare in Europe. At this time some combatants were still operating under medieval ideals of chivalry. They looked with contempt on the common foot soldiers and archers who fought alongside them. This contempt would change as the longbow changed warfare.

**The Longbow Changes Warfare** The English introduced the longbow and demonstrated its power in three significant battles: Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt. The first and most spectacular battle was the Battle of Crécy (KREHS•ee) on August 26, 1346. The English army, including

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**History in Depth**

**The Longbow**

The longbow was cheap, easy to carry, and deadly. It was powerful enough to penetrate armor, thus reducing the impact of mounted cavalry. Bowmen could fire so fast that the longbow has been called the “machine gun of the Middle Ages.”

The arrows were absolutely fatal when shot within 100 yards. The average archer could fire 12 to 15 arrows per minute and hit a man at 200 yards away.
longbowmen, was outnumbered by a French army three times its size. The French army included knights and archers with crossbows. French knights believed themselves invincible and attacked.

English longbowmen let fly thousands of arrows at the oncoming French. The crossbowmen, peppered with English arrows, retreated in panic. The knights trampled their own archers in an effort to cut a path through them. English longbowmen sent volley after volley of deadly arrows. They unhorsed knights who then lay helplessly on the ground in their heavy armor. Then, using long knives, the English foot soldiers attacked, slaughtering the French. At the end of the day, more than a third of the French force lay dead. Among them were some of the most honored in chivalry. The longbow, not chivalry, had won the day. The mounted, heavily armored medieval knight was soon to become extinct.

The English repeated their victory ten years later at the Battle of Poitiers (pwah•TYAY). The third English victory, the Battle of Agincourt (AJ•ihn•kawrt), took place in 1415. The success of the longbow in these battles spelled doom for chivalric warfare.

Joan of Arc In 1420, the French and English signed a treaty stating that Henry V would inherit the French crown upon the death of the French king Charles VI. Then, in 1429, a teenage French peasant girl named Joan of Arc felt moved by God to rescue France from its English conquerors. When Joan was just 13 she began to have visions and hear what she believed were voices of the saints. They urged her to drive the English from France and give the French crown to France’s true king, Charles VII, son of Charles VI.

On May 7, 1429, Joan led the French army into battle at a fort city near Orléans. The fort blocked the road to Orléans. It was a hard-fought battle for both sides. The French finally retreated in despair. Suddenly, Joan and a few soldiers charged back toward the fort. The entire French army stormed after her. The siege of Orléans was broken. Joan of Arc guided the French onto the path of victory.

After that victory, Joan persuaded Charles to go with her to Reims. There he was crowned king on July 17, 1429. In 1430, the Burgundians, England’s allies, captured Joan in battle. They turned her over to the English. The English, in turn, handed her over to Church authorities to stand trial. Although the French king Charles VII owed his crown to Joan, he did nothing to rescue her. Condemned as a witch and a heretic because of her claim to hear voices, Joan was burned at the stake on May 30, 1431.

The Impact of the Hundred Years’ War The long, exhausting war finally ended in 1453. Each side experienced major changes.

- A feeling of nationalism emerged in England and France. Now people thought of the king as a national leader, fighting for the glory of the country, not simply a feudal lord.
- The power and prestige of the French monarch increased.
- The English suffered a period of internal turmoil known as the War of the Roses, in which two noble houses fought for the throne.
Joan of Arc (1412–1431)

In the 1420s, rumors circulated among the French that a young woman would save France from the English. So when Joan arrived on the scene she was considered the fulfillment of that prophecy. Joan cut her hair short and wore a suit of armor and carried a sword.

Her unusual appearance and extraordinary confidence inspired French troops. Eventually she was given command of troops that broke the siege of Orléans. In 1430, she was turned over to a Church court for trial. In truth, her trial was more political than religious. The English were determined to prove her a fake and to weaken her image.

Some historians consider the end of the Hundred Years’ War in 1453 as the end of the Middle Ages. The twin pillars of the medieval world, religious devotion and the code of chivalry, both crumbled. The Age of Faith died a slow death. This death was caused by the Great Schism, the scandalous display of wealth by the Church, and the discrediting of the Church during the bubonic plague. The Age of Chivalry died on the battlefields of Crécy, Poitiers, and Agincourt.

Lesson 5 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Use a chart like the one below to organize your notes.
   Which event had some economic effects?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Cause &amp; Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Split in Church</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plague</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100 Years’ War</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Key Terms and People**  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Summarize**  What was the Great Schism?

4. **Analyze Effects**  What were the three effects of the bubonic plague?

5. **Draw Conclusions**  What impact did Joan of Arc have on the Hundred Years’ War?

6. **Form Opinions**  Which event do you think diminished the power of the Church more—the Great Schism or the bubonic plague?

7. **Identify Problems**  What problems did survivors face after the bubonic plague swept through their town?

8. **Analyze Effects**  How did the Hundred Years’ War encourage a feeling of nationalism in both France and England?
Module 11 Assessment

Key Terms and People
For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its connection to western Europe during the medieval period.

1. clergy
2. Holy Roman Empire
3. Crusades
4. Commercial Revolution
5. Magna Carta
6. parliament
7. Great Schism
8. Great Famine
9. bubonic plague
10. Hundred Years’ War

Main Ideas
Use your notes and the information in the module to answer the following questions.

The Power of the Church
1. What was Gelasius’s two-swords theory?
2. Why was Otto I the most effective ruler of medieval Germany?
3. How was the conflict between Pope Gregory VII and Henry IV resolved?

Church Reform and the Crusades
4. Explain the three main abuses that most distressed Church reformers.
5. What were the effects of the Crusades?

Changes in Medieval Society
6. How did trade and finance change in the period from 1000 to 1500?
7. How did the growth of towns hurt the feudal system?
8. What role did Muslims play in Europe’s revival of learning?

England and France Develop
9. How did English kings increase their power and reduce the power of the nobles?
10. Why was Philip II called Augustus?

Troubles of the 14th Century
11. Summarize the main ideas of John Wycliffe.
12. Why did the bubonic plague cause people to turn away from the Church?
13. How did the Hundred Years’ War change warfare in Europe?
Critical Thinking

1. **Summarize** Use a chart like the one below to list ways in which governments became more centralized in France and in England.

   ![Centralized Government Chart]

2. **Compare and Contrast** How did Otto I and Frederick I try to imitate Charlemagne’s approach to empire building?

3. **Analyze** Why did the appointment of bishops become the issue in a struggle between kings and popes?

4. **Synthesize** What generalizations could you make about the relationship between politics and religion in the Middle Ages?

5. **Summarize** What role did Jews and Muslims play in Christian Europe’s financial revolution?

6. **Analyze Causes** Identify and discuss the events that led to the decline of the power of the Church in the period from 1000 to 1500.

7. **Analyze Effects** In what ways did the guilds change business and employment practices?

Focus on Writing

Write a brief biography about Joan of Arc. Be sure to include information about her influence on Charles and on the nation of France.

Consider the following:

- What are the major events in her life?
- Why did Charles value her advice?
- How is she viewed in France today?

Multimedia Activity

Work with a partner to find examples on the Internet of the impact of the bubonic plague and the Hundred Years’ War on the economy of medieval Europe. Consider changes in population, working conditions, and the volume of trade. Present the results of your research in a well-organized paper.

Be sure to

- apply a search strategy when using directories and search engines to locate web resources.
- judge the usefulness and reliability of each website.
- correctly cite your web sources.
- peer-edit for organization and correct use of language.

Engage with History

Consider what you learned in this module about the Crusades and what sort of rewards and dangers they entailed. Would you join a Crusade? What might a Crusader bring home from his travels? What problems might a Crusader encounter on his adventures? Discuss your opinions with a small group.
Fought over nearly two centuries, the Crusades were a violent struggle between soldiers of two religions. In a series of nine wars, European Christians battled Turkish and Arabic Muslims for control of the city of Jerusalem and the surrounding areas, considered sacred by both religions. Thousands died in the fighting—both soldiers and civilians—and whole cities were destroyed. The brutality of the Crusades created strong feelings of resentment between Christians and Muslims. This resentment lingered for centuries after the wars themselves had ended.

Explore the causes, events, and results of the Crusades online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more through your online textbook.