





Peasants, Trade, and Cities

GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea

Order and Security New farming practices supported population growth, and the revival of trade led to a money-based economy and the rise of cities.

Content Vocabulary

- carruca (p. 334)
- manor (p. 336)
- serfs (p. 336)
- money economy (p. 338)
- commercial capitalism (p. 338)
- bourgeoisie (p. 339)
- patricians (p. 340)
- guilds (p. 341)
- apprentice (p. 341)
- journeymen (p. 341)
- masterpiece (p. 341)

Academic Vocabulary

• technology (p. 334)

• crucial (p. 334)

Places

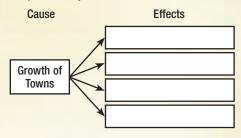
• Venice (p. 338)

• Flanders (p. 338)

Reading Strategy

Determining Cause and Effect As

you read, use a chart like the one below to show the effects of the growth of towns on medieval European society.



During the High Middle Ages, new farming methods enabled Europe's population to grow. The revival of trade led to a money economy and the growth of cities. Many serfs worked the land under the manorial system, while merchants and artisans revived old cities and founded new ones.

The New Agriculture

New inventions for farming and more efficient use of land contributed to population growth in the High Middle Ages.

HISTORY & YOU A farmer can plant a very large area today using modern equipment. Read to learn how new devices helped medieval farmers grow more food.

In the Early Middle Ages, Europe had a relatively small population. In the High Middle Ages, however, population increased dramatically—doubling between 1000 and 1300 from 38 million to 74 million people.

What caused this huge increase? For one thing, conditions in Europe were more settled and peaceful after the invasions of the Early Middle Ages had stopped. This increased peace and stability also led to an expansion in food production after 1000.

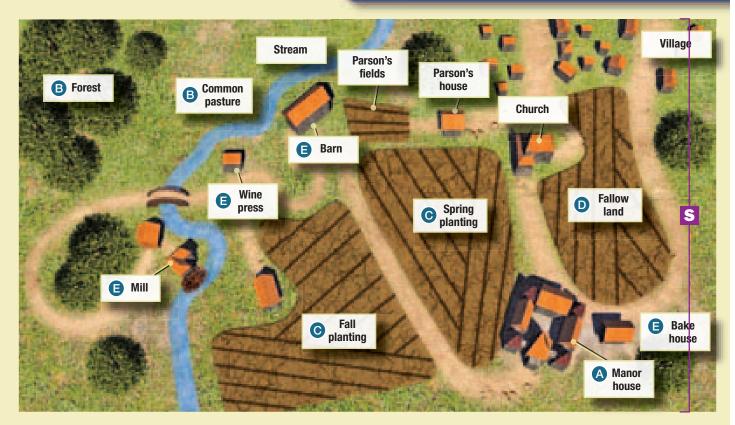
In part, food production increased because the climate changed during the High Middle Ages and improved growing conditions. In addition, peasants cultivated more land when they cut down trees and drained swamps during the 1000s and 1100s. By 1200, Europeans had more land for farming than they do today.

Changes in **technology** also aided the development of farming. The Middle Ages witnessed an explosion of labor-saving devices. For example, the people of the Middle Ages harnessed the power of water and wind to do jobs once done by human or animal power. Many of these new devices were made from iron, which was mined in various areas of Europe. Iron was used to make scythes, axes, and hoes for use on farms. It was also used in hammers and nails for building.

Iron was **crucial** in making the **carruca**, a heavy, wheeled plow with an iron plowshare. Unlike earlier plows, this plow easily turned over heavy clay soils. Because of the weight of the *carruca*, six or eight oxen were needed to pull it. However, oxen were slow. The inventions of a new horse collar and the horseshoe made it possible for a series of horses to pull the *carruca* faster and plow more land in the rocky, heavy clay soil of northern Europe.

Use of the *carruca* also led to the growth of farming villages, because people had to work together. Because iron was expensive, an entire community had to buy a *carruca*. Likewise, one family

Organization of a Manor



- A Manor house Home to the lord and his family and refuge for the peasants during an attack
- **B Common lands** Shared areas such as pasture where peasants could graze animals or forest where peasants could hunt, fish, and gather firewood
- **C Cultivated land** Spring and fall plantings laid out in long strips to minimize the number of turns required while plowing
- **D Fallow land** During crop rotation, land left unplanted to allow it to recover
- **E Common workshops** Shared work areas such as a mill to grind grain; bake house to bake bread; wine press to make wine; or barn to shelter and care for animals

The medieval manor was a mostly selfsustaining community.

- 1. Explaining How did the heavy plows of the time influence the layout of the fields?
- 2. Making Inferences In what ways did the manorial system promote group cooperation?

could not afford a team of animals, so villagers shared their beasts. To minimize the amount of turning of the heavy *carruca*, people plowed land in long strips.

Shifting from a two-field to a three-field crop rotation also increased food production. In the Early Middle Ages, peasants divided their land into two fields of equal size. They planted one field and allowed the other to lie fallow (unplanted) to regain its fertility. Now, however, lands were divided into three parts. Peasants planted one field in the fall with grains (rye and

wheat) that they harvested in summer. They planted the second field in spring with grains (oats and barley) and vegetables (peas and beans) that they harvested in fall. They allowed the third field to lie fallow. This way, only one-third, rather than one-half, of the land lay fallow at any time. This practice of rotating crops kept the soil fertile, while allowing people to grow more crops.

Reading Check Analyzing What factors led to population growth in the High Middle Ages?

The Manorial System

Under the manorial system of the Middle Ages, serfs worked the lands of lords.

HISTORY & YOU Does your family celebrate religious holidays? Read to learn about the holidays that serfs observed during the Middle Ages.

You will remember from Chapter 9 that feudalism created alliances between nobles (lords and vassals). The landholding nobles were a military elite whose ability to be warriors depended on their having the leisure time to pursue the arts of war. Landed estates, located on the fiefs given to a vassal by his lord and worked by peasants, provided the economic support that made this way of life possible.

A manor was an agricultural estate that a lord ran and peasants worked. Although free peasants continued to exist, increasing numbers of free peasants became serfs, or peasants legally bound to the land. Serfs had to provide labor services, pay rents, and be subject to the lord's control. By 800, probably 60 percent of western Europeans were serfs.

A serf's labor services included working the lord's land. The lord's land made up one-third to one-half of the cultivated land scattered throughout the manor. Peasants used the rest of the estate's land to grow food for themselves. Such tasks as building barns and digging ditches were also part of the labor services peasants provided. Serfs usually worked about three days a week for their lords.

The serfs paid rents by giving the lords a share of every product they raised. Serfs also paid the lords for the use of the manor's common pasturelands, streams, ponds, and surrounding woodlands. If a serf fished in the pond or stream on a manor, he turned over part of the catch to his lord. Peasants were also obliged to pay a tithe (a tenth of their produce) to their local village churches.

In the feudal contract, lords and vassals were tied together through mutual obligations to each other. On individual estates, lords had a variety of legal rights over their serfs. Serfs could not leave the manor without the lord's permission and could

not marry anyone outside the manor without the lord's approval. Lords often had political authority on their lands, which gave them the right to try peasants in their own courts. Peasants were required to pay lords for certain services, such as having their grain ground into flour in the lords' mills.

Even with these restrictions, however, serfs were not slaves. The land assigned to serfs to support themselves usually could not be taken away, and their responsibilities to the lord remained fairly fixed. It was also the lord's duty to protect his serfs, giving them the safety to farm the land.

The Peasant Household

The life of peasants in Europe was simple. Their cottages had wood frames surrounded by sticks, with the spaces between sticks filled with straw and rubble and then plastered over with clay. Roofs were simply thatched.

The houses of poorer peasants consisted of a single room. Others, however, had at least two rooms—a main room for cooking, eating, and other activities and another room for sleeping. There was little privacy in a medieval household. A hearth in the main room was used for heating and cooking. Because there were few or no windows and no chimney, the smoke created by fires in the hearth went out through cracks in the walls or, more likely, through the thatched roof.

Cycle of Labor

The seasons of the year largely determined peasant activities. Each season brought a new round of tasks. Harvest time in August and September was especially hectic. A good harvest of grains for making bread was crucial to survival in the winter months.

A new cycle of labor began in October, when peasants worked the ground for the planting of winter crops. In November came the slaughter of excess livestock, because there was usually not enough food to keep the animals alive all winter. The meat would be salted to preserve it for winter use. In February and March, the

land was plowed for the planting of spring crops—oats, barley, peas, and beans. Early summer was a fairly relaxed time, although there was still weeding and sheepshearing to be done.

In every season, of course, the serfs worked not only their own land but also the lords' lands. They also tended the small gardens next to their dwellings, where they grew the vegetables that made up part of their diet.

Peasants did not face a life of constant labor, thanks to the feast days, or holidays, of the Catholic Church. These feast days celebrated the great events of the Christian faith, or the lives of Christian saints or holy persons. The three great feasts of the Catholic Church were Christmas (celebrating the birth of Christ), Easter (celebrating the resurrection of Christ), and Pentecost (celebrating the descent of the Holy Spirit on Christ's disciples). Other feasts dedicated to saints or the Virgin Mary, the mother of Jesus, were also celebrated. More than 50 days were essentially holidays.

Religious feast days, Sunday mass, baptisms, marriages, and funerals all brought peasants into contact with the village church, a crucial part of manorial life. The village priest taught the peasants the basic ideas of Christianity so that they would gain the Christians' final goal—salvation.

INFOGRAPHICS The Peasant's Wheel of Life Meeding; harvesting fla (spinning, crafts) Clearing ditches; gening sheep This illustration is from a medieval Book of Hours called Très Riches Heures. Books of Hours were personal prayer books **Peasant's Wheel of Life** that often contained calendars noting important dates of the year. 1. Identifying In what months did peasants plant? 2. Analyzing Visuals Based on the chart, what season does the illustration represent?

However, village priests were often peasants themselves; most could not read. No one knows how much church teaching the peasants actually understood. Very likely, they saw God as an all-powerful force who needed to be appeased by prayer to bring good harvests.

The position of peasant women in manorial society was both important and difficult. They were expected to work in the fields and at the same time bear children. How well they managed the household determined whether their family starved or survived.

Food and Drink

Though simple, the daily diet of peasants was adequate when food was available. The basic staple of the peasant diet, and of the medieval diet in general, was bread. Women made the dough for the bread. The loaves were usually baked in community ovens, which the lord owned. Highly nutritious, peasant bread contained not only wheat and rye but also barley, millet, and oats. These ingredients gave the bread a dark appearance and a very heavy, hard texture.

Numerous other foods added to the peasant's diet: vegetables from the household gardens; cheese from cow's or goat's milk; nuts and berries from woodlands; and fruits, such as apples, pears, and cherries. Chickens provided eggs and sometimes meat. Peasants usually ate meat only on the great feast days, such as Christmas and Easter.

Grains were important not only for bread but also for making ale. In the Middle Ages, it was not easy to obtain pure sources of water to drink. Consequently, while wine became the choice of drink for members of the upper classes, ale was the most common drink of the poor. If records are accurate, enormous quantities of ale were consumed. A monastery in the twelfth century records a daily allotment to the monks of three gallons of ale a day. Peasants in the field probably consumed even more.

Reading Check Explaining What role did peasant women play in manorial society?

The Revival of Trade

The revival of trade during the High Middle Ages gave rise to a money economy.

HISTORY & YOU Do you have to trade one product for another? Read about the emergence of a money economy.

Medieval Europe was an agricultural society with small villages. In the 1000s and 1100s, however, the economic foundation of European civilization changed. Changes included a revival of trade and an associated growth of towns and cities.

The revival of trade in Europe after the chaotic Early Middle Ages was gradual. Cities in Italy took the lead. Venice developed a mercantile fleet (a fleet of trading ships) and by the end of the 900s had become a major trading center in the Mediterranean. The towns of Flanders, an area along the coast of present-day Belgium and northern France, were ideally located for northern European traders. Merchants from England, Scandinavia, France, and Germany met there to trade their goods for the high-quality woolen cloth of Flanders. By the 1100s, a regular exchange of goods had developed between Flanders and Italy.

To encourage this trade, the counts of Champagne, in northern France, initiated a series of trade fairs. Six fairs were held every year in the chief towns. At these fairs, northern merchants brought the furs, woolen cloth, tin, hemp, and honey of northern Europe and exchanged them for the cloth and swords of northern Italy and the silks, sugar, and spices of the East.

As trade increased, demand for gold and silver coins arose at fairs and trading markets of all kinds. Slowly, a **money economy**—an economic system based on money, rather than barter—began to emerge. New trading companies and banking firms were set up to manage the exchange and sale of goods. All of these new practices were part of the rise of **commercial capitalism**, an economic system in which people invested in trade and goods to make profits.

Reading Check Evaluating Why were the towns of Flanders busy trading centers?

The Growth of Cities

The revival of trade spurred the growth of cities, which became centers for manufacturing and trade.

HISTORY & YOU How would you describe life in your town or city? Read to learn what cities were like in the Middle Ages.

The revival of trade led to a revival of cities. Towns had greatly declined in the Early Middle Ages, especially in Europe north of the Alps. Old Roman cities had continued to exist, but they had dwindled in both size and population.

Cities Old and New

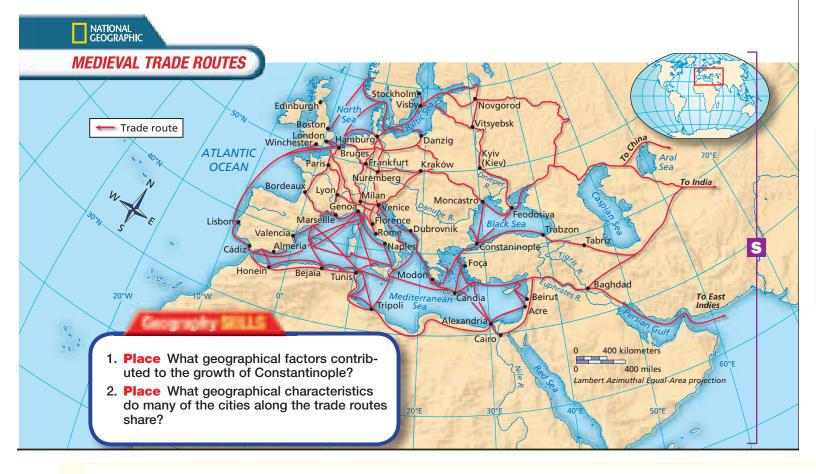
With the revival of trade, merchants began to settle in the old Roman cities. They were followed by craftspeople or artisans—people who had developed skills and saw a chance to make goods that the merchants could sell. In the course of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the old Roman cities came alive with new populations and growth.

Many new cities or towns were also founded, especially in northern Europe.

Usually, a group of merchants built a settlement near a castle because it was located along a trade route and because the lords of the castle would offer protection. If the settlement prospered and expanded, new walls were built to protect it. The merchants and artisans of these cities later came to be called *burghers* or **bourgeoisie**, from the German word *burg*, meaning "a walled enclosure."

Medieval cities were small in comparison with either ancient or modern cities. A large Medieval trading city would number about 5000 inhabitants. By the late 1200s, London—England's largest city—had more than 40,000 people. Italian cities tended to be even larger than this. For instance, Venice, Florence, and Milan each had more than 80,000 inhabitants. Even the largest European city, however, seemed small when compared to the Byzantine capital of Constantinople or the Arab cities of Damascus, Baghdad, and Cairo.

Most towns were closely tied to the land around them because they depended on the food grown in the surrounding manors. In addition, the towns were often part of the territory belonging to a lord, and therefore were subject to his authority.



The lords wanted to treat townspeople as they did their vassals and serfs. However, townspeople saw things differently.

Townspeople needed freedom to trade. They needed their own unique laws and were willing to pay for them. Lords and kings, in turn, saw that they could also make money and sold to the townspeople the liberties they wanted.

By 1100, townspeople had numerous rights from local lords. These included the right to buy and sell property, freedom from military service to the lord, a written law that guaranteed townspeople their freedom, and the right for an escaped serf to become a free person after living a year and a day in the town.

The people in almost every new town and city gained these basic liberties. Some new towns also received the right to govern themselves by choosing their own officials and having their own courts of law.

Over time, medieval cities developed their own governments for running the affairs of the community. Only males who had been born in the city or who had lived there for some time were citizens. In many cities, these citizens elected the city council members, who served as judges and city officials and who passed laws. Elections were rigged so that only **patricians**—members of the wealthiest and most powerful families—were elected.

City Life

Medieval towns were surrounded by stone walls. Walls were expensive to build, so the space within was tightly filled. Thus, medieval cities had narrow, winding streets. Houses were crowded against one another, with the second and third stories built out over the streets. The danger of fire was great. Dwellings were mostly made of wood before the 1300s and candles were used for light and heat. Medieval cities burned rapidly once a fire started.

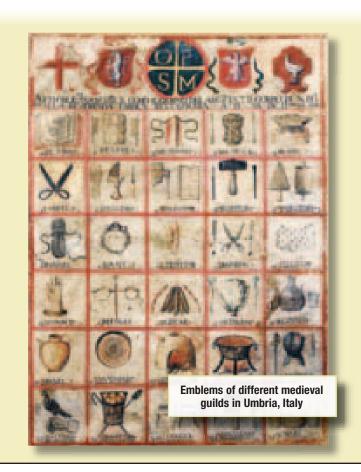
The physical environment of medieval cities was not pleasant. Often dirty, cities smelled from animal and human waste. Air pollution was also a fact of life. Smoke from wood fires, present everywhere, or from the burning of cheap grades of coal

The Medieval Guild System

Medieval merchants and artisans formed guilds to promote their common interests. Guilds achieved a monopoly over their commercial activity in the local area. This protected their members from competition from artisans of other cities and from competition among themselves. Guilds set rules to assure that all members would prosper equally.

Guilds helped to build the economic structure of Europe. They increased the number of skilled artisans and merchants. They built roads and schools. Guilds often controlled town governments, creating a stable environment for commerce. In these ways guilds served as a transition from feudalism to a new economic system—capitalism. By the 1500s, wealthy merchants had begun to form early factories. Guilds were formed for cooperation, not competition. They could not compete with the efficiency of large-scale production in the factories, and the guild system slowly faded away.

- Making Inferences How might the guild system have affected prices for local consumers?
- Identifying the Main Idea What characteristic of guilds eventually led to their decline?



filled the air. Water pollution was also a problem. Butchers dumped blood and all other waste products from their butchered animals into the rivers. Tanners, who converted animal hides to leather, unloaded tannic acids and other waste products of their operations. Cities did not use the rivers for drinking water but relied instead on wells. While medieval towns had private and public baths—Paris had 32—they were closed during the great plague of the fourteenth century (discussed later in this chapter).

Considerably more men than women lived in medieval cities. Women were expected to supervise the household, prepare meals, raise the children, and manage the family's finances. Often, they helped their husbands in their trades. We some women developed their own trades to earn extra money. Sometimes, when a master craftsman died, his widow carried on his trade. It was thus possible for women in medieval towns to lead quite independent lives. In fact, many women became brewers, weavers, and hatmakers.

Industry and Guilds

With the revival of trade, cities and towns became important centers for manufacturing a wide range of goods, such as cloth, metalwork, shoes, and leather goods. Many craft activities were carried on in houses located in the narrow streets of medieval cities.

From the 1000s on, craftspeople began to organize themselves into **guilds**, or business associations. Guilds played a leading role in the economic life of cities. By the 1200s, there were guilds for almost every craft (tanners, bakers) and separate guilds for specialized groups of merchants, such as dealers in silk, spices, or wool.

Craft guilds directed almost every aspect of the production process. They set the standards for the quality of the articles produced, specified the methods of production to be used, and even fixed the price at which the finished goods could be sold. Guilds also determined the number of people who could enter a specific trade and the procedure they must follow to do so.

A person who wanted to learn a trade first became an apprentice, usually at around the age of 10, to a master craftsperson. Apprentices were not paid, but they did receive room and board from their masters. After five to seven years of service during which they learned their craft, apprentices became journeymen and worked for wages for other masters. Journeymen aspired to become masters as well. To do so, they were expected to produce a masterpiece, a finished piece in their craft. This piece allowed the master craftspeople of the guild to judge whether a journeyman was qualified to become a master and join the guild.

Reading Check Evaluating What role did guilds play in the economic life of the cities?

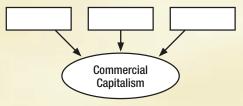


Vocabulary

 Explain the significance of: technology, crucial, carruca, manor, serfs, Venice, Flanders, money economy, commercial capitalism, bourgeoisie, patricians, guilds, apprentice, journeymen, masterpiece.

Main Ideas

- Explain how the new crop rotation increased food production.
- Identify the economic developments of the Middle Ages that allowed commercial capitalism to emerge. Use a diagram like the one below.



 Describe the physical environment of medieval cities.

Critical Thinking

- 5. The BIG Idea Determining Cause and Effect What were some major results of farming improvements and the revival of trade in the Middle Ages?
- 6. **Comparing and Contrasting** How did living and working in a medieval city differ from living and working on a manor?
- 7. **Analyzing Visuals** Examine the illustration on page 340. Choose three emblems and try to name the craft each represents.

Writing About History

 Persuasive Writing Imagine you are a trader doing business at the beginning of the money economy. Write a letter addressed to other traders convincing them to convert to a money system from bartering.

History ONLINE

For help with the concepts in this section of *Glencoe World History*, go to **glencoe.com** and click Study Central.



GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea

Ideas, Beliefs, and Values With its strong leadership, the Catholic Church became a dominant and forceful presence in medieval society.

Content Vocabulary

- lay investiture (p. 342) heresy (p. 346)
- interdict (p. 344)
- relics (p. 347)
- sacraments (p. 344)

Academic Vocabulary

• pursue (p. 342)

• remove (p. 343)

People, Places, and Events

- Papal States (p. 342)
- Pope Gregory VII (p. 342)
- Henry IV (p. 343)
- Concordat of Worms (p. 343)
- Pope Innocent III (p. 344)
- Cistercians (p. 344)
- Hildegard of Bingen (p. 345)
- Franciscans (p. 345)
- Dominicans (p. 345)
- Saint Francis of Assisi (p. 345)
- Assisi (p. 345)
- Inquisition (p. 346)
- olotorolario (pro 11)

Reading Strategy

Categorizing Information As you read, use a chart like the one below to list characteristics of the Cistercian and Dominican religious orders.

Cistercians	Dominicans

Medieval Christianity

Under Pope Gregory VII, the Catholic Church disentangled itself from secular influence in the eleventh century. The Church reached the height of its political power in the thirteenth century under Pope Innocent III. Religious enthusiasm spread and new monastic orders emerged. By the High Middle Ages, the Catholic Church had become a dominant and forceful presence in European society.

The Papal Monarchy

During the papacy of Pope Innocent III in the thirteenth century, the Catholic Church reached the height of its political power.

HISTORY & YOU Can a religious leader be an effective military leader? Read how Church officials were obliged to carry out military duties for their lords.

Since the fifth century, the popes of the Catholic Church had claimed supremacy over the affairs of the Church. They had also gained control of territories in central Italy that came to be known as the **Papal States**. This control kept the popes involved in political matters, often at the expense of their spiritual duties.

At the same time, the Church became increasingly involved in the feudal system. Chief officials of the Church, such as bishops and abbots, came to hold their offices as grants from nobles. As vassals, they were obliged to carry out the usual feudal services, including military duties. Lords often chose their vassals from other noble families for political reasons. Thus, the bishops and abbots they chose were often worldly figures who cared little about their spiritual duties.

Reform of the Papacy

By the eleventh century, Church leaders realized the need to be free from the lords' interference in the appointment of Church officials. When an individual became a Church official in the Middle Ages, he was given a ring and a staff. These objects symbolized the spiritual authority with which the Church granted, or invested, the official. Secular, or lay, rulers usually chose nominees to Church offices and gave them the symbols of their office, a practice known as lay investiture. Pope Gregory VII decided to fight this practice.

Elected pope in 1073, Gregory was convinced that he had been chosen by God to reform the Church. To **pursue** this aim, Gregory claimed that he—the pope—was truly God's "vicar on earth" and that the pope's authority extended over all the Christian world, including its rulers. Only by eliminating lay investiture could the

Conflict Between King Henry IV and Pope Gregory VII

1075: Gregory bans lay investiture, asserting supremacy of Church over lay authority. Henry invests a new bishop of Milan, replacing Gregory's choice.

1076: Gregory deposes and excommunicates Henry.

"I withdraw. . .from Henry the king. . . the rule over the whole kingdom of the Germans and over Italy. And I absolve all Christians from the bonds of the oath which they have made or shall make to him. . . I bind him in thy stead with the chain of the anathema [a damned person]..."

—Pope Gregory VII, February 1076

1077: Henry submits to Gregory and is absolved. German princes declare Henry dethroned and elect Rudolf, sparking civil war.

1080: Gregory supports Rudolf over Henry. Henry names an antipope, Clement III. Gregory excommunicates them both.

1081: Henry wins the civil war and marches on Rome.

1084: Henry conquers Rome. Gregory flees the city.

1105: Henry is forced to abdicate as his continued support for Clement III weakened his rule.

- 1. Analyzing What does this conflict indicate about medieval ideas of power, authority, and governance?
- 2. Drawing Conclusions How did Henry's conflict with Gregory affect Henry's reign?

Henry humbles himself before Gregory, who removes the excommunication, 1077.

The Investiture Controversy

Church regain its independence. The Church would appoint clergy and run its ___ own affairs. If rulers did not accept this, R receive the investiture . . . from the hand of the pope would **remove** them.

Gregory VII and Henry IV, the king of Germany, disagreed about these claims. German kings had appointed high-ranking clerics, especially bishops, as their vassals, in order to use them as their administrators. Without them, the king could not maintain power over the German nobles.

In 1075, Pope Gregory issued a decree forbidding high-ranking clerics from

receiving their investiture from lay leaders: "We decree that no one of the clergy shall an emperor or king or of any lay person." Henry, however, had no intention of obeying this decree.

The struggle between Henry IV and Gregory VII, known as the Investiture Controversy, continued until a new German king and a new pope reached the Concordat of Worms agreement in 1122. Under it, a bishop in Germany was first elected by Church officials.

After election, the new bishop paid homage to the king as his lord. The king in turn invested him with the symbols of temporal (earthly) office. A representative of the pope then invested the new bishop with the symbols of his spiritual office.

The Church Supreme

Pope Gregory VII also tried to improve the Church's ability to provide spiritual guidance to the faithful. Twelfth-century popes did not give up the reform ideals of Pope Gregory VII, but they were even more inclined to strengthen papal power and build a strong administrative system. During the papacy of **Pope Innocent III** in the 1200s, the Catholic Church reached the height of its political power. At the beginning of his rule in 1198, in a letter to a priest, the pope made a clear statement of his views on papal supremacy:

Primary Source

"As God, the creator of the universe, set two great lights in the firmament of heaven, the greater light to rule the day, and the lesser light to rule the night so He set two great dignities in the firmament of the universal Church, . . . the greater to rule the day, that is, souls, and the lesser to rule the night, that is, bodies. These dignities are the papal authority and the royal power. And just as the moon gets her light from the sun, and is inferior to the sun . . . so the royal power gets the splendor of its dignity from the papal authority."

-Pope Innocent III

To achieve his political ends, Innocent used the spiritual weapons at his command. His favorite was the **interdict**. An interdict forbids priests from giving the **sacraments** (Christian rites) of the Church to a particular group of people. The goal was to cause the people under interdiction, who were deprived of the comforts of religion, to exert pressure against their ruler. With an interdict, Innocent III forced the king of France, Philip Augustus, to take back his wife after Philip had tried to have his marriage annulled.

Reading Check Explaining What was the significance of the Concordat of Worms?

New Religious Orders

As religious enthusiasm spread through Europe, new monastic orders emerged.

HISTORY & YOU What does the phrase "innocent until proven guilty" mean to you? Read to learn how the Inquisition "proved" the guilt of heretics.

In the late 1000s and early 1100s, a wave of religious enthusiasm seized Europe. This movement led to a rise in the number of monasteries and the emergence of new monastic orders. Both men and women joined religious orders in increasing numbers.

A New Activism

In the eleventh century, more new monastic orders arose and became important. One of the most important new orders of the Middle Ages was the Cistercian (sis•TUHR•shuhn) order. It was founded in 1098 by a group of monks who were unhappy with the lack of discipline at their own Benedictine monastery. Cistercian monasticism spread rapidly from southern France into the rest of Europe.

The **Cistercians** were strict. They ate a simple diet, and each had only a single robe. All decorations were eliminated from their churches and monastic buildings. More time for prayer and manual labor was gained by spending fewer hours at religious services.

The Cistercians played a major role in developing a new, activistic spiritual model for twelfth-century Europe. While Benedictine monks spent hours inside the monastery in personal prayer, the Cistercians took their religion to the people outside the monastery. More than any other person, Saint Bernard of Clairvaux embodied the new spiritual ideal of Cistercian monasticism: "Arise, soldier of Christ, arise! Get up off the ground and return to the battle from which you have fled! Fight more boldly after your flight, and triumph in glory!"

Women in Religious Orders

Women were also actively involved in the spiritual movements of the age. The number of women joining religious houses grew dramatically. In the High Middle Ages, most nuns were from the ranks of the landed aristocracy. Convents were convenient for families who were unable or unwilling to find husbands for their daughters, for aristocratic women who did not wish to marry, or for widows.

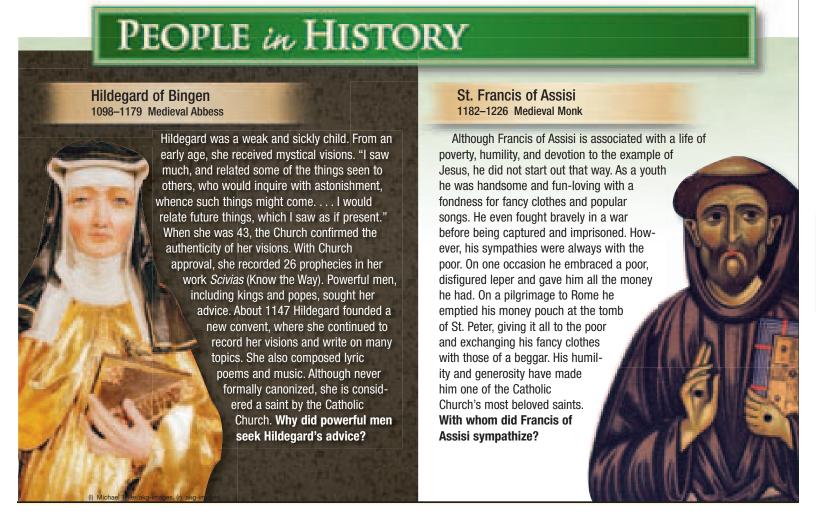
Female intellectuals found convents a haven for their activities. Most learned women of the Middle Ages, especially in Germany, were nuns. This was certainly true of Hildegard of Bingen, who became abbess of a religious house for females in western Germany. She was one of the first women composers and was an important contributor to the body of music known as Gregorian chant. Her work is remarkable because she succeeded at a time when music, especially sacred music, was almost exclusively the domain of men.

Franciscans and Dominicans

In the 1200s two new religious orders emerged that had a strong impact on the lives of ordinary people. They were the **Franciscans** and the **Dominicans**.

The Franciscans were founded by Saint Francis of Assisi. Francis was born to a wealthy Italian merchant family in Assisi. After having been captured and imprisoned during a local war, he had a series of dramatic spiritual experiences. These experiences led him to abandon all worldly goods and material pursuits and to live and preach in poverty, working and begging for his food. His simplicity, joyful nature, and love for others soon attracted a band of followers, all of whom took vows of absolute poverty, agreeing to reject all property and live by working and begging for their food.

The Franciscans became very popular. They lived among the people, preaching repentance and aiding the poor. Their calls for a return to the simplicity and poverty of the early Church, reinforced by their own example, were especially effective. The Franciscans also undertook missionary work, first throughout Italy and then to all parts of Europe and even to the Muslim world.



The Inquisition

The Inquisition's goal was to identify people who had committed heresy and convince them to confess. In most cases, the sentence was an act of penance, such as a pilgrimage. More extreme punishments were reserved for those who refused to repent or repeated their heresy.

INFOGRAPHICS

In the 1270s a breakaway group of Franciscans, called the Spirituals for their extreme vow of poverty, challenged the leadership of their order. The Beguines supported them. Beguines were enthusiastic Catholic women but outside the Church's formal control. The Church saw a potential threat to its authority with the activities of these two groups. By 1318, the Church had begun to define disobedience to its authority as heresy, and started burning Spirituals. The next year, it expanded this extreme punishment to the Beguines. Two decades of executions followed as the Inquisition sought to control these splinter groups.

At first, the Inquisition left Europe's Jewish populations alone. Then in 1242, the Inquisition condemned the Talmud and burned thousands of copies. The Inquisition remained active into the late 1700s.

- Interpreting How did the Inquisition reinforce the authority of the Catholic Church?
- Explaining How had the Church's definition of heresy changed by 1318? Why did it make this change?



Spanish priest, Dominic de Guzmán. Dominic wanted to defend Church teachings from heresy—the denial of basic Church doctrines. The spiritual revival of the High Middle Ages had led to the emergence of heresies within the Church. Adherents of these movements were called heretics. Heretical movements became especially widespread in southern France. Dominic believed that a new religious order of men who lived in poverty and could preach effectively would best be able to attack heresy.

The Inquisition

The Church created a court called the **Inquisition**, or Holy Office, to deal with heretics. This court developed a regular procedure to find and try heretics. The

Dominicans became especially well known for their roles as examiners of people suspected of heresy.

Those who confessed to heresy performed public penance and received punishment, such as flogging. Beginning in 1252, the Inquisition added the element of torture to extract confessions. Those who did not confess but were still considered guilty and those who had done penance for heresy and then relapsed were subject to execution by the state.

Thirteenth-century Christians believed the only path to salvation was through the Church. To them, heresy was a crime against God and humanity. In their minds, using force to save souls from damnation was the right thing to do.

Reading Check Analyzing Why did the Franciscans choose to live simply?

Religion in the High Middle Ages

Ordinary people observed the Church's sacraments, venerated saints, and took pilgrimages to holy shrines.

HISTORY & YOU Do you have a good luck charm? Read to learn about the importance of relics to people in the High Middle Ages.

The Church of the High Middle Ages was a crucial part of ordinary people's lives from birth to death. The sacraments, such as baptism, marriage, and the Eucharist (Communion), were seen as means for receiving God's grace and were necessary for salvation. Since only the clergy could administer these rites, people depended on them to achieve this goal. Ordinary people also venerated saints—men and women who, because of their holiness, had achieved a special position in Heaven. Since saints could ask for favors before the throne of God for people who prayed to them, they were very popular with all Christians.

Among the recognized saints were Jesus Christ's apostles, the Virgin Mary, and numerous local saints of special significance to a single area. The Italians, for example, had Saint Nicholas, the patron saint of children, who is known today as Santa Claus. Of all the saints, the Virgin Mary, mother of Jesus, was the most highly regarded in the High Middle Ages. A sign of Mary's importance is the number of churches all over Europe that were dedicated to her in the 1100s and 1200s. (Such churches in France were named Notre Dame, or "Our Lady.")

Emphasis on the role of the saints was closely tied to the use of relics, usually bones of saints or objects connected with saints. Relics were considered worthy of worship because they provided a link between the earthly world and God. It was believed that relics could heal people or produce other miracles. A twelfth-century English monk wrote about an abbey's relics: "There is kept there a thing more precious than gold, . . . the right arm of St. Oswald. . . . This we have seen with our own eyes and have kissed, and have handled with our own hands. . . . There are kept here also part of his ribs and of the soil on which he fell."

Medieval Christians also believed that a pilgrimage to a holy shrine produced a spiritual benefit. The greatest shrine, but the most difficult to reach, was the Holy City of Jerusalem. On the continent two pilgrim centers were especially popular in the High Middle Ages: Rome, which contained the relics of Saints Peter and Paul, and the Spanish town of Santiago de Compostela, supposedly the site of the tomb of the Apostle James. Local shrines dedicated to the Blessed Virgin Mary also became pilgrimage centers.

Reading Check Examining Why were saints important to Christians in the High Middle Ages?

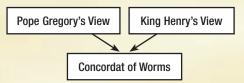


Vocabulary

1. **Explain** the significance of: Papal States, lay investiture, Pope Gregory VII, pursue, remove, Henry IV, Concordat of Worms, Pope Innocent III, interdict, sacraments, Cistercians, Hildegard of Bingen, Franciscans, Dominicans, Saint Francis of Assisi, Assisi, heresy, Inquisition, relics.

Main Ideas

Summarize the opposing viewpoints in the investiture controversy and the resulting compromise at Worms. Use a diagram like the one below.



- 3. **Explain** how women were involved in the spiritual movements of the Middle Ages.
- 4. **Define** a relic and explain its significance to people of the Middle Ages.

Critical Thinking

- 5. The BIG Idea Evaluating Why was the Church such a powerful influence in lay people's lives during the Middle Ages?
- Drawing Conclusions Do you think the Inquisition's methods accurately identified heretics? Explain.
- 7. Analyzing Visuals Examine the painting on page 343. What does King Henry's posture tell you about his relationship with Pope Gregory?

Writing About History

8. **Persuasive Writing** Take on the role of either Pope Gregory VII or King Henry IV of Germany. Argue the question of lay investiture from the viewpoint of either the pope or the king and justify the compromise that you reached.

History ONLINE

For help with the concepts in this section of *Glencoe World History*, go to **glencoe.com** and click Study Central.



Culture of the High Middle Ages

GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea

New Technologies Technological innovations made Gothic cathedrals possible, while an intellectual revival led to the formation of universities.

Content Vocabulary

- theology (p. 350)
- chanson de geste
- scholasticism (p. 350)
- (p. 351)
- vernacular (p. 351)

Academic Vocabulary

• construction (p. 348)

• corporation (p. 350)

People, Places, and Events

- Bologna (p. 350)
- Saint Thomas Aquinas
- Paris (p. 350)
- (p. 350)
- Oxford (p. 350)
- Summa Theologica
- Aristotle (p. 350) (p. 350)

Reading Strategy

Contrasting As you read, use a chart to contrast the Romanesque style of architecture with the Gothic style of architecture. How did the churches built in these two styles differ?

Romanesque	Gothic

During the eleventh and twelfth centuries, Europe witnessed a surge in architectural innovations and an intellectual revival. The development of ribbed vaults, pointed arches, and flying buttresses allowed the building of expansive, beautiful cathedrals. The innovative design became known as the Gothic style. An intellectual revival gave rise to Europe's first universities.

Architecture

Gothic cathedrals, an artistic triumph of the High Middle Ages, were built in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries.

HISTORY & YOU Have you seen stained glass windows in a church? Read to learn how builders in the High Middle Ages improved on an architectural style of the ancient Romans.

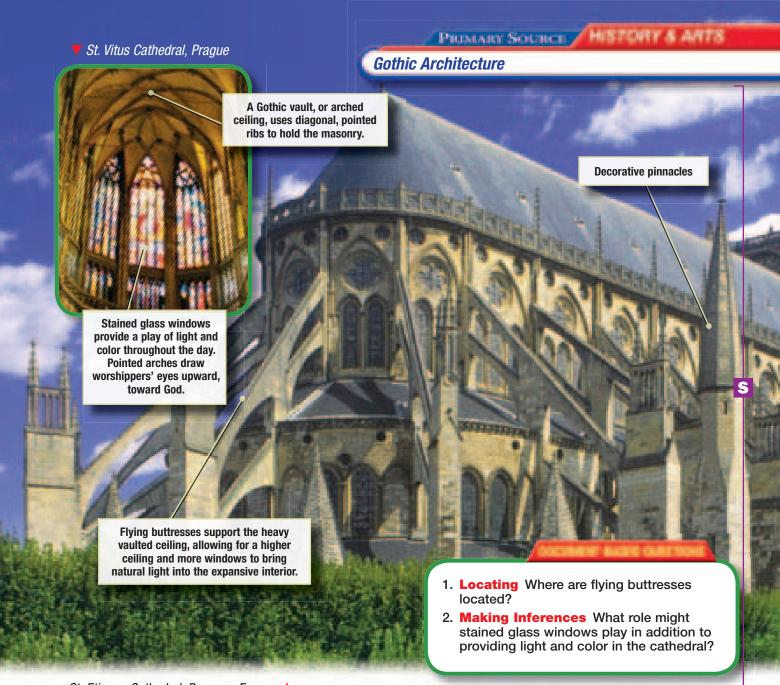
The eleventh and twelfth centuries witnessed an explosion of building in medieval Europe, especially building of churches. The cathedrals of the eleventh and twelfth centuries were built in the Romanesque style. Romanesque churches were normally built in the basilica shape used in the **construction** of churches in the late Roman Empire.

Basilicas were rectangular buildings with flat wooden roofs. Romanesque builders replaced the basilica's flat wooden roof with a long, round stone arched vault (called a barrel vault) or with a cross vault, in which two barrel vaults intersected. The builder used the cross vault to create a church plan in the shape of a cross. Barrel and cross vaults were considered more beautiful than flat roofs.

Because stone roofs were extremely heavy, Romanesque churches required massive pillars and walls to hold them up. This left little space for windows, so Romanesque churches were dark on the inside. With massive walls and pillars, these churches resembled fortresses.

A new style, called Gothic, appeared in the twelfth century and was brought to perfection in the thirteenth. The Gothic cathedral remains one of the greatest artistic triumphs of the High Middle Ages. Two basic innovations made Gothic cathedrals possible.

One innovation was the replacement of the round barrel vault of Romanesque churches with a combination of ribbed vaults and pointed arches. This change enabled builders to make Gothic churches higher than Romanesque churches. The use of pointed arches and ribbed vaults also creates an impression of upward movement, as if the building is reaching to God.



St. Etienne Cathedral, Bourges, France

Another technical innovation was the flying buttress—a heavy, arched support of stone built onto the outside of the walls. Flying buttresses made it possible to distribute the weight of the church's vaulted ceilings outward and down. This eliminated the heavy walls needed in Roman-W divine light of God. The Gothic cathedral, esque churches to hold the weight of the massive barrel vaults.

Gothic cathedrals were built, then, with relatively thin walls. Since they were not supporting great weight, these walls could be filled with stained glass windows.

These windows depict both religious scenes and scenes from daily life. The colored glass windows create a play of light inside the cathedral that varies with the sun at different times of the day. Natural light was believed to be a symbol of the with its towers soaring toward Heaven, bears witness to an age when most people believed in a spiritual world.

Reading Check Explaining How was a cross shape created in Romanesque buildings?

Student Web Activity— Visit glencoe.com and complete the activity on the Middle Ages.

Universities

Medieval university students applied scholasticism to the study of theology.

HISTORY & YOU For how many more years are you prepared to go to school? Read to learn how medieval students earned a degree.

See page R39
to read excerpts from
Christine de Pizan's
A Woman May Need
to Have the Heart of
a Man in Primary
Sources and
Literature Library.

The university of today, with faculty, students, and degrees, was a product of the High Middle Ages. The word university comes from the Latin word *universitas*, meaning "corporation" or "guild."

The first European university appeared in **Bologna** (buh• LOH•nyuh), Italy. Students, men only, came from all over Europe to learn law from the great teacher Irnerius. The Univer-



sity of Paris was the first university in northern Europe. In the late 1300s, many students and masters (teachers) left **Paris** and started their own university at Oxford, England. Kings, popes, and princes thought it honorable to found universities. By 1500, Europe had 80 universities.

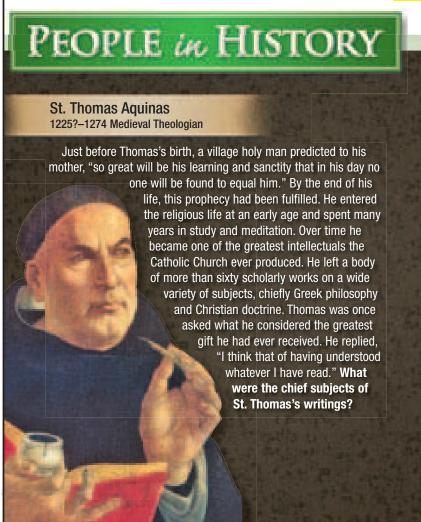
Students began by studying the liberal arts—grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. Teachers lectured by reading from a basic text and then adding their explanations. To get a degree, students took oral examinations after studying four to six years. A student could earn a bachelor of arts and later a master of arts.

A student could earn a doctor's degree in law, medicine, or theology in about ten more years. The most highly regarded subject was **theology**—the study of religion and God. Those with doctor's degrees were officially able to teach but could pursue other careers.

The study of theology was strongly influenced by a philosophical and theological system known as **scholasticism**. Scholasticism tried to reconcile faith and reason—to show that what was accepted on faith was in harmony with what could be learned through reason and experience. Its chief task was to harmonize Christian teachings with the works of the Greek philosophers. The philosopher **Aristotle** reached his conclusions by rational thought, not by faith, and his ideas sometimes contradicted Church teachings.

In the 1200s, Saint Thomas Aquinas (uh•KWY•nuhs) made the most famous attempt to reconcile Aristotle with the doctrines of Christianity. Thomas Aquinas is best known for his Summa Theologica (summa was a summary of all knowledge on a given subject). His masterpiece was organized according to the logical method of scholarly investigation. Aquinas first posed a question such as, "Does God exist?" He then cited sources that offered opposing opinions before reconciling them and coming to his own conclusions. He believed that truths arrived at through reason could not conflict with truths arrived at through faith. Reason, unaided by faith, could uncover truths about the physical universe but not spiritual truths.





Vernacular Literature

Troubadour poetry and the heroic epic poem were popular forms of vernacular literature in the twelfth century.

HISTORY & YOU What types of books do you enjoy—mystery, science fiction, nonfiction? Read to learn what type of literature was popular during the High Middle Ages.

Latin was the universal language of medieval civilization. Used in the Church and schools, Latin enabled learned people to communicate anywhere in Europe. However, in the twelfth century, much new literature was being written in the vernacular—the language of everyday speech in a particular region, such as Spanish, French, English, or German. A new market for vernacular literature appeared in the twelfth century when educated laypeople (religious people who were not clergy) at courts and in the cities took an interest in new sources of entertainment.

Perhaps the most popular vernacular literature of the twelfth century was troubadour poetry, which was chiefly the product of nobles and knights. This poetry told of the love of a knight for a lady, who inspires him to become a braver knight and a better poet. A good example is from the noble Jaufré Rudel, who cherished a dream woman from afar. He feared that he would never meet her, but would always love her.

PRIMARY SOURCE

"Most sad, most joyous shall I go away,
Let me have seen her for a single day,
My love afar,
I shall not see her, for her land and mine
Are sundered, and the ways are hard to find,
So many ways, and I shall lose my way,
So wills it God.
Yet shall I know no other love but hers,
And if not hers, no other love at all."
—Jaufré Rudel

Another type of vernacular literature was known as the **chanson de geste**, or heroic epic. The earliest and finest example of such literature is the *Song of Roland*, which appeared around 1100 and was written in French. The chief events described in heroic epic poems are battles and political contests. The epic world is one of combat, in which knights fight courageously for their kings and lords. Women play only a small role or no role at all in heroic epic poems.

Reading Check Identifying What were two popular types of vernacular literature in the twelfth century?



Vocabulary

 Explain the significance of: construction, corporation, Bologna, Paris, Oxford, theology, scholasticism, Aristotle, Saint Thomas Aquinas, Summa Theologica, vernacular, chanson de geste.

Main Ideas

Summarize the evolution of church architecture by describing the features and innovations in a diagram like the one below.



- List the fields of study in which a medieval university student could earn a doctor's degree.
- Identify the chief events in heroic epic poems.

Critical Thinking

- 5. The BIG Idea Analyzing How did the architecture of the Gothic cathedral reflect medieval religious values?
- 6. Comparing and Contrasting Compare what you know of modern university courses of study with those of the first European universities. What are the similarities and differences?
- 7. **Analyzing Visuals** Imagine yourself standing inside the Gothic cathedral shown on page 349. How would you describe the look and feel of the interior?

Writing About History

8. Persuasive Writing Use a word processing program to create an illustrated brochure to attract students to a new medieval university in Venice. Include information on the method of education and degree and course offerings. Provide a "frequently asked questions" section.

History ONLINE

For help with the concepts in this section of *Glencoe World History*, go to **glencoe.com** and click Study Central.



The Late Middle Ages

GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea

Devastation of War Disastrous forces overwhelmed Europe in the fourteenth century with lasting consequences.

Content Vocabulary

- anti-Semitism (p. 353) taille (p. 357)
- new monarchies (p. 357)

Academic Vocabulary

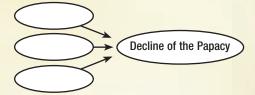
- abandoned (p. 352)
- consequences (p. 353)

People, Places, and Events

- Black Death (p. 352)
- Pope Boniface VIII (p. 355)
- King Philip IV (p. 355)
- Avignon (p. 355)
- O----- O-bi---- (z. 055
- Great Schism (p. 355)
- John Hus (p. 355)
- Henry V (p. 356)
- Agincourt (p. 356)
- Joan of Arc (p. 356)
- Orléans (p. 356)
- Isabella (p. 359)
- Ferdinand (p. 359)
- σοιτι τιασ (ρ. σσσ)

Reading Strategy

Determining Cause and Effect As you read, use a diagram like the one below to identify three reasons for the decline of the papacy.



Medieval European society reached its high point in the 1200s. However, everything changed in the 1300s when a series of disastrous forces overwhelmed Europe. The Black Death spread, killing over one-third of the population. People's faith in the papacy was undermined when the Great Schism rocked the Catholic Church. Then, the Hundred Years' War started. Recovery began in the 1400s, and rulers responded by establishing their "new" monarchies.

The Black Death

Spreading throughout Europe during the mid-fourteenth century, the Black Death had disastrous social and economic effects.

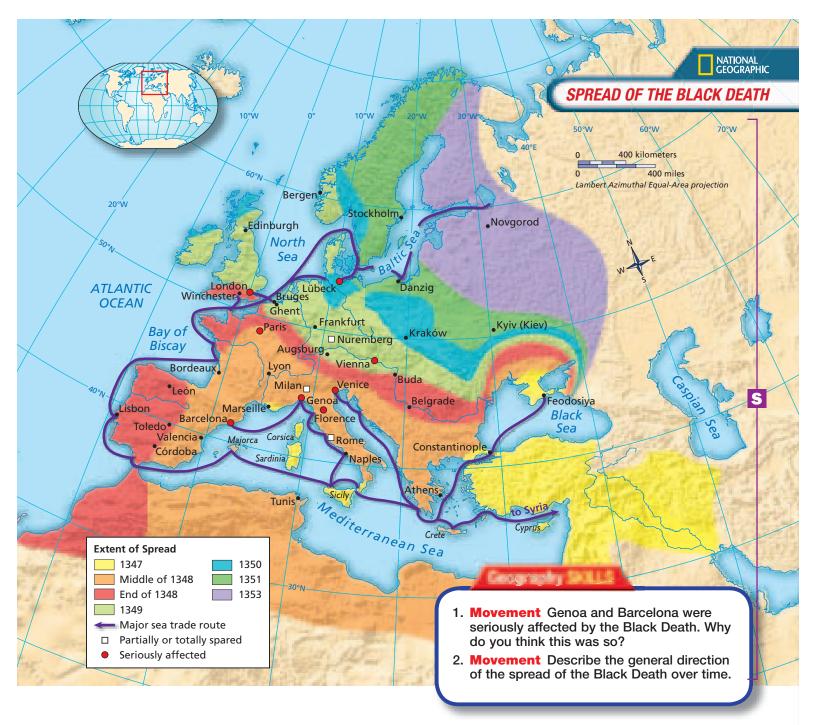
HISTORY & YOU What if one-third of your town's population just suddenly disappeared? Read to learn about the spread of the Black Death.

The Middle Ages in Europe had reached a high point in the 1200s. In the 1300s, however, some disastrous changes took place. Especially catastrophic was the **Black Death**, the most devastating natural disaster in European history. One observer wrote that "father **abandoned** child, wife [abandoned] husband, one brother [abandoned] another, for the plague seemed to strike through breath and sight. And so they died. And no one could be found to bury the dead, for money or friendship."

The Plague Spreads

Bubonic plague was the most common form of the Black Death. It was spread by black rats infested with fleas carrying a deadly bacterium. Italian merchants brought the plague with them from Caffa, on the Black Sea, to the island of Sicily in October 1347. The plague had spread to southern Italy and southern France by the end of 1347. Usually, the path of the Black Death followed trade routes. In 1348 and 1349, the plague spread through France, the Low Countries (modern Belgium, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands), and Germany. It ravaged England in 1349 and expanded to northern Europe and Scandinavia. Eastern Europe and Russia were affected by 1351.

Out of a total European population of 75 million, possibly onethird to one-half of the population died of the plague between 1347 and 1351. Especially hard hit were Italy's crowded cities, where 50 to 60 percent of the people died. In England and Germany, entire villages disappeared.



Social and Economic Impact

People did not know what caused the plague. Many believed that God sent it as punishment for their sins or that the devil caused it. Some reactions became extreme and led to anti-Semitism—hostility toward Jews. Some accused Jews of causing the plague by poisoning town wells. The worst attacks occurred in Germany. Many Jews fled from Germany to Poland, where the king protected them.

The death of so many people also had severe economic **consequences**. Trade declined, and a shortage of workers caused

a dramatic rise in the price of labor. At the same time, the decline in the number of people lowered the demand for food, resulting in falling prices.

Landlords were now paying more for labor while their incomes from rents were declining. Some peasants bargained with their lords to pay rent instead of owing services. This change freed them from serfdom, an institution that had been declining throughout the High Middle Ages.

Reading Check Explaining How was the plague spread?

TURNING-

The Black Death greatly decreased the population of Europe and brought about significant economic and social changes in the late Middle Ages. Simple flea bites unleashed a sickness that killed as many as one-third to one-half the people in Europe within four years. A labor shortage developed, manufactured goods became scarce, and trade slowed drastically. The labor shortage gave the serfs bargaining power. Many negotiated to become wage earners instead of serfs.

Peasants moved to cities in greater numbers, seeking higher wages. The economic system of wealth tied to owning land was weakening. In its place rose a system based on paying money for labor. The newly empowered peasants and guild members stood up for their rights more boldly after the plague. All over Europe, peasants revolted over taxes and serfdom.

Faced with the Black Death, people turned to the Church to save them. The Church, however, proved to be powerless against the plague. Clergy died alongside worshippers. As Church influence weakened, intellectuals dared to explore ideas formerly forbidden by the Church.

THE BLACK DEATH -



In this fourteenth-century
English text, a priest blesses
monks who show the
characteristic black spots of
bubonic plague. The inability
of the Church to stop the
"Black Death" affected its
status in medieval society.

EFFECTS OF THE BLACK DEATH

ECONOMIC EFFECTS

Drastic decline in population led to:

- Labor shortages
 - —higher wages for laborers and artisans
 - —bargaining power for serfs with landlords
- Decline in trade (along with labor shortage)
 —scarcity of manufactured goods
 - —higher prices for manufactured goods
- Less demand for food
 —lower food prices

SOCIAL EFFECTS

- Decline of serfdom
- · Growth of cities
- Peasant revolts
- Decline in Church influence
- · Preoccupation with death in art and literature

Images of death became common in art. Here, a priest gives the last rights while a smiling devil/skeleton attacks the victim with a spear. God appears in the upper right.

- Comparing What common elements exist in the art shown about the Black Death?
- 2. **Analyzing** Why could peasants stand up for their rights more boldly after the plague than before it?

Decline of Church Power

The Great Schism of the Catholic Church caused great political conflict and left Europe divided for four decades.

HISTORY & YOU Have you and a friend ever disagreed? Read to learn about the Great Schism.

The popes reached the height of their power in the 1200s. In the 1300s, the Church's power declined.

The Popes at Avignon

European kings had begun to reject papal claims of supremacy by the end of the 1200s. The struggle between Pope Boniface VIII and King Philip IV of France had serious consequences for the papacy. Philip claimed the right to tax the clergy. Boniface argued that taxing the clergy required the pope's consent, because popes were supreme over both Church and state. Philip rejected the pope's position and sent French forces to Italy to bring Boniface back to France for trial. The pope escaped but died soon afterward.



Philip then engineered the election Clement V, as pope in 1305. Clement took up residence in Avignon (A • VEEN • YOHN), in southern France. From 1305 to 1377, the popes lived in Avignon.

Sentiments against the papacy grew during this time. Many believed that the pope as bishop of Rome should reside in Rome, not in Avignon. The splendor in which the pope and cardinals were living in Avignon also led to strong criticism of the papacy, as expressed by the Italian poet Petrarch:

PRIMARY SOURCE

"Here reign the successors of the poor fisherman of Galilee; they have strangely forgotten their origin. I am astounded . . . to see these men loaded with gold and clad in purple, boasting of the spoils of princes and nations."

—Italian poet Petrarch

The Great Schism

Perceiving the decline in papal prestige, Pope Gregory XI returned to Rome in 1377 but soon died. When the cardinals met to elect a new pope, the citizens of Rome warned that the cardinals would not leave Rome alive unless they elected an Italian. The cardinals wisely elected an Italian, Pope Urban VI. Five months later, a group of French cardinals declared the election invalid and chose a Frenchman as pope. This pope returned to Avignon.

Because Urban remained in Rome, there were now two popes, beginning the Great **Schism** of the Church. Lasting from 1378 to 1417, the Great Schism divided Europe. France and its allies supported the pope in Avignon. As France's enemies, England and its allies supported the pope in Rome.

In addition to creating political conflict, the Great Schism damaged the Church. The pope was widely believed to be the true leader of Christendom. When each line of popes denounced the other as the Antichrist (one who opposes Christ), people's faith in both the papacy and the Church were undermined. The situation became worse when an effort to resolve the problem in 1409 resulted in the simulof a Frenchman, Dtaneous reign of three popes. A church council finally met at Constance, Switzerland, and ended the schism in 1417. The competing popes either resigned or were deposed. A new pope, acceptable to all, was then elected.

> These crises led to calls for reform. Czech reformers led by John Hus called for an end to corruption of the clergy and to excessive papal power within the Church. Hus was accused of heresy by the Council of Constance and burned at the stake in 1415. In response, the Czechs led a revolutionary upheaval in Bohemia that was not crushed until 1436.

By the early 1400s, then, the Church had lost much of its political power. The pope could no longer assert supremacy over the state. Although Christianity remained central to medieval life, the papacy and the Church had lost much of their spiritual authority.

Reading Check Explaining Why were popes criticized for living in Avignon?

The Hundred Years' War

England and France waged the long, violent Hundred Years' War.

HISTORY & YOU How would you react to someone who claimed to have visions? Read to learn about Joan of Arc.

Plague, economic crisis, and the decline of the Catholic Church were not the only problems of the late Middle Ages. War and political instability must also be added to the list. The Hundred Years' War was the most violent struggle during this period.

The War Begins

Trouble began over the duchy of Gascony in France. England possessed it, and France wanted it. King Edward III of England was also the duke of Gascony and a wassal to the French king. However, when King Philip VI of France seized the duchy in 1337, Edward declared war on Philip. Thus began the Hundred Years' War between England and France.

The war began in a burst of knightly enthusiasm. Trained to be warriors, knights viewed battle as a chance to show their fighting abilities. The Hundred Years' War proved to be an important turning point in the nature of warfare, however. Peasant foot soldiers, not knights, won the chief battles of the war.

France's heavily armed noble cavalrymen, or knights, viewed foot soldiers as social inferiors. The English also used heavily armed cavalry, but they relied more on large numbers of peasants, paid to be foot soldiers. English soldiers were armed not only with pikes, or heavy spears, but also with longbows. The longbow had greater striking power, longer range, and more rapid speed of fire than the crossbow (formerly the weapon of choice).

Crécy and Agincourt

The first major battle of the Hundred Years' war occurred in 1346 at Crécy. The larger French army followed no battle plan and attacked in a disorderly fashion. The English archers devastated them.

As the chronicler Froissart described the

stunning English victory: "[with their longbows] the English continued to shoot into the thickest part of the crowd, wasting none of their arrows. They impaled or wounded horses and riders, who fell to the ground in great distress, unable to get up again without the help of several men."

The Battle of Crécy was not decisive, however. The English simply did not have enough resources to conquer all of France. Nevertheless, they continued to try. The English king, Henry V, achieved victory at the Battle of Agincourt in 1415. The heavy, armor-plated French knights tried to attack Henry's forces across a muddy field. They were disastrously defeated, and 1,500 French nobles died in battle. The English were masters of northern France.

Joan of Arc

The seemingly hopeless French cause now fell into the hands of Charles, heir to the French throne. Quite unexpectedly, a French peasant woman saved the timid monarch.

The daughter of prosperous peasants, Joan of Arc was a deeply religious person. She experienced visions and believed that saints had commanded her to free France. Though only 17, Joan's sincerity and simplicity persuaded Charles to allow her to accompany a French army to Orléans. Apparently inspired by Joan's faith, the French armies found new confidence and seized Orléans. Joan had brought the war to a turning point but did not live to see its end. The English captured Joan in 1430 and turned her over to the Inquisition on charges of witchcraft. At the time, visions were thought to be inspired by either God or the devil. Joan was condemned to death as a heretic.

Joan's achievements, however, were decisive. Although the war dragged on for another two decades, defeats of English armies in Normandy and Aquitaine led to a French victory by 1453. Also important to the French success was the use of the cannon, a new weapon made possible by the invention of gunpowder.

Reading Check Identifying What event sparked the Hundred Years' War?

Political Recovery

France, England, and Spain emerged as new monarchies by the late 1400s.

HISTORY & YOU After a setback, do you come back stronger and better? Read to learn about the new monarchies in Europe.

In the 1300s, European rulers faced serious problems. Many hereditary monarchies or dynasties in Europe were unable to produce male heirs. The founders of new dynasties had to fight for their posi- R tions when groups of nobles supported opposing candidates for the kingship. Rulers found themselves with financial problems as well.

In the 1400s, however, recovery set in as a number of new rulers in Europe attempted to reestablish the centralized power of monarchies. Some historians have spoken of these reestablished states as the **new** monarchies. This term applies especially to the monarchies of France, England, and Spain as they existed at the end of the 1400s.

France

The Hundred Years' War left France exhausted. However, the war had also developed a strong degree of French national feeling toward a common enemy. The kings used that spirit to reestablish royal power.

The development of a strong French state was greatly advanced by King Louis XI, who ruled from 1461 to 1483. Known by many as the Spider because of his devious ways, Louis strengthened the use of the taille—an annual direct tax usually on land or property—as a permanent tax imposed by royal authority. This tax gave Louis a sound, regular source of income.



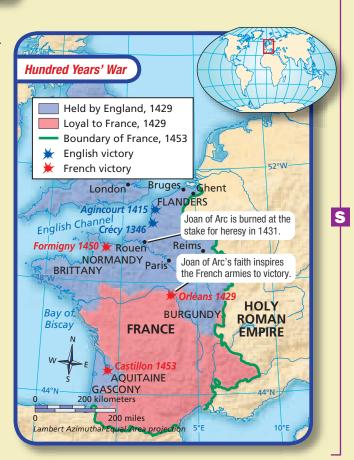
Joan of Arc announcing her

mission to Charles VII

Joan of Arc's claims to mysterious visions led to her greatest successes. She predicted that the French army would suffer a major defeat. When that happened, officials began to take her seriously. She was taken to King Charles VII, who disguised himself to test her. She had never seen him before, yet she picked him out of a group without hesitation. When the king offered her a sword, she said she wanted the sword that mysterious voices told her was buried behind the altar of a nearby

church. It was found exactly where she said it would be. However, after her capture, Joan's claims of visions worked against her. Many people believed that only witches had visions, and witches were heretics. Her pious conduct at the stake moved witnesses to tears. Few doubted that she died a faithful Christian.

- 1. Identifying What did Joan of Arc envision buried behind an altar?
- 2. Drawing Conclusions Based on the map, when did the tide begin to turn in favor of the French during the Hundred Years' War?





To curb the power of the great French nobles, Louis relied on support from the lower nobility and middle class. He added Anjou, Maine, Provence, and other regions to his kingdom. By consolidating power and by promoting industry and commerce, he created the foundations of a strong monarchy.

England

The Hundred Years' War had also strongly affected the English. Both the cost of the war and losses in manpower strained the economy. At the end of the war, England faced even greater turmoil when civil conflicts—known as the Wars of the Roses—erupted. Noble factions fought to control the monarchy until 1485, when Henry Tudor established a new dynasty.

As the first Tudor king, Henry VII worked to create a strong royal govern-

ment. Henry ended the wars of the nobles by abolishing their private armies. He was also very thrifty. By not overburdening the nobles and the middle class with taxes, Henry won their favor. They thus provided much support for his monarchy.

Spain

Spain, too, experienced the growth of a strong national monarchy at the end of the 1400s. Muslims had conquered much of Spain by about 725. During the Middle Ages, Christian rulers in Spain had fought to regain their lands from the Muslims. Several independent Christian kingdoms had emerged in the course of the long reconquest of the Iberian Peninsula. Among them were Aragon and Castile.

Aragon and Castile were both strong kingdoms. When Isabella of Castile married

Ferdinand of Aragon in 1469, it was a major step toward unifying Spain. Castile and Aragon remained distinct political kingdoms with separate councils of state and parliaments. However, Isabella and Ferdinand worked together to strengthen their royal control in the dual monarchy.

Ferdinand and Isabella also believed that religious unity was necessary for political unity. The rulers pursued a policy of strict conformity to Catholicism. In 1492, they took the drastic step of expelling all professed Jews from Spain.

Muslims, too, after their final loss in 1492 to the armies of Ferdinand and Isabella, were "encouraged" to convert to Catholicism. They had the choice of conversion or voluntary exile. In 1502, Isabella issued a decree expelling all professed Muslims from her kingdom. To a very large degree, Ferdinand and Isabella, the "most Catholic" monarchs, had achieved their goal of religious uniformity. To be Spanish was to be Catholic.

Central and Eastern Europe

Unlike France, England, and Spain, the Holy Roman Empire did not develop a strong monarchical authority. The failures of German emperors in the 1200s had made Germany a land of hundreds of states. Almost all of these states acted independently of the German ruler.

After 1438, the position of Holy Roman emperor was held by the Hapsburg dynasty. As rulers of the Austrian lands along the Danube, the house of Hapsburg had become one of the wealthiest landholders in the empire. By the mid-1400s, these rulers had begun to play an important role in European affairs.

In eastern Europe, rulers found it difficult to centralize their states. Religious differences troubled the area as Roman Catholics, Eastern Orthodox Christians, and other groups, including Mongols and Muslims, confronted one another. In Poland, the nobles gained the upper hand and established the right to elect their kings, a policy that drastically weakened royal authority. In Hungary, one king broke the power of the wealthy lords and created a well-organized central administration. After his death, however, his work was largely undone.

Since the 1200s, Russia had been under the domination of the Mongols. Gradually, the princes of Moscow rose to prominence by using their close relationship to the Mongol khans to increase their wealth and expand their possessions. During the reign of the great prince Ivan III, a new Russian state was born. Ivan III annexed other Russian territories. By 1480, he had thrown off the yoke of the Mongols.

Reading Check Identifying Conflicts among what groups made it difficult for eastern Europe to form new monarchies?

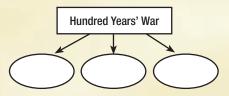


Vocabulary

 Explain the significance of: Black Death, abandoned, anti-Semitism, consequences, Pope Boniface VIII, King Philip IV, Avignon, Great Schism, John Hus, Henry V, Agincourt, Joan of Arc, Orléans, new monarchies, taille, Isabella, Ferdinand.

Main Ideas

- 2. **Explain** why anti-Semitism increased during the spread of the Black Death.
- 3. **Identify** the innovations from the Hundred Years' War that changed the nature of warfare. Use a diagram like the one below.



4. **Explain** how Henry VII strengthened his monarchy in the 1400s.

Critical Thinking

- 5. The BIG Idea Analyzing How did the economic effects of the Black Death help to break down the institution of serfdom?
- 6. Finding Main Ideas What key issue underlay the dispute between Pope Boniface VIII and King Philip IV over taxing the clergy?
- 7. Analyzing Visuals Examine the image of Joan of Arc on page 357. What details in the image suggest that Joan was not a typical medieval woman?

Writing About History

8. Informative Writing Write a newspapertype obituary for Joan of Arc. Include information on her life and her achievements. Write a tribute or quote that you believe sums up Joan's life.

History ONLINE

For help with the concepts in this section of *Glencoe World History*, go to **glencoe.com** and click Study Central.

Social History

The Black Death

The Black Death spread throughout Europe from 1347 to 1351. The disease wiped out nearly half of Europe's population. Many towns and villages lost most of their population, and some completely disappeared. There were three versions of the disease that plagued the population, the most well-known of these being the bubonic plague. Flea-infested rats aboard trading ships carried the disease along trade routes and throughout the continent. As the fleas jumped to humans, the pandemic began.

The bubonic plague hit urban areas hardest, where crowded conditions and poor sanitation helped spread disease.

Disposal of bodies became a nightmarish problem. Communal graves became common, as was disposal in rivers.

ESCAPING DEATH

There was no garbage collection or sanitation. All forms of refuse were simply thrown into the street, aiding the breeding of disease.

Many people believed the impure air carried the disease. Those who could afford it escaped to the countryside. They boarded up their homes and either left their sick loved ones in the care of servants, or just left them inside. Still others isolated themselves in their homes in hopes of avoiding infection. The poor had no means of escape. They lived with and cared for their sick. Because they were in close quarters, the poor often fell victim to the disease themselves.



swollen lymph nodes, called buboes, its victims experienced. They appeared in the neck, armpits, legs, and groin. Other symptoms were severe head and body aches, high fever, rapid pulse, general weakness, and vomiting of blood. Symptoms appeared within a few days of exposure; the bursting of the buboes and death followed in just a few days more.

- European history? Why?
- 2. **Comparing** How is the response to pandemics today different from the ones of the Middle Ages? Are there any similarities?

CHAPTER (III) Visual Summary

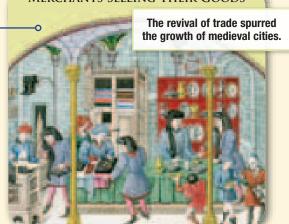


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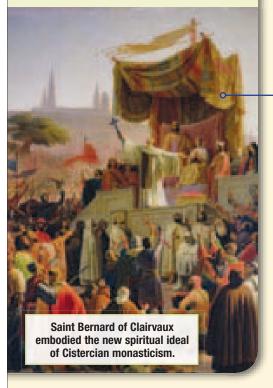
Society in the HIGH MIDDLE AGES

- Farming inventions and efficient use of land contributed to population growth.
- Under the manorial system, serfs were legally bound to the land they worked for the lord.
- Revival of trade changed the economy from a barter system to one based on money.
- As trade grew, cities expanded and became manufacturing and trade centers.

MERCHANTS SELLING THEIR GOODS



RELIGIOUS ENTHUSIASM SPREAD THROUGH EUROPE



CATHOLICISM, INNOVATIONS, AND INTELLECTUAL REVIVAL in the Middle Ages

- Political power of the Catholic Church peaked during the papacy of Pope Innocent III.
- Religious fervor led to new monastic orders.
- Advances in technology allowed the building of impressive Gothic cathedrals.
- Europe's first universities were founded.
- Popular troubadour poetry and heroic epic poems were written in the vernacular.

Disruptive Forces of the LATE MIDDLE AGES

- The Black Death spread through Europe, devastating societies and economies.
- The Great Schism damaged the Church's power and divided Europe.
- In the Hundred Years' War, peasant foot soldiers, not knights, won the chief battles.
- Recovery began in the late 1400s as new monarchies emerged in France, England, and Spain.

