In 771, Charlemagne took charge of the Frankish kingdom and began building an empire. By the time of his death in 814, the empire had reached its height. The map at the right shows Charlemagne's empire, and the way it was divided 29 years after his death. Use the map to answer the questions below.

1. What bodies of water form the borders of Charlemagne's empire?

2. What island is part of Charlemagne's empire?

3. How and when was the empire divided?

For more information about the Middle Ages in Europe . . .

From 771 to 814, Charlemagne ruled a vast kingdom later called the Holy Roman Empire.

While serving as pope from 590 to 604, Gregory the Great wore only a monk's robe. He humbly called himself "the servant of the servants of God."

511 Clovis unites Franks under Christian rule.

732 Charles Martel stops Muslim invasion.
Europe About 843

- **800** Charlemagne crowned emperor by the pope.
- **900s** Outside invasions spur growth of feudalism.
- **962** Otto the Great crowned emperor.
- **1190** Holy Roman Empire weakens.
Interact with History

You are living in the countryside of western Europe during the 1100s. Like about 90 percent of the population, you are a peasant working the land. Your family’s hut is located in a small village on your lord’s estate. The lord provides your basic needs, including housing, food, and protection.

Opportunities to leave the estate are rare. Within your lifetime, you will probably travel no more than 25 miles from your home.

What is good and bad about the small world of a peasant’s life?

As a class, discuss these questions. In your discussion, think about other people who have limited power over their lives.

As you read about the lot of European peasants in this chapter, see how their living arrangements determine their role in society and shape their beliefs.
Germanic Kingdoms Unite Under Charlemagne

MAIN IDEA

Many Germanic kingdoms that succeeded the Roman Empire were reunited under Charlemagne’s empire. Charlemagne spread Christian civilization through northern Europe, where it had a permanent impact.

SETTING THE STAGE  The gradual decline of the Roman Empire ushered in an era of European history called the Middle Ages, or the medieval period. It spanned from around 500 to 1500. During these centuries, new institutions slowly emerged to replace those of the fallen Roman Empire. Unified civilizations flourished in China and Southwest Asia. Medieval Europe, though, remained fragmented.

Invasions Trigger Changes in Western Europe

By the end of the fifth century, invaders from many different Germanic groups overran the western half of the Roman Empire. Repeated invasions and constant warfare sparked new trends. A series of changes altered government, economy, and culture:

• Disruption of Trade  Merchants faced invasions from both land and sea. Their businesses collapsed. The breakdown of trade destroyed Europe’s cities as economic centers. Money became scarce.

• Downfall of Cities  With the fall of the Roman Empire, cities were abandoned as centers of administration.

• Population Shifts  As Roman centers of trade and government collapsed, nobles retreated to the rural areas. Roman cities were left without strong leadership. Other city dwellers also fled to the countryside, where they grew their own food. The population of western Europe became mostly rural.

The Decline of Learning  The Germanic invaders who stormed Rome could not read or write. Among Roman subjects themselves, the level of learning sank sharply as more and more families left for rural areas. Few people except priests and other church officials were literate.

Knowledge of Greek, long important in Roman culture, was almost lost. Few people could read Greek works of literature, science, and philosophy. The Germanic tribes, though, had a rich oral tradition of songs and legends. However, they had no written language.

Loss of a Common Language  As German-speaking peoples mixed with the Roman population, Latin began to change. It was no longer understood from region to region. Different dialects developed as new words and phrases became part of everyday speech. By the 800s, French, Spanish, and other Roman-based languages had evolved from Latin. The development of various languages mirrored the continued breakup of a once unified empire.

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

A. Recognizing Effects  How did the fall of the Roman Empire lead to disorder in western Europe?

Vocabulary

dialects: various ways words from the same language are pronounced or used in different regions.
Germanic Kingdoms Emerge
In the years of upheaval between 400 and 600, small Germanic kingdoms replaced Roman provinces. The borders of those kingdoms changed constantly with the fortunes of war. The Church was an institution that survived the fall of the Roman Empire. During this time of political chaos, the Church provided order and security.

The Concept of Government Changes
Along with shifting boundaries, the entire concept of government changed. Loyalty to public government and written law had unified Roman society. Family ties and personal loyalty, rather than citizenship in a public state, bound Germanic society together. Unlike the Romans, Germanic peoples lived in small communities. These were governed by unwritten rules and traditions.

Every Germanic chief led a band of warriors who had pledged their loyalty to him. In peacetime, these followers lived in their lord’s hall. He gave them food, weapons, and treasure. In battle, warriors fought to the death at their lord’s side. They considered it a disgrace to outlive him.

Germanic warriors willingly died for a leader they respected. Yet they felt no obligation to obey a king they didn’t even know. Nor would they obey an official sent to collect taxes or administer justice in the name of an emperor they had never met. The Germanic stress on personal ties made it impossible to establish orderly government for large territories.

In the Roman province of Gaul, a Germanic people called the Franks held power. Their leader, Clovis (KLOH-vihs), would eventually bring Christianity to this region.

The Franks Under Clovis
Clovis’s wife, Clothilde, urged him to convert to her faith. She believed in a traditional form of Christianity. In 496 Clovis led his warriors into battle against another Germanic army. Fearing defeat, Clovis appealed to the Christian God. “For I have called on my gods,” he prayed, “but I find they are far from my aid... Now I call on Thee. I long to believe in Thee. Only, please deliver me from my enemies.” The tide of the battle shifted and the Franks triumphed.

Afterward, Clovis and 3,000 of his warriors asked a bishop to baptize them. The Church in Rome welcomed Clovis’s conversion and supported his military campaigns against other Germanic peoples. By 511, Clovis had united the Franks into one kingdom. The strategic alliance between Clovis’s Frankish kingdom and the Church marked the beginning of a special partnership between two powerful forces.

Germanic Peoples Adopt Christianity
Politics played a key role in spreading Christianity. By 600, the Church, with the help of Frankish rulers, had converted many Germanic peoples. These new converts had settled in Rome’s former lands.

Missionaries also succeeded in spreading Christianity. These religious travelers often risked their lives to advance their beliefs. During the fourth and fifth centuries, they worked among the Germanic and Celtic groups that bordered the Roman Empire. In southern Europe, the fear of coastal attacks by Muslims also spurred many people to become Christians.

Monasteries and Convents
To adapt to rural conditions, the Church built religious communities called monasteries. There Christian men called monks gave up all their
private possessions. Monks became servants of God. Nuns, women who also followed this religious way of life, lived in convents.

Around 520, Benedict, an Italian monk, began writing a book describing a strict yet practical set of rules for monasteries. Benedict’s sister, Scholastica (skuh-LAS-tik-uh), headed a convent. There she adapted the same rules for women. These guidelines became a model for many other religious communities in western Europe. Monks and nuns devoted their lives to prayer and good works.

Monasteries also became Europe’s best-educated communities. Monks opened schools, maintained libraries, and copied books. In 731, Venerable Bede, an English monk, wrote a history of England. Scholars still consider it the best historical work of the early Middle Ages. In the 600s and 700s, monks made beautiful copies of religious writings, decorated with ornate letters and brilliant pictures. The monks’ illuminated manuscripts preserved at least part of Rome’s intellectual heritage.

**Gregory I Expands Papal Power**

In 590, Gregory I, also called Gregory the Great, became pope. As head of the Church in Rome, Gregory broadened the authority of the papacy, or pope’s office, beyond its spiritual role. Under Gregory, the papacy also became a secular, or worldly, power involved in politics. The pope’s palace was the center of Roman government. Gregory used Church revenues to raise armies, repair roads, and help the poor. He also negotiated peace treaties with invaders such as the Lombards. Gregory had begun to act as the mayor of Rome. Yet his influence extended beyond the city’s boundaries.

According to Gregory, the entire region from Italy to England, from Spain to western Germany, fell under his responsibility. Gregory strengthened the vision of Christendom. It was a spiritual kingdom that fanned out from Rome to the most distant churches. This idea of a churchly kingdom, ruled by a pope, would become a central theme of the Middle Ages. Meanwhile, secular rulers set their sights on expanding their own political kingdoms.

**A European Empire Evolves**

After the Roman Empire dissolved, small kingdoms sprang up all over Europe. For example, England splintered into seven tiny kingdoms. Some of them were no larger than the state of Connecticut. The Franks controlled the largest and strongest of Europe’s kingdoms in an area that was formerly the Roman province of Gaul. The Franks’ first Christian king, Clovis, laid down the foundations for this kingdom.

By the time Clovis died in 511, he had extended his rule over most of what is now France. Clovis greatly strengthened the Merovingian (MEHR-uh-VIHN-jeuhl) Dynasty, which was named after his legendary ancestor.

**Clovis’s Descendants**

By 700, an official known as the major domo, or mayor of the palace, had become the most powerful person in the kingdom. Officially, the mayor of the palace had charge of the royal household and estates. Unofficially, he commanded armies and made policy. In effect, the mayor of the palace ruled the kingdom.

In 719, a mayor of the palace named Charles Martel (Charles the Hammer) held more power than the king. Charles Martel extended the Franks’ reign to the north, south, and east. He also defeated a Muslim raiding party from Spain at the Battle of Tours in 732. The outcome of this battle held great significance for Christian Europeans. If the Muslims had won, western Europe might have become a part of...
the Muslim Empire. Charles Martel's victory at the Battle of Tours halted the Muslim invasion. This conquest made him a Christian hero.

At his death, Charles Martel passed on his power to his son, Pepin the Short. Pepin wanted to become king. He shrewdly cooperated with the pope. On behalf of the Church, Pepin agreed to fight the Lombards. They were invading central Italy and threatening Rome. In exchange, the pope anointed Pepin “king by the grace of God.” Thus began the reign of Frankish rulers called the Carolingian (KAR-uh-LIHN-juhn) Dynasty. It lasted from 751 to 987.

**Charlemagne Extends Frankish Rule** Pepin the Short died in 768. He left a greatly strengthened Frankish kingdom to his two sons, Carloman and Charles. After Carloman’s death in 771, Charles, known as Charlemagne (SHahr-uh-MAYN), or Charles the Great, quickly seized control of the entire kingdom.

Charlemagne was an imposing figure. He stood six feet four inches tall. His admiring secretary, a monk named Einhard, described Charlemagne’s achievements:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**

[Charlemagne] was the most potent prince with the greatest skill and success in different countries during the forty-seven years of his reign. Great and powerful as was the realm of Franks, Karl [Charlemagne] received from his father Pippin, he nevertheless so splendidly enlarged it . . . that he almost doubled it.

*EINHARD, from Life of Charlemagne*

**Charlemagne Takes Center Stage**

Charlemagne built an empire greater than any known since ancient Rome. Each summer Charlemagne led his armies against the enemies that surrounded his kingdom. He fought the Muslims in Spain and tribes from other Germanic kingdoms. Charlemagne conquered new lands to both the south and the east. Through these conquests, Charlemagne spread Christianity. He reunited western Europe for the first time since the Roman Empire. By 800, the Carolingian empire exceeded the Byzantine Empire. It included two-thirds of Italy, all of present-day France, a small part of Spain, and all of German Saxony. Charlemagne had become the most powerful king in western Europe.

In 800, Charlemagne traveled to Rome to crush an unruly mob that had attacked the pope. In gratitude, Pope Leo III crowned him emperor. The coronation was historic. A pope had claimed the political right to confer the title “Roman Emperor” on a European king. This event signaled the joining of Germanic power, the Church, and the heritage of the Roman Empire.

**Charlemagne’s Government** Charlemagne strengthened his royal power by limiting the authority of the nobles. To govern his empire, Charlemagne sent out royal agents. They made sure that the powerful landholders, called counts, governed their counties justly. Charlemagne also regularly visited every part of his kingdom. He
judged cases, settled disputes, and rewarded faithful followers. He also kept a close watch on the management of his huge estates. They were the source of Carolingian wealth and power.

**Cultural Revival** One of Charlemagne’s greatest accomplishments was his encouragement of learning. Charlemagne surrounded himself with English, German, Italian, and Spanish scholars. For his many sons and daughters and other children at the court, Charlemagne opened a palace school. He ordered monasteries to open schools that trained future monks and priests. Monasteries expanded their libraries. Monks labored to make handwritten copies of Latin books.

**Charlemagne’s Heirs Are Weak Rulers** A year before Charlemagne died in 814, he crowned his only surviving son, Louis the Pious, as emperor. Louis was a devoutly religious man. He might have fared better as a monk. Louis proved an ineffective ruler.

Louis left three sons: Lothair (lo•THAIR), Charles the Bald, and Louis the German. Louis’s sons fought one another for the empire. The civil war ended in 843 when the brothers signed the Treaty of Verdun. This pact divided Charlemagne’s empire into three kingdoms. After the treaty, Carolingian kings lost power. As central authority broke down, the lack of strong rulers led to a new system of governing and landholding.

---

**THINK THROUGH HISTORY**

**C. Evaluating** What were Charlemagne’s most notable achievements?

**C. Answer** Reuniting Western Europe for the first time since the Roman Empire, spreading Christianity, encouraging learning, governing effectively.

---

**Section 1 Assessment**

1. **TERMS & NAMES**

   Identify
   - Middle Ages
   - Franks
   - monastery
   - secular
   - Carolingian Dynasty
   - Charlemagne

2. **TAKING NOTES**

   Create a chart like the one below to summarize how each person listed helped spread Christianity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method of Spreading Christianity</th>
<th>Clovis</th>
<th>Benedict</th>
<th>Gregory</th>
<th>Charles Martel</th>
<th>Charlemagne</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. **SYNTHESIZING**

   After the fall of the Roman Empire, learning declined. How was this trend offset during the early Middle Ages?

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - the establishment of monasteries
   - Charlemagne’s accomplishments

4. **ANALYZING THEMES**

   **Empire Building** How does Charlemagne’s empire in medieval Europe compare with the Roman Empire?

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - the extent of the empire
   - the spread of Christianity
   - how long each empire endured
After the Treaty of Verdun, Charlemagne’s three feuding grandsons broke up the kingdom even further. Part of this territory also became a battleground as new waves of invaders attacked Europe. The political turmoil and constant warfare led to the rise of feudalism—a military and political system based on land ownership and personal loyalty.

New Invasions Trouble Western Europe
Between 800 and 1000, invasions completely destroyed the Carolingian Empire. Muslim invaders from the south seized Sicily and raided Italy. They sacked Rome in 846. Magyar invaders struck from the east. Like the earlier Huns and Avars, the Magyar warriors terrorized Germany and Italy. And from the north sailed the most dreaded attackers of all—the Vikings.

Vikings: Raiders, Traders, and Explorers
The Vikings set sail from a wintry, wooded region called Scandinavia (skan-duh-NAY-vee-uh). The Vikings, a Germanic people, were also called Northmen or Norsemen. They worshiped warlike gods. The Vikings took pride in nicknames like Eric Bloodaxe and Thorfinn Skullsplitter.

The Vikings carried out their raids with terrifying speed. Clutching swords and heavy wooden shields, these helmeted warriors beached their ships. They struck and then quickly shoved out to sea again. By the time local troops arrived, the Vikings were gone.

Viking warships were awesome. The largest of these long ships held 300 warriors. They took turns rowing the ship’s 72 oars. The prow of each ship swept grandly upward, often ending with the carved head of a sea monster. A ship might weigh 20 tons when fully loaded. Yet it could sail in a mere three feet of water. Rowing up shallow creeks, the Vikings looted inland villages and monasteries.

The Vikings were not only warriors but also traders, farmers, and outstanding explorers. Vikings ventured far beyond western Europe. They journeyed down rivers into the heart of Russia, to Constantinople, and even across the icy waters of the North Atlantic. A Viking explorer named Leif (leeif) Ericson most likely reached North America around 1000, almost 500 years before Columbus.

Background
The Vikings in Russia, called Varangians, settled down to become traders and nation builders. Their earlier invasions of Russia led to the establishment of the first Russian state, in the mid-800s. (See Chapter 11.)

About the same time Ericson reached the Americas, the Viking terror in Europe faded away. As Vikings gradually accepted Christianity, they stopped raiding monasteries. Also, a warming trend in Europe’s climate made farming easier in Scandinavia. As agricultural settlements in Iceland and Greenland prospered, fewer Scandinavians adopted the seafaring life of Viking warriors.
Magyars and Muslims As the Viking invasions declined, Europe became the target of new assaults. The Magyars, a group of nomadic people, attacked from the east. They were superb horseback riders. The Magyars swept across the plains of the Danube River and invaded western Europe in the late 800s. The Magyars did not settle conquered land. Instead, they captured people to sell as slaves. They attacked isolated villages and monasteries. The Magyars overran northern Italy and reached as far west as the Rhineland and Burgundy.

The Muslims struck from the south. From there, they controlled the Mediterranean Sea, and disrupted trade. In the 600s and 700s, the Muslims tried to conquer and settle in Europe. By the 800s and 900s, their goal was also plunder. The Muslims were excellent sailors. They attacked settlements on the Atlantic and Mediterranean coasts and as far inland as Switzerland.

The invasions of Vikings, Magyars, and Muslims caused widespread disorder and suffering. Most western Europeans were living in constant danger. Central authority proved powerless. They no longer looked to a central ruler for security. Instead, many turned to local rulers with their own armies. Leaders who could fight the invaders attracted followers and gained political strength.

Feudalism Structures Society

In 911, two former enemies faced each other in a peace ceremony. Rollo was the head of a Viking army. He had been plundering the rich Seine (sayn) River valley for years. Charles the Simple was the king of France but held little power. Charles granted the Viking leader a huge piece of French territory. It became known as Northmen’s land, or Normandy. In return, Rollo placed his hands between the king’s hands and swore a pledge of loyalty.
A New Social Order  The worst years of the invaders’ attacks roughly spanned from 850 to 950. During this time, rulers and warriors like Charles and Rollo made similar agreements in many parts of Europe. The system of governing and landholding called feudalism had emerged in Europe. A similar feudal system existed in China under the Zhou Dynasty that ruled from around the 11th century B.C. until 256 B.C. Feudalism in Japan began in A.D. 1192 and ended in the 19th century.

The feudal system was based on mutual obligations. In exchange for military protection and other services, a lord, or landowner, granted land called a fief. The person receiving a fief was called a vassal. Charles the Simple, the lord, and Rollo, the vassal, showed how this two-sided bargain worked. Feudalism depended on the control of land.

The Feudal Pyramid  To visualize the structure of feudal society, think of a pyramid. At the peak reigned the king. Next came the most powerful vassals—wealthy landowners such as nobles and bishops. Serving beneath these vassals were knights. Knights were mounted warriors who pledged to defend their lords’ lands in exchange for fiefs. At the base of the pyramid were landless peasants who toiled in the fields.

In practice, the feudal system did not work so simply. Relationships between various lords and their vassals were never clear-cut. The same noble might be a vassal to several different lords. The feudal pyramid often became a complex tangle of conflicting loyalties. Both lords and vassals tried to use these relationships to their own advantage.

Social Classes Are Well Defined  In the feudal system, status determined a person’s prestige and power. Medieval writers classified people into three groups: those who fought (nobles and knights), those who prayed (men and women of the Church), and those who worked (the peasants). Social class was usually inherited.

In Europe during the Middle Ages, the vast majority of people were peasants. Most peasants were serfs. Serfs were people who could not lawfully leave the place where they were born. Though bound to the land, serfs were not slaves. Their lords could not sell or buy them. The wealth of the feudal lords came from the labor of peasants.
The manor was the lord's estate. During the Middle Ages, the manor system was the basic economic arrangement. The manor system rested on a set of rights and obligations between a lord and his serfs. The lord provided the serfs with housing, strips of farmland, and protection from bandits. In return, serfs tended the lord's lands, cared for his animals, and performed other tasks to maintain the estate. Peasant women shared in the farmwork with their husbands. All peasants, whether free or serf, owed the lord certain duties. These included at least a few days' labor each week and a certain portion of their grain.

A Self-Contained World  Peasants rarely traveled more than 25 miles from their own manor. By standing in the center of a plowed field, they could see their entire world at a glance. A manor usually covered only a few square miles of land. It typically consisted of the lord's manor house, a church, and workshops. Generally, 15 to 30 families lived in the village on a manor. Fields, pastures, and forests surrounded the village. Sometimes a stream wound through the manor. Streams and ponds provided fish, which served as an important source of food.

The manor was largely a self-sufficient community. The serfs and peasants raised or produced nearly everything that they and their lord needed for daily life—crops, fuel, cloth, leather goods, and lumber. The only outside purchases were salt, iron, and a few unusual objects such as millstones. These huge stones were used to grind flour.

The Harshness of Manor Life  For the privilege of living on the lord's land, peasants paid a high price. They paid a tax on all grain ground in the lord's mill. Any attempt to dodge taxes by baking bread elsewhere was treated as a crime. Peasants also paid a tax on marriage. Weddings could take place only with the lord's consent. After all these payments to the lord, peasant families owed the village priest a tithe, or church tax. A tithe represented one-tenth of their income.
Serfs lived in crowded cottages with only one or two rooms. They warmed their dirt-floor houses by bringing pigs inside. At night the family huddled on a pile of straw that often crawled with insects. Peasants’ simple diet consisted mainly of vegetables, coarse brown bread, grain, cheese, and soup.

Piers Plowman, written by William Langland in 1362, reveals the hard life of English peasants:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
What by spinning they save, they spend it in house-hire,
Both in milk and in meal to make a mess of porridge,
To cheer up their children who chafe for their food,
And they themselves suffer surely much hunger
And woe in the winter, with waking at nights
And rising to rock an oft restless cradle

WILLIAM LANGLAND, Piers Plowman

Despite the hardships they endured, serfs accepted their lot in life as part of the Church’s teachings. They, like most Christians during medieval times, believed that God determined a person’s place in society.
327

The Age of Chivalry

**MAIN IDEA**

The code of chivalry for knights glorified combat and romantic love.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**

Chivalry has shaped modern ideas of romance in Western cultures.

**SETTING THE STAGE**

During the Middle Ages, nobles constantly fought one another. Their feuding kept Europe in a fragmented state for centuries. Through warfare, feudal lords defended their estates, seized new territories, and increased their wealth. Lords and their armies lived in a violent society that prized combat skills. By the 1100s, a code of behavior arose. High ideals guided warriors’ actions and glorified their roles.

**Warriors on Horseback**

Mounted soldiers became valuable in combat during the reign of Charlemagne’s grandfather, Charles Martel, in the 700s. Charles Martel had observed that the Muslim cavalry often turned the tide of battles. As a result, he organized Frankish troops of armored horsemen, or knights.

**Saddles and Stirrups**

The leather saddle was developed on the Asian steppes around 200 B.C. Stirrups were developed in India around the same time. Both changed the technology of warfare in Europe during the 700s. The saddle kept a warrior firmly seated on a moving horse. Stirrups allowed him to stand up while riding and to maneuver heavier weapons. Without stirrups to brace him, a charging warrior was likely to topple off his own horse.

Frankish knights, galloping full tilt, could knock over enemy foot soldiers and riders on horseback. Gradually, mounted knights became the most important part of an army. The horses they owned were status symbols. Warhorses played a key military role.

**The Warrior’s Role in Feudal Society**

By the 11th century, western Europe was a battleground of warring nobles vying for power. To defend their territories, feudal lords raised private armies. In exchange for military service, feudal lords used their most abundant resource—land. They rewarded knights, their most skilled warriors, with fiefs from their sprawling estates. Wealth from these fiefs allowed knights to devote their lives to war. Knights could afford to pay for costly weapons, armor, and warhorses.

As the lord’s vassal, a knight’s main obligation was to serve in battle. From each of his knights, a lord typically demanded about 40 days of mounted combat each year. Knights’ pastimes also often revolved around training for war. Wrestling and hunting helped knights gain strength and practice the skills they would need on the battlefield.

---

**BACKGROUND**

The Muslims who invaded Spain in the 700s and established a civilization there were called Moors.

**TERMS & NAMES**

- chivalry
- tournament
- troubadour
Knighthood and Chivalry

Early in the Middle Ages, knights were expected to display courage in battle and loyalty to their lord. By the 1100s, the code of chivalry (SHIH•uhl•ree), a complex set of ideals, demanded that a knight fight bravely in defense of three masters. He devoted himself to his earthly feudal lord, his heavenly Lord, and his chosen lady. The chivalrous knight also protected the weak and the poor. The ideal knight was loyal, brave, and courteous. Most knights, though, failed to meet these high standards. They treated the lower classes brutally.

A cowardly knight who disregarded the code of chivalry faced public shame. First, his armor was stripped off, and his shield was cracked. Next, his spurs were cut off, and his sword was broken over his head. People then threw the knight into a coffin and dragged him to church. There a priest would chant a mock funeral service.

War Games for Glory

Sons of nobles began training for knighthood at an early age and learned the code of chivalry. After being dubbed a knight, most young men traveled with companions for a year or two. The young knights gained experience fighting in local wars. Some knights took part in mock battles called tournaments. Tournaments combined recreation with combat training. Two armies of knights charged each other. Trumpets blared, and lords and ladies cheered. Like real battles, tournaments were fierce and bloody competitions. Winners could usually demand large ransoms from defeated knights.

Brutal Reality of Warfare

The small-scale violence of tournaments did not match the bloodshed of actual battles, especially those fought at castles. By the 1100s, stone castles were encircled by massive walls and guard towers. These castles dominated much of the countryside in western Europe. The castle was the home of the lord and lady, their family, knights and other men-at-arms, and servants. It also was a fortress, designed for defense.

A castle under siege was a gory sight. Attacking armies used a wide range of strategies and weapons to force castle residents to surrender. Defenders of a castle poured boiling water, hot oil, or molten lead on enemy soldiers. Expert archers were stationed on the roof of the castle. Armed with crossbows, they fired deadly bolts that could pierce full armor.

Background

The word chivalry comes from the French words cheval (horse) and chevalier (horse-riding knight).

Think Through History

A. Comparing How do medieval tournaments resemble modern sports competitions?

Vocabulary

siege: a military blockade staged by enemy armies trying to capture a fortress.
Castles and Siege Weapons

Attacking armies carefully planned how to capture a castle. Engineers would inspect the castle walls for weak points in the stone. Then enemy soldiers would try to ram the walls, causing them to collapse. At the battle site, attackers often constructed the heavy and clumsy weapons shown here.

Siege Tower
• had a platform on top that lowered like a drawbridge
• could support weapons and soldiers

Mantlet
• shielded soldiers

Tortoise
• moved slowly on wheels
• sheltered soldiers from falling arrows

Battering Ram
• made of heavy timber with a sharp metal tip
• swung like a pendulum to crack castle walls or to knock down drawbridge

Mangonel
• flung huge rocks that crashed into castle walls
• propelled objects up to a distance of 1,300 feet

An Array of High-Flying Missiles
Using the trebuchet, enemy soldiers launched a wide variety of missiles over the castle walls:
• pots of burning lime
• boulders
• severed human heads
• captured soldiers
• diseased cows
• dead horses

Trebuchet
• worked like a giant slingshot
• propelled objects up to a distance of 980 feet

Making Inferences
How do these siege weapons show that their designers knew the architecture of a castle well?

Researching
Modern technology has made warfare far less personal than it was during the Middle Ages. Find examples of recent weapons. Describe how they affect the way war is conducted.
The Literature of Chivalry

In the 1100s, the themes of medieval literature downplayed the brutality of knighthood and feudal warfare. Many stories idealized castle life. They glorified knighthood and chivalry, tournaments and real battles. Songs and poems about a knight’s undying love for a lady were also popular.

Epic Poetry Feudal lords and their ladies enjoyed listening to epic poems. These poems recounted a hero’s deeds and adventures. Many epics retold stories about legendary heroes of the early Middle Ages, such as King Arthur and Charlemagne.

*The Song of Roland* is one of the earliest and most famous medieval epic poems. It praises a band of French soldiers who perished in battle during Charlemagne’s reign. The poem transforms the event into a struggle. A few brave French knights led by Roland battle an overwhelming army of Muslims from Spain. Roland’s friend, Turpin the Archbishop, stands as a shining example of medieval ideals. Turpin represents courage, faith, and chivalry:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
And now there comes the Archbishop.
He spurs his horse, goes up into a mountain,
summons the French; and he preached them a sermon:
“Barons, my lords, [Charlemagne] left us in this place.
We know our duty: to die like good men for our King.
Fight to defend the holy Christian faith.”
from *The Song of Roland*

Love Poems and Songs Under the code of chivalry, a knight’s duty to his lady became as important as his duty to his lord. In many medieval poems, the hero’s difficulties resulted from a conflict between those two obligations.

Troubadours were poet-musicians at the castles and courts of Europe. They composed short verses and songs about the joys and sorrows of romantic love. Sometimes troubadours sang their own verses in the castles of their lady. They also sent roving minstrels to carry their songs to courts.

A troubadour might sing about love’s disappointments: “My loving heart, my faithfulness, myself, my world she deigns to take/ Then leave me bare and comfortless to longing thoughts that ever wake.”

Other songs told of lovesick knights who adored ladies they would probably never win: “Love of a far-off land/For you my heart is aching/And I can find no relief.” The code of chivalry promoted a false image of knights. In turn, these love songs created an artificial image of women. In the troubadour’s eyes, noblewomen were always beautiful and pure.

The most celebrated woman of the age was Eleanor of Aquitaine (1122–1204). Troubadours flocked to her court in the French duchy of Aquitaine. Later, as queen of England, Eleanor was the mother of Richard the Lion-Hearted and King John. Richard himself composed romantic songs and poems. Eleanor’s daughter, Marie of Champagne, turned love into a subject of study like logic or law. She presided at a famed Court of Love. Troubled lovers came there to air their grievances.

Modern Love Songs Many love songs played on the radio or cable TV share similarities with the love songs of troubadours from the 1100s and 1200s. Modern lyrics echo themes featured in troubadours’ songs—happiness and heartbreaks, devoted lovers and unfaithful lovers, trust and jealousy.

The titles of modern love songs reflect the legacy of medieval troubadours’ songs. Here are some examples:

- “Heartbreaker”
- “True Love”
- “Your Cheatin’ Heart”
- “Power of Love”
- “Can’t Help Falling in Love”

CONNECT to TODAY

Modern Love Songs

Many love songs played on the radio or cable TV share similarities with the love songs of troubadours from the 1100s and 1200s. Modern lyrics echo themes featured in troubadours’ songs—happiness and heartbreaks, devoted lovers and unfaithful lovers, trust and jealousy.

The titles of modern love songs reflect the legacy of medieval troubadours’ songs. Here are some examples:

- “Heartbreaker”
- “True Love”
- “Your Cheatin’ Heart”
- “Power of Love”
- “Can’t Help Falling in Love”

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

B. Making Inferences How was the code of chivalry like the idea of romantic love?
The Shifting Role of Women

The Church viewed women as inferior to men. In contrast, the idea of romantic love placed noblewomen on a pedestal where they could be worshipped. A true knight pledged to protect all women. He also might love, serve, and adore a particular lady, preferably from afar.

Yet as feudalism developed across western Europe, women’s status actually declined. Their roles became increasingly limited to the home and convent.

For the vast majority of women life remained unchanged for centuries. During the Middle Ages, most women were still poor and powerless. Their roles were confined to performing endless labor, bearing children, and taking care of their families.

Women in Power Under the feudal system, a noblewoman could inherit an estate from her husband. Upon her lord’s request, she could also send his knights to war. When her husband was off fighting, the lady of a medieval castle might act as military commander and a warrior. Noblewomen often played a key role in defending castles. They hurled rocks and fired arrows at attackers. Some women even dressed in armor, mounted warhorses, and mobilized a cavalry of knights.

However, unlike knights, women were not eligible to receive land as reward in exchange for military service. Women also held less property. Lords passed down their fiefs to their sons, not their daughters.

Women’s Falling Status As the Middle Ages progressed, noblewomen wielded less real power than they had in earlier years. Eleanor of Aquitaine was a notable exception. As queen of England, she ruled at times for her husband, Henry II, and later for her sons, Richard and John. Few other women had such authority.

The Church played a part in medieval women’s declining fortunes. The Church tried to regain control of religious appointments and organizations. It reclaimed convents and monasteries that noblewomen had founded or supported. As you will read in Section 4, the influence of the Church was far-reaching.

2. TAKING NOTES

Using a web diagram like the one below, show ideas associated with chivalry.

chivalry

Which have remnants in today’s society? Explain.

3. FORMING OPINIONS

Do you think the idea of romantic love helped or hindered women? Why?

THINK ABOUT

• pros and cons of placing women on a “pedestal”
• the Church’s view of women
• the lyrics of love songs quoted in the text

4. ANALYZING THEMES

Religious and Ethical Systems What positive effects might the code of chivalry have had on feudal society?

THINK ABOUT

• the ideals of chivalry
• the education of a knight
• the importance of religious faith
• the violence and constant warfare during the Middle Ages
Chapter 13

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 Scope of Church Authority

In crowning Charlemagne 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, the Church and state disagreed on the boundaries of either realm. Clashes erupted throughout the Middle Ages. The Church and various European governments competed for power.

Church Structure

Somewhat like the system of feudalism, the Church established its own organization. The distribution of power was based on status. Church structure consisted of different ranks of clergy, or religious officials. The pope headed the Church in Rome. 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 religious 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. Shared beliefs in the teachings of the Church bonded people together. During an era of constant warfare and political turmoil, the Church was a stable force. The Church provided Christians with a sense of security and a religious community to which they might belong. The Middle Ages in Europe were aptly named the Age of Faith. Religion at this time occupied center stage.

Medieval Christians’ everyday lives were often harsh. Still, they could all follow the same path to salvation—everlasting life in heaven. Priests and other religious officials administered the sacraments, or important religious ceremonies. These rites paved the

Terms & Names

- clergy
- sacrament
- canon law
- Holy Roman Empire
- lay investiture
way for achieving salvation. For example, through the sacrament of baptism, people became part of the Christian community. Through confirmation, baptized people of their own will publicly acknowledged their membership in the Church.

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

Church Justice The scope of the Church’s authority was both religious and political. The Church 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 the law of the Church, 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 interdict.

Popes used the threat of excommunication—banishment from the Church—to wield power over political rulers. For example, a disobedient king’s quarrel with a pope might result in excommunication. This 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 eternal suffering in 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.

The Church and the Holy Roman Empire

After the death of Charlemagne, the Holy Roman Empire was the strongest kingdom that arose from the ruins of his empire. When Pope Leo III crowned Charlemagne emperor in 800, he unknowingly set the stage for future conflicts between popes and emperors.

Otto I Allies with the Church The most effective ruler of medieval Germany was Otto I. He was known as Otto the Great. Otto, crowned king in 936, consciously copied the policies of his boyhood hero, Charlemagne. Like Charlemagne, Otto formed a close alliance with the Church. To limit the nobles’ strength, Otto sought help from the clergy. He built up his power base by gaining the support of the bishops and abbots, the heads of monasteries. Otto dominated the Church in Germany. He also used his power to defeat unruly 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 known as the Holy Roman Empire. The Holy Roman Empire remained the strongest state in Europe until about 1100. However, Otto’s attempt to revive Charlemagne’s empire caused trouble for future German leaders. Italian nobles resented German rule. Popes too came to fear the political power that the German emperors held over Italy.
Holy Roman Emperor Clashes with the Pope

The Church began to resent the control that kings, such as Otto, exercised over clergy and their offices. The focus of this resentment was lay investiture—a ceremony in which kings and nobles appointed church officials. Whoever controlled lay investiture wielded the real power in naming bishops. They were powerful clergy whom kings sought to control. Church reformers felt that bishops should not be under the power of any king. 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 sent a vicious letter to Gregory VII. Henry called Gregory “not pope, but false monk” and ordered him to step down from the papacy. Gregory fired back and excommunicated Henry. Afterward, German bishops and princes sided with the pope. Determined to save his throne, Henry tried to win the pope’s forgiveness.

Showdown at Canossa In January 1077, Henry journeyed over the snowy Alps to the Italian town of Canossa (kuh-NAHS-uh). He approached the castle where Pope Gregory was a guest. Gregory later described the scene:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

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, cited 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.

The meeting in Canossa was one of the most dramatic confrontations of the Middle Ages. Yet it actually solved nothing. A triumphant Henry rushed home to punish the nobles who had rebelled against him. The pope had gained an even greater victory by humiliating the proudest ruler in Europe. The key question of lay investiture remained undecided.

Concordat of Worms Gregory’s and Henry’s successors continued to fight over lay investiture until 1122. That year, representatives of the Church and the emperor met in the German city of Worms. There they reached a compromise known as the Concordat of Worms. By its terms, the Church alone could grant a bishop his ring and staff, symbols of Church office. Yet the emperor had the veto power to prevent the appointment of a bishop.

During Henry’s struggle, German princes regained much of the power they had lost under Otto the Great. A later German ruler, Frederick I, would resume the battle to build up royal authority.

**Geography SkillBuilder: Interpreting Maps**

1. Region How many states make up the Holy Roman Empire?
   What does this suggest about ruling it as an empire?

2. Location How does the location of the Papal States make them an easy target for frequent invasions by Germanic rulers?
Renewed Church Conflicts Under Frederick I

By 1152, the seven German princes who elected the German king realized that Germany needed a strong ruler to keep the peace. The princes chose Frederick I. His red beard earned him the nickname “Barbarossa.”

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 the Great’s example, Frederick did not focus on building royal power in Germany. Instead, he repeatedly invaded the rich cities of Italy. Frederick’s brutal tactics spurred Italian merchants to unite against him. Like Henry IV, Frederick angered the pope, who joined the merchants. Together, Frederick’s enemies formed 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-uh). In an astonishing victory, these 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. Frederick’s military defeat, though, had undermined his authority with the German princes. Their power continued to grow in spite of Frederick’s efforts. After he drowned in 1190, Frederick’s empire dissolved into an array of fragmented feudal states.

German States Remain Separate

By getting involved in Italian politics, German kings after Frederick 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 among several reasons why the feudal states of Germany did not unify during the Middle Ages.

The system of German princes electing the king weakened royal authority. German rulers controlled fewer royal lands to use as a base of power than French and English kings, who were establishing strong central authority. These king’s made changes in the legal system that would lay the foundation for modern unified nation-states.

As you will read in Chapter 14, feudalism in France and England spurred the rise of powerful leaders. They would create strong and enduring nations. Gradually, orderly government would replace the fighting and frequent warfare that characterized feudal societies, such as Germany.
Chapter Assessment

TERMS & NAMES
Briefly explain the importance of each of the following during the Middle Ages from 500 to 1200.

1. monastery  6. chivalry  11. how did Gregory I increase the political power of the pope?
2. Charlemagne  7. troubadour  12. what was the outcome of the Battle of Tours?
3. vassal  8. clergy  13. what was the significance of the pope’s declaring Charlemagne emperor?
4. serf  9. Holy Roman Empire  10. lay investiture
5. manor

Interact with History
On page 316, you imagined what the world was like from the viewpoint of a peasant living on a medieval manor. Now that you’ve read the chapter, reconstruct a more accurate picture. What was a peasant’s daily life like? Why did peasants cling to their religious beliefs and the teachings of the Church? Discuss your ideas in a small group.

Visual Summary

European Middle Ages

Feudalism
- Form of government based on landholding
- Alliances between lords and vassals
- Oaths of loyalty in exchange for land and military service
- Ranking of power and authority

Chivalry
- Displays of courage and valor in combat
- Devotion to a feudal lord and heavenly lord
- Respect toward women

The Church
- Unifying force of Christian faith
- Power over people’s everyday lives
- Involvement in political affairs

Manors
- Lord’s estate
- Set of rights and obligations between serfs and lords
- Self-sufficient community producing a variety of goods

Economic System

Political System

Belief System

Code of Behavior

Review Questions

SECTION 1 (pages 317–321)

Germanic Kingdoms Unite Under Charlemagne

11. How did Gregory I increase the political power of the pope?
12. What was the outcome of the Battle of Tours?
13. What was the significance of the pope’s declaring Charlemagne emperor?

SECTION 2 (pages 322–326)

Feudalism in Europe

14. Which invading peoples caused turmoil in Europe during the 800s?
15. What exchange took place between lords and vassals under the feudal system?
16. What duties did a lord of a manor and his serfs owe one another?

SECTION 3 (pages 327–331)

The Age of Chivalry

17. Briefly describe the stages of becoming a knight.
18. What were common subjects of troubadours’ songs during the Middle Ages?

SECTION 4 (pages 332–335)

The Church Wields Power

19. What was Gelasius’s two-swords theory?
20. Describe the conflict between Pope Gregory VII and Henry IV and its outcome.
CRITICAL THINKING

1. COMPARING CIVILIZATIONS
Create a chart comparing medieval Europe to an earlier civilization, such as Rome or Greece. Consider government, religion, and social roles.

2. CHARLEMAGNE AND HIS LEGACY
Copy the three overlapping circles below to show how Otto I and Frederick I tried to imitate Charlemagne’s approach to empire building.

3. THE POWER OF LANDEWORKERS
Why do you think the ownership of land became an increasing source of power for feudal lords?

4. ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES
In The Canterbury Tales, the English poet Geoffrey Chaucer tells a series of stories about characters from the Middle Ages. Read the following passage about a knight. Then answer the questions below it.

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
There was a knight, a most distinguished man, Who from the day on which he first began To ride abroad had followed chivalry, Truth, honor, generous, and courtesy. He had done nobly in sovereign’s war And ridden in battle, no man more, As well as Christian in heathen places And ever honored for his noble graces.

• How does Chaucer characterize the knight?
• What qualities of knighthood do you think are missing from Chaucer’s description? Use information from the text to support your answer.

CHAPTER ACTIVITIES

1. LIVING HISTORY: Unit Portfolio Projects

THME RELIGIOUS AND ETHICAL SYSTEMS Your unit portfolio project focuses on showing the influence of the Church during the Middle Ages. For Chapter 13, you might use one of the following ideas.

• Write a character sketch of a religious or historical figure described in this chapter.
• Create a poster titled “The Age of Faith” focusing on the role that the Church played in the daily lives of Europeans.
• Create a time line tracing the most important power plays between religious and political leaders during the Middle Ages. Refer to the text for ideas.

2. CONNECT TO TODAY: Cooperative Learning

THME POWER AND AUTHORITY Through warfare, knights helped feudal lords defend their estates, seize new territories, and gain more power. In mock battles called tournaments, knights developed their combat skills. Work with a team to design a video war game that imitates a medieval tournament between knights. Describe your ideas in a proposal that you might send to a video game company.

Use the Internet or books to find out more about medieval tournaments. Think about video games that are based on combat experiences. You might adapt some of the rules to your game. Use these questions to help you brainstorm ideas.

• What are the rules of the game?
• What is the system of keeping score of wins and losses?
• How should captured prisoners be treated?
• Which weapons should be used and which should be banned?

3. INTERPRETING A TIME LINE
Revisit the unit time line for Chapter 13 on pages 228–229. Which two important events in other parts of the world roughly coincide with the expansion of feudalism in western Europe? Give reasons to support your choices.

FOCUS ON ART

Chess was a popular game during the Middle Ages. The chess pieces portray important people from medieval society. Work with someone in class who plays chess to answer these questions:

• What element of medieval society do you think each chess piece represents?

CONNECT TO HISTORY
Why do you think that learning to play chess was an important part of a knight’s education?
Europe underwent important changes in the late Middle Ages. The Catholic Church faced challenges to its authority from increasingly powerful nations like France and England. At the same time, economic and social changes undermined the feudal system. The map to the right shows the kingdoms of Europe in the 14th century. Use the map to help you answer the questions.

1. What was the largest state in Western Europe at the time?
2. How might England’s geography have helped that nation create a strong, independent kingdom?
3. Why do you think Europe was divided into so many ruling states?

For more information about the formation of Western European nations . . .

CLASSZONE.COM

Joan of Arc helped to lead the French to victory over the English before her execution in 1431.

The bishop of Paris blesses the people while merchants prepare their booths for a fair in the 14th century.

910 Benedictine Abbey founded at Cluny, France.

987 Capetian dynasty begins in France.
Europe, 14th Century

- **1066**: Norman invasion of England
- **1095**: First Crusade begins.
- **1215**: King John approves Magna Carta.
- **1347**: Bubonic plague strikes Europe.
- **1453**: Hundred Years’ War ends with French victory.
You are a squire in training to be a knight in France. The knight you serve has decided to join a Crusade to capture the city of Jerusalem from the Muslims. The knight has given you the choice of accompanying him on his expedition to the Holy Land (the biblical region of Palestine) or staying home to look after his family and manor. You would also look after your parents, who do not wish you to go. 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. On an earlier Crusade, the knight and his friends plundered towns and manors. They acquired jewels and precious objects. But some were also imprisoned, held for ransom, robbed, and murdered.

Would you join the Crusade?

While the knight went off on the Crusade, someone needed to look after his property in his absence. This task often fell to the lady of the manor, who exercised her authority through servants.

EXAMINING the ISSUES

• What dangers might you face on the Crusade?
• What rewards, both material and personal, might come your way on the Crusade?
• What might be the advantages and disadvantages of staying home to defend the knight’s family and estate?
• What arguments would you make to your parents to persuade them to agree to your participation in the Crusade?

As a class, discuss these questions. In your discussion, remember what you’ve learned about other religious wars, sometimes called holy wars or crusades.

As you read about the Crusades in this chapter, see how events turned out for the Crusaders, especially the participants in the Children’s Crusade.
### Setting the Stage

Between A.D. 500 and A.D. 1000, Vikings attacked and looted Church monasteries. They destroyed many of these centers of learning. At that time, the Church suffered severe problems. Some priests could barely read their prayers. Some 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. However, over the next 300 years the Church and medieval life changed dramatically.

### Monastic Revival and Church Reform

Beginning in the 1000s, a spiritual revival spread across Europe. This revival was led by the monasteries. The reformers wanted to return to the basic principles of the Christian religion. New religious orders were founded. Influenced by the piety of 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.

#### Problems in the Church

Many problems troubled the Church at that time, but reformers were most distressed by three. First, many village priests married and had families. Such marriages were against Church rulings. Second, positions in the Church were sold by bishops, a practice called simony (SY-muh-nee). Third, the practice of lay investiture put kings in control of church bishops. Church reformers believed bishops should be appointed by the Church alone.

#### Reform Begins at Cluny

Reforms began quietly in 910 with the founding of a Benedictine monastery at Cluny (KLOO-nay) in France. The monks there strictly followed the Benedictine rule. Soon Cluny’s reputation for virtue inspired the founding of similar monasteries throughout western Europe. By the year 1000, there were 300 houses under Cluny’s leadership. In 1098, another order was founded, the Cistercian (sih-STUR-suhn) monks. The Cistercian life of hardship won many followers, helping to bring about further reforms.

The reform movement, begun at Cluny, influenced the papacy. Pope Leo IX, who took office in 1049, enforced Church laws against simony and the marriage of priests. Pope Gregory VII was elected pope in 1073. He had spent time at Cluny and was determined to purify the Church. Gregory extended the reforms begun by Leo.

#### Reform and Church Organization

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. This extended the power of the pope.

---

**Vocabulary**

- **piety**: religious devotion and reverence for God.

- **papacy**: the position or office of the pope.
The Church collected taxes in the form of tithes. These consumed one-tenth the yearly income from every Christian family. The Church performed social services such as caring for the sick and the poor. Most hospitals in medieval Europe were operated by the Church. By the early 1200s, popes had achieved remarkable success in their reforms. The practice of simony and the marriage of clergy both declined dramatically. The popes established their authority throughout Europe.

Preaching Friars 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.

The Dominicans, one of the earliest orders of friars, were founded by Dominic, a Spanish priest. Because Dominic emphasized the importance of study, many Dominicans were scholars. Another order of friars, the Franciscans, was founded by the Italian St. Francis of Assisi (uh-SEE-zee). The son of a rich merchant, Francis gave up his wealth and turned to preaching when he was about 20 years old. He placed much less importance on scholarship than did Dominic. Francis treated all creatures as if they were his spiritual brothers and sisters.

Religious Orders for Women Women as well as men participated in the spiritual revival. Women joined the Dominicans. In 1212, the Franciscan order for women, known as the Poor Clares, was founded by Clare and her friend Francis of Assisi. In Germany, Hildegard of Bingen, a mystic and musician, founded a Benedictine convent in 1147. Unlike the men, women were not allowed to travel from place to place as preachers. However, they too lived in poverty and worked to help the poor and sick.

Cathedrals—Cities of God

Although the friars chose to live in poverty, evidence of the Church’s wealth could be seen everywhere in the Middle Ages. This was especially true in the cathedrals that were built in Europe around this time.

A New Style of Church Architecture 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.

In the early 1100s, a new style of architecture, known as Gothic, evolved. The term Gothic comes from a Germanic tribe named the Goths. It describes the particular church architecture that spread throughout medieval Europe. Unlike the heavy, gloomy Romanesque buildings, Gothic cathedrals thrust upward as if reaching toward heaven. Light streamed in through huge stained-glass windows. Soon Gothic cathedrals were built in many towns of France. In Paris, the vaulted ceiling of the Cathedral of Notre Dame (NOH-truh DAHM) eventually rose to over 100 feet. Then Chartres, Reims, Amiens, and Beauvais built even higher cathedrals.

In all, nearly 500 Gothic churches were built between 1170 and 1270. Other arts of the medieval world clustered around the Gothic cathedral—sculpture, woodcarvings, and the stained-glass windows. The cathedral represented the City of God. As such, it was decorated with all the richness that people on earth could offer.
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. That letter was also read by Pope Urban II. The emperor asked for help against the Muslim Turks. They were threatening to conquer his capital, Constantinople:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

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

Shortly after this appeal, Pope Urban II issued a call for what he termed a “holy war,” a Crusade, to gain control of the Holy Land. Over the next 200 years a number of such
Crusades were launched. The goal of these military expeditions was to recover Jerusalem and the Holy Land from the Muslim Turks.

**Causes of the Crusading Spirit** The Crusades had both economic goals and religious motives. Pope Urban’s call brought a tremendous outpouring of religious feeling and support for the Crusade. This support came from great lords and humble peasants alike. In 1096, between 50,000 and 60,000 knights became Crusaders. With red crosses sewn on tunics worn over their armor and the battle cry of “God wills it!” on their lips, the Crusaders marched eastward. Few would return from the journey.

Kings and the Church 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 were younger sons who, unlike their oldest brother, did not stand to inherit their father’s property. They were looking for land and a position in society. Knights and commoners alike were fired by religious zeal. According to Pope Urban II, if the knights died on Crusade, they were assured of a place in heaven.

In later Crusades, merchants profited by making cash loans to finance the Crusade. They also leased their ships for a hefty fee to transport armies over the Mediterranean Sea. In addition, 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** By early 1097, three armies of knights and people of all classes had gathered outside Constantinople. Most of the Crusaders were French. But Germans, Englishmen, Scots, Italians, and Spaniards came as well.

The Crusaders were ill-prepared for their holy war in this First Crusade. They 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. Also, they had not set up adequate supply lines. Finally, however, an army of 12,000 (less than one-fourth the original army) approached Jerusalem. The Crusaders besieged the city for 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 400 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 Jerusalem itself had fallen to the Muslim leader Saladin (SAL-uh-dihn).

The Third and Fourth Crusades
The Third Crusade to recapture Jerusalem was led by three of Europe’s most powerful monarchs. These were the French king Philip Augustus, the German emperor Frederick I (Barbarossa), and the English king Richard the Lion-Hearted. Barbarossa drowned on the journey, and Philip Augustus argued with Richard and went home. Richard was left to regain the Holy Land from Saladin.

Both Richard and Saladin were ruthless fighters who respected each other. 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.

In 1198, the powerful Pope Innocent III appealed for still another Crusade to capture Jerusalem. The knights who took part in this Fourth Crusade became entangled in Italian and Byzantine politics. They ended up looting the city of Constantinople in 1204, ending the Fourth Crusade. There was a breach (a split) between the Church in the east, whose capital was Constantinople, and the Church in the west, whose capital was Rome. This breach, caused in part by the Crusaders’ actions, became permanent.

The Crusading Spirit Dwindles
In the 1200s, Crusades became increasingly common and unsuccessful. The religious spirit of the First Crusade faded, replaced by a search for personal gain.

The Later Crusades In several later Crusades, armies marched not to the Holy Land but to North Africa. The French king who led the last two Crusades, Louis IX, won wide respect in Europe. He was later declared a saint. None of these attempts conquered much land, however.
The Children’s Crusade took place in 1212. Thousands of children set out for the Holy Land. They were armed only with the belief that God would give them Jerusalem. On their march south to the Mediterranean, many died from cold and starvation. One group even turned back. The rest drowned at sea or were sold into slavery.

**The Crusades**

### Causes
- Muslims control Palestine (the Holy Land) and threaten Constantinople.
- Byzantine emperor calls for help.
- Pope wants to reclaim Palestine and reunite Christendom.
- Pope appeals to Christian knights.
- Knights feel religious zeal and want land, riches, and adventure.
- Italian cities desire commercial power.

### Effects
- Byzantine Empire is weakened.
- Pope’s power declines.
- Power of feudal nobles weakens.
- Kings become stronger.
- Religious intolerance grows.
- Italian cities expand trade and grow rich.
- Muslims increasingly distrust Christians.
- Trade grows between Europe and the Middle East.
- European technology improves as Crusaders learn from Muslims.

**A Spanish Crusade**

In Spain, Muslims (called Moors) had controlled most of the country until the 1100s. The Reconquista (ray-kawn-KEES-tuh) was a long effort to drive the Muslims out of Spain. By the late 1400s, the Muslims held only the tiny kingdom of Granada. In 1492, Granada fell to the Christian army of Ferdinand and Isabella, the Spanish monarchs.

Spain had a large Jewish population. Many achieved high positions in finance, government, and medicine. Many Jews (and Muslims) converted to Christianity during the late 1400s. To unify their country under Christianity and to consolidate their power, Isabella and Ferdinand made use of the Inquisition. This was a tribunal held by the Church to suppress heresy. Heretics were people whose religious beliefs differed from the teachings of the Church. The inquisitors suspected Jewish and Muslim converts of heresy. A person who was suspected of heresy might be questioned for weeks and even tortured. Once suspects confessed, they were often burned at the stake. Eventually, in 1492, the monarchs expelled all practicing Jews and Muslims from Spain.

**The Effects of the Crusades** The failure of later Crusades lessened the power of the pope. The Crusades weakened the feudal nobility. Thousands of knights lost their lives and fortunes.

On the positive side, the Crusades played a part in stimulating trade between Europe and Southwest Asia. The goods imported from Southwest Asia included spices, fruits, and cloth.

For Muslims, the Crusades also had both good and bad effects. 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 region after the fall of the Crusader states, relations with their Muslim masters worsened. However, European merchants who lived and traded in the Crusader states were encouraged to continue their trading after the collapse of the states. This trade with the West benefited both Christians and Muslims.

The Crusades grew from the forces of religious fervor, feudalism, and chivalry as they came together with explosive energy. This same energy could be seen in the growth of trade, towns, and universities in medieval Europe.
The Crusades

In the Crusades, both Christians and Muslims believed that God was on their side. They both felt justified in using violence to win or to keep the Holy Land. The following excerpts show their belief in God’s approval for their deeds. The quotation from Norman Cantor explains where this attitude has led.

**Speech**

Pope Urban II

In 1095, Pope Urban II gave one of the most influential speeches of history when he issued a plea that resulted in the First Crusade. The pope assured his listeners that God was on their side.

Let the holy sepulcher of our Lord and Saviour, which is possessed by the unclean nations, especially arouse you. . . . This royal city [Jerusalem], situated at the center of the earth, is now held captive by the enemies of Christ and is subjected, by those who do not know God, to the worship of the heathen. Accordingly, undertake this journey eagerly for the remission of your sins, with the assurance of the reward of imperishable glory in the kingdom of heaven.

**Historical Account**

William of Tyre

William of Tyre was a Christian bishop who drew upon eyewitness accounts of the capture of Jerusalem by the Crusaders in writing his account.

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.

**Historian’s Commentary**

Norman Cantor

Historian Norman Cantor explains the lasting legacy of the Crusades—even today when nation fights nation, each sincerely believes that God is on its side.

The most important legacy of the crusading movement was the sanctification [making holy] of violence in pursuit of [ideas]. This was not a new concept, but it took on new force when the pope and the flower of Christian chivalry acted it out in holy wars. The underlying concept outlived its religious origin, . . . and the state gradually replaced the Church as a holy cause.

**Letter**

Saladin

The German emperor Frederick I (Barbarossa) wrote the Muslim leader Saladin a letter threatening him if Saladin should attack Jerusalem. The following is an excerpt of Saladin’s reply, written after he had 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.
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 remarkable progress. Towns and cities grew. This was in part due to the growing population and territorial expansion of western Europe. The creativity unleashed during this age also 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 requires an increased food supply. Farming was helped by a warmer climate that lasted from about 800 to 1200. 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.

**Using Horsepower**  For hundreds of years, peasants depended on oxen to pull their plows. Oxen lived on the poorest straw and stubble. They were easy to keep, but they moved very slowly. Horses needed better food, but a team of horses could plow twice as much land in a day as a team of oxen.

Before they could use horses, however, people needed a new type of harness. Harnesses of the early Middle Ages went around the horse’s neck. They nearly strangled the animal when it pulled. Sometime before 900, farmers in Europe began using a new technology. This was a harness that fitted across the horse’s chest, taking pressure off its neck and windpipe. As a result, horses gradually replaced oxen for plowing and for pulling wagons.

**The Three-Field System**  At the same time, villagers began to organize their land differently. Under the old, two-field system, peasants divided the village’s land into two great fields. They planted one field with crops and left the other to lie fallow, or unplanted to avoid exhausting the soil, for a year. So if a village had 600 acres, each year farmers used 300 acres for raising food, leaving the other 300 acres fallow.

Around 800, some villages began to organize their land into three fields. With the same 600 acres, they used 200 acres for a winter crop of wheat or rye. In spring, they planted another 200 acres with oats, barley, peas, or beans. The remaining 200 acres lay fallow. 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. The food was also better for them, because peas, beans, and lentils are good sources of vegetable protein. The result was an increase in population. People could raise larger families. Well-fed people could better resist disease and live longer. With horses, a farmer plowed more land in a day. This meant that teams cleared forests for new fields. All over Europe, axes rang as the great forests began to fall.

**THINK THROUGH HISTORY**

A. Recognizing Effects  What were the main consequences of the three-field system?
Trade and Finance Expand

Just as agriculture was expanding, so were trade and finance. This was in part a response to population growth. By the 1000s, artisans and craftsmen were manufacturing goods by hand for local and long-distance trade. 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.

Fairs and Trade Most trade took place in towns. Peasants from nearby manors traveled to town on fair days, hauling items to trade. Cloth was the most common trade item. Other items included bacon, salt, honey, cheese, wine, leather, dyes, knives, and ropes. Such local fairs met all the needs of daily life for a small community. No longer was everything produced on a self-sufficient manor.

The Guilds Great fairs were made possible by the guilds, which controlled the crafts and trade. A guild was an association of people who worked at the same occupation. It was similar to a union today. In medieval towns, guilds controlled all wages and prices in their craft. Each guild usually met in its own guild hall. The first guilds were formed by merchants who controlled all the trade in their town.

As towns grew, skilled artisans—such as wheelwrights, glassmakers, winemakers, tailors, and druggists—began craft guilds. Guilds enforced standards of quality. Bakers, for example, were required to sell loaves of bread of a standard size and weight and at a fair price.

Only masters of the trade could be guild members. Becoming a master wasn’t easy. First a child was apprenticed for five to nine years to a master to learn the trade. Then the apprentice became a journeyman and could go to work for wages. As the final step, a journeyman made an item—whether it was a shoe, a barrel, or a sword—that qualified as a “master piece.” Journeymen whose product met guild standards were welcomed into the guild as masters.

A Financial Revolution This medieval world of fairs and guilds created a need for large amounts of cash. Before a merchant could make a profit selling his goods at a fair, he first had to purchase goods from distant places. Usually, this meant he had to borrow money, but the Church forbade Christians from lending money at interest, a sin called usury. Where, then, did merchants go for a loan?

Many of Europe’s Jews lived in the growing towns and were moneylenders. Moneylending was one of the few ways of making a living allowed them. In this largely Christian world, Jews were kept on the fringes of society. Guilds excluded them. They had to live in segregated parts of towns called ghettos. Because Jews were forbidden to hold land, they had never become part of the feudal system. Over time, the Church relaxed its rule on usury. Banking became an important business, especially in Italy.

Urban Splendor Reborn

All over Europe, trade blossomed, and better farming methods caused a spurt of population growth. 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 primitive 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. Nevertheless, these small communities became a powerful force for change.

Background

Great fairs were held several times a year, usually during religious festivals, when many people would be in town. People could visit the stalls set up by merchants from all parts of Europe.

Background

In most crafts, both husbands and wives worked at the family trade. In some guilds, especially for clothmaking, women formed the majority.

THINK THROUGH HISTORY

B. Recognizing Effects How did the exclusion of Jews from many aspects of life in medieval Europe affect their ways of earning a living?

Daily Life

Surnames

Many people can trace their last names, or surnames, back to a medieval occupation. For example, a man who made thatched roofs for cottages became Thatcher.

The name Smith refers to a man who “smites,” or works, metal. There is also Brownsmith, one who works copper; Goldsmith, one who works gold; and Silversmith, one who works silver.

Someone who made things out of wood might be surnamed Carpenter. Someone who made or repaired wooden barrels might be called Cooper.

Place names also became surnames, such as Holland and Welsh (a person from Wales). Sometimes, a person new to the area simply received the surname Newman. Surnames can also derive from family relationships, as does Williamson.
Trade and Towns Grow Together  By the later Middle Ages, trade was the very lifeblood of the new towns, which sprang up at ports, at crossroads, on hilltops, and along rivers. All over Europe, as trade grew, towns swelled with people. The excitement and bustle of towns drew many people. They were no longer content with their old feudal existence. Even though they were legally bound to their lord’s manor, many serfs ran away. As people left life on the manor for life in towns, they challenged the traditional ways of feudal society in which everyone had his place. They did not return to the manor, and towns grew rapidly.

Most medieval towns developed haphazardly. Streets were narrow, filled with horses, pigs, oxen, and their refuse. With no sewers, most people dumped household waste, both animal and human, 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. All in all, there were many drawbacks to living in a medieval town. Nonetheless, many people chose to move to such towns to pursue the economic and social opportunities they offered.

Town and the Social Order  So many serfs had left the manors by the 1100s that according to custom, a serf could now become free by living within a town for a year and a day. As the saying went, “Town air makes you free.” Many of these runaway serfs, now free people, made better lives for themselves in towns.

The merchants and craftsmen 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 burghers, or town dwellers, resented this interference in their trade and commerce. They organized themselves and demanded privileges. These included freedom from certain kinds of tolls or the right to govern the town. At times they fought against their landlords and won these rights by force.

The Revival of Learning  Growing trade and growing cities brought a new interest in learning. At the center of the growth of learning stood a new European institution—the university. Athens, Alexandria, Rome, and Constantinople had all been centers of learning, but never before had the world seen the university as it arose in western Europe.

Scholars and Writers  The word university originally designated a group of scholars meeting wherever they could. People, not buildings, made up the medieval university. Universities arose at Paris and at Bologna, Italy, by the end of the 1100s. Others followed at the English town of Oxford and at Salerno, Italy. Most students were the sons of burghers 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 5 to 7 years in school; becoming a master of theology took at least 12 years of study.

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 (1321) in Italian. Geoffrey Chaucer wrote The Canterbury Tales (about 1387–1400) in English. Christine de Pisan wrote The City of Ladies (1405) in French. Since most people couldn’t read or understand Latin, these writers brought literature to
many people. For example, Chaucer’s *Canterbury Tales* describes a pilgrimage to the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket. It was read aloud at gatherings:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**

It happened in that season that one day
In Southwark, at The Tabard, as I lay
Ready to go on pilgrimage and start
For Canterbury, most devout at heart,
At night there came into that hostelry
Some nine and twenty in a company
Of sundry folk happening then to fall
In fellowship, and they were pilgrims all
That towards Canterbury meant to ride.

GEORGE CHAUCER, the Prologue to The Canterbury Tales, translated by Nevill Coghill

The Muslim Connection The revival of learning sparked European interest in the works of ancient scholars. At the same time, the growth of trade was accelerated by the Crusades. This brought Europeans into contact with Muslims and Byzantines. These people had preserved in their libraries the writings of the old Greek philosophers. In the 1100s, Christian scholars from Europe began visiting Muslim libraries in Spain. Few Western scholars knew Greek. Jewish scholars translated Arabic versions of works by Aristotle and other Greek writers into Latin. At last, Europeans acquired a huge new body of knowledge. This included science, philosophy, law, mathematics, and other fields. In addition, the Crusaders learned from, and brought back to Europe, superior Muslim technology in ships, navigation, and weapons.

Aquinas and Medieval Philosophy Christian scholars were excited by the Greek writings. Could a Christian scholar use Aristotle’s logical approach to truth and still keep faith with the Bible? In the mid-1200s, the scholar Thomas Aquinas (uh-KWY-nus) argued that the most basic religious truths could be proved by logical argument. Between 1267 and 1273, Aquinas wrote the *Summa Theologica*. 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.

**Arab Scholars**

A number of Islamic scholars had a great influence on European thought. The woodcut from 1584 above shows Ibn Sina, known in the West as Avicenna. He was a Persian philosopher, astronomer, poet, and physician. A book of his that greatly affected Western thought was *The Cure*, an interpretation of the philosophy of Aristotle. This work, translated into Latin, influenced the scholastics.

Another scholar was Ibn Rushd, known in the West as Averroes, who lived in Córdoba, Spain. He achieved fame for his commentaries on the works of Aristotle. These works were translated from Arabic into Latin and were used in universities throughout Christian Europe in the 1200s. Ibn Rushd’s work greatly influenced Western thinkers.
England and France Develop

**MAIN 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.

### TERMS & NAMES
- William the Conqueror
- Henry II
- Eleanor of Aquitaine
- Magna Carta
- parliament
- Philip II
- Louis IX

### 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 rise of the burghers, the growth of towns and villages, and the breakup of the feudal system were leading to changes in government and the development of nations.

### England Absorbs Waves of Invaders

For centuries, invaders from various regions in Europe landed on English shores. Many of them stayed, bringing their own ways and changing English 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, 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 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 the Anglo-Saxon Alfred the Great, took the throne. Edward died in January 1066 without an heir. A great struggle for the throne erupted, and that led to one last invasion.

**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. 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 was ambitious, tough, and an imposing figure. An anonymous monk of the time described him:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**
[William was] great in body and strong, tall in stature but not ungainly. He was also temperate in eating and drinking. . . . In speech he was fluent and persuasive, being skilled at all times in making clear his will. If his voice was harsh, what he said was always suited to the occasion. . . .

**ANONYMOUS MONK OF CAEN**

William’s rival was Harold Godwinson, the Anglo-Saxon who claimed the throne. And he was equally ambitious. On October 14, 1066, Normans and Saxons fought the battle that changed the course of English history—the Battle of Hastings. After Harold was killed by an arrow in his eye, the Normans won a decisive victory.
After his victory, William declared all England his personal property. The English lords who supported Harold lost their lands. William then granted fiefs to about 200 Norman lords who swore oaths of loyalty to him personally. In this way he laid the foundation for centralized government.

**England’s Evolving Government**

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**. She brought with her more lands from France. Over the next centuries English kings tried to achieve two goals. First, they wanted to hold and add on to their French lands. Second, they wanted to strengthen their own power over the nobles and the Church.

**Monarchs, Nobles, and the Common Law**

Eleanor of Aquitaine was one of the most remarkable women in history. She was wife to two kings and mother to two kings. She married Louis VII of France when the Second Crusade began. In 1147, she accompanied him to the Holy Land. Shortly afterward their marriage was annulled. Eleanor then married Henry Plantagenet, who was to become Henry II of England. Their marriage produced four sons. Two became English kings—Richard the Lion-Hearted and John. The marriage also 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.

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 loyal people—who 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 these 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. This loss forced a confrontation with his own nobles.

Some of John’s problems stemmed from his own character. He was mean to his subjects and tried to squeeze money out of them. 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 resulted from Edward I's struggles to hang onto his last remaining French lands. In 1295, Edward needed to raise taxes for a war against the French. 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 non-nobles, 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, however, Parliament became strong. Like the Magna Carta, it provided a check on royal power.

Capetian Dynasty Rules France

The kings of France, like those of England, looked for ways of increasing 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 30 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 200 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 seized 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 Augustus 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 collect the king's taxes.
Philip II’s Heirs  France’s central government was made 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 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.

In France, the Church leaders were known as the First Estate, and the great lords as the Second Estate. The commoners that 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 be the key to overthrowing the French monarchy. Now, in the 14th century, there was much turmoil. This included religious disputes, plague, and war. This disorder threatened the fragile achievements of England and France in beginning to establish a democratic tradition.
A Century of Turmoil

Setting the Stage At the turn of the century between the 1200s and 1300s, church and state seemed in good shape, but trouble was brewing. The Church seemed to be thriving. Ideals of fuller political representation seemed to be developing in France and England. However, the 1300s were filled with disasters, both natural and manmade. 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 papacy seemed in some ways still strong. Soon, however, both pope and Church were in desperate trouble.

Pope and King Collide The pope in 1300 was an able but stubborn Italian. 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 a papal bull (an official document issued by the pope). It stated, “We declare, state, and define that subjection to the Roman Pontiff is absolutely necessary for the salvation of every human creature.” In short, kings must always obey popes. Philip merely sneered at this bull. 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, in September 1303 Philip had him held prisoner. 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 While Philip IV failed to keep Pope Boniface captive, in 1305 he persuaded the College of Cardinals to choose a French archbishop as the new pope. Clement V, the selected pope, shortly moved from Rome to the city of Avignon (av•vee-NYAWN) in France. Popes would live there for the next 67 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 French cardinals to elect another pope a few months later. They chose Robert of Geneva, who spoke French. He took the name Clement VII.

Vocabulary

Pontiff: the pope.

TERMS & NAMES

- Avignon
- Great Schism
- John Wycliffe
- Jan Hus
- bubonic plague
- Hundred Years’ War
- Joan of Arc

MAIN IDEA

During the 1300s, Europe was torn apart by religious strife, 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.

Background

People outside France concluded that the Avignon popes were pawns of the French kings. They believed that the Church was held captive in Avignon just as, centuries before, the Jews had been held captive in Babylon. This period in Church history came to be called the Babylonian Captivity.
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.

The Council of Constance had as its major task to end the Great Schism by choosing a new pope. In 1414, when the Council of Constance began its meetings, 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, ending the Great Schism.

**A Scholarly Challenge to Church Authority**

The papacy was further challenged in the late 1300s and early 1400s by two professors. One was 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. The pope himself, as Wycliffe noted, lived in shameful luxury, serving dinner on gold and silver plates to guests dressed in costly furs. 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, which at the time was available only in French or Latin. Wycliffe’s radical ideas were discussed widely throughout England. 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, the German emperor Sigismund arranged the Council of Constance. He urged Hus to attend and even gave him safe conduct. When Hus arrived at the meeting, however, he was seized and tried as a heretic, then burned at the stake in 1415.

**The Bubonic Plague Strikes**

Artists of the 1300s depicted death as the Grim Reaper, a skeleton on horseback whose scythe cut people down. The image is appropriate—approximately one-third of the population of Europe died of the deadly disease known as the **bubonic plague**.

**Origins and Symptoms of the Plague**

The plague began in Asia. Traveling the trade lanes, it infected most of Asia and the Muslim world. Inevitably it reached Europe. In 1347, a fleet of Genoese merchant ships arrived in Sicily carrying a dread cargo. This was the disease that became known as the Black Death. It got the name because of the purplish or blackish spots it produced on the skin. The disease swept through Italy. From there it followed trade routes to France, Germany, England, and other parts of Europe.

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:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**

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
The Bubonic Plague

The bubonic 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 towns in Southwest Asia, and then decimated a third of the European population.

Symptoms

- 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

Patterns of Interaction

The bubonic plague was just one of the several lethal diseases that have swept from one society to another throughout history. Such diseases as smallpox and influenza have wiped out huge numbers of people, sometimes—as with the Aztecs—virtually destroying civilizations. The spread of disease has been a physical and very tragic result of cultures’ interacting with one another across place and time.

We see death coming into our midst like black smoke…
—Welsh poet Ieuan Gethin in 1349

Hypothesizing

Had people known the cause of the bubonic plague, what might they have done to slow its spread?

Connect to Today

Comparing

What diseases of today might be compared to the bubonic plague? Why?
Frightened people looked around for a scapegoat. They found one in the Jews, who were blamed for bringing on the plague by poisoning the wells. All over Europe, Jews were driven from their homes or, worse, massacred.

The bubonic plague took about four years to reach almost every corner of Europe. In any given community, approximately three-quarters of those who caught the disease died. Before the bubonic plague ran its course, it killed almost 25 million Europeans and many more millions in Asia and North Africa.

Effects of the Plague 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.

The economic effects of the plague were enormous. Town populations fell. Trade declined. Prices rose. Fewer people meant that workers were scarce everywhere. Farmland was abandoned or used to pasture sheep, which required less labor. Serfs had often been unpaid or poorly paid for their labor. They left the manor in search of better wages. The old manorial system began to crumble. Nobles fiercely resisted peasant demands for higher wages, causing peasant revolts in England, France, Italy, and Belgium.

The Church suffered a loss of prestige when its prayers and penances failed to stop the onslaught of the bubonic plague. In addition, many clergy deserted their flocks or charged high fees to perform services for the dying.

Many people who saw how abruptly life could end became pessimistic about life itself, fearing the future. As one poet of the time wrote, “Happy is he who has no children.” Art and literature of the time reflect an unusual awareness of death. On the other hand, many people became occupied with pleasure and self-indulgence. They displayed the attitude of “Eat, drink, and be merry, for tomorrow you may die.”

The bubonic 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.

The Hundred Years’ War

When the last Capetian king died without a successor, England’s Edward III claimed the right to the French throne as grandson of Philip IV. 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 and added to the century’s miseries. The war was a seesaw affair, fought on French soil. 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 Battle of Crécy While the French eventually won the war, the English won three important battles in France. The first and most spectacular was the Battle of Crécy (KREHs-see). Some of the combatants were still operating under medieval ideals of chivalry. They were anxious to perform noble deeds in war. They looked with contempt on the common foot soldiers and archers who fought alongside them. However, in the Battle of Crécy, it was the English archers who won the day.
English and French forces met near the town of Crécy on August 26, 1346. English men-at-arms and their longbowmen were outnumbered by a French army three times its size, including armored knights and a force of archers with crossbows. Mounted on warhorses and protected by heavy armor, French knights believed themselves invincible and attacked.

Meanwhile, English longbowmen let fly thousands of arrows at the oncoming French. The crossbowmen, out of range and peppered with English arrows, retreated in panic. A French noble, seeing the crossbowmen fleeing, shouted, “Slay these rascals who get in our way!” 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.

**Poitiers and Agincourt** The English repeated their victory ten years later at the Battle of Poitiers (pwah•TYAY). Near the town of Poitiers, France, the French believed they had caught the English at a disadvantage. When the overconfident knights charged on foot, English longbowmen greeted them with volleys of arrows so thick that the air grew dark. French knights were helpless. The French king John and his son Philip were captured and held for ransom.

The third English victory, the Battle of Agincourt (AJ•ihn•kawrt), took place in 1415. Again the English army was outnumbered, with their 6,000 troops against a French force of 20,000 to 30,000. Led by King Henry V, English archers again won a victory over the heavily armored French knights. The success of the longbow in these battles spelled doom for chivalric warfare. The mounted, heavily armored medieval knight was soon to become extinct.

**Joan of Arc** Five years after Agincourt, the French and English signed a treaty stating that Henry V would inherit the French crown at the death of the French king Charles VI. The French had lost hope. Then, in 1429, a teenage French peasant girl named Joan of Arc felt moved by God to rescue France from its English conquerors. She believed that heavenly voices spoke to her. They told her to drive the English out of France and give the French crown to France’s true king, Charles VI’s son.

Joan convinced Charles that she was sincere. On May 7, 1429, Joan led the French army into battle against an English fort that blocked the roads to Orléans. The English had been besieging the city for over six months. Without help, the city’s
defenders could not hold out much longer. The English forts had to be taken in order to lift the siege. It was a hard-fought battle for both sides, and the French finally retreated in despair. But 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. Joan helped turn the tide for France. In 1430, she was captured in battle by the Burgundians, England’s allies. 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 tied to a stake and burned to death on May 30, 1431.

The Impact of the Hundred Years’ War  The long, exhausting war finally ended in 1453, with the English left with only the French port of Calais. For France, the war—despite its terrible costs in lives, property, and money—ultimately raised the power and prestige of the French monarch. Nonetheless, it took a long time for some regions in France to recover.

The war gave birth in both countries to a feeling of nationalism. No longer did people think of the king as simply a feudal lord, but as a national leader fighting for the glory of the country.

Following the Hundred Years’ War, the English suffered a period of internal turmoil known as the War of the Roses, in which two noble houses fought for the throne. Nevertheless, this war was responsible for strengthening the English Parliament. Edward III’s constant need for money to finance the war led him to call Parliament as many as 27 times, asking for new taxes. Gradually, Parliament’s “power of the purse” became firmly established, sowing another seed of democracy.

The end of the Hundred Years’ War in 1453 is considered by some historians as the end of the Middle Ages. The twin pillars of the medieval world—intense 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.
Chapter 14 Assessment

TERMS & NAMES
Briefly explain the importance of each of the following to western Europe during the medieval period.

1. Crusade
2. Reconquista
3. Inquisition
4. three-field system
5. scholastics
6. Magna Carta
7. parliament
8. Great Schism
9. bubonic plague
10. Hundred Years’ War

REVIEW QUESTIONS

SECTION 1 (pages 341–346)
Church Reform and the Crusades

11. What were the three main abuses that most distressed Church reformers? Explain the problem with each.
12. What was the main goal of the Crusades?

SECTION 2 (pages 348–351)
Trade, Towns, and Financial Revolution

13. Name a short-term and a longer-term effect of the switch to the three-field system.
14. How did the growth of towns hurt the feudal system?
15. What role did Jews and Muslims play in Christian Europe’s financial revolution?

SECTION 3 (pages 352–355)
England and France Develop

16. How did William the Conqueror extend his rule over all of England after the Battle of Hastings?
17. What circumstances led King John to accept the Magna Carta?

SECTION 4 (pages 356–361)
A Century of Turmoil

18. Summarize the main ideas of John Wycliffe.
19. Why did the bubonic plague cause people to turn away from the Church?
20. How did the Hundred Years’ War end European armies’ reliance on mounted knights?

Visual Summary

The Church
The great Gothic cathedrals that soared heavenward were symbols of the Church’s power. Yet this power did not go unchallenged. For decades, kings and popes engaged in power struggles.

The Bubonic Plague
The bubonic plague killed millions and weakened the manorial economy.

Learning
Europe’s first universities developed in the Middle Ages. Interest in learning grew in part as a result of the rediscovery of ancient Greek writings.

Crusades
Although the First Crusade captured Jerusalem, later Crusades accomplished little.

Farming
Better farming methods—such as the three-field system and the use of horses—made it possible for farmers to grow more food. This brought a population increase in the Middle Ages.

Trade and Towns
As people moved from farms into towns, trade expanded, and guilds formed for both merchants and artisans.

Government
England and France developed strong central governments in which arose the first stirrings of democracy in medieval Europe. This can be seen in Parliament and the Estates-General.

Hundred Years’ War
The Hundred Years’ War further weakened feudal power. The longbow doomed armored knights.
CHAPTER ACTIVITIES

1. LIVING HISTORY: Unit Portfolio Project
   **THEME RELIGIOUS AND ETHICAL SYSTEMS** Your unit portfolio project focuses on how religion affected life during the Middle Ages (see page 229). For Chapter 14, you might add one of the following ideas.
   - Prepare the script for a newscast announcing the capture of Jerusalem by Crusaders and its impact on Christians and Muslims.
   - Draw a cartoon about the clash between King Philip IV and Pope Boniface VIII. Try to show the conflict between religious and secular leaders.

2. CONNECT TO TODAY: Cooperative Learning
   **THEME ECONOMICS** The bubonic plague and the Hundred Years’ War both had a major impact on the economy of medieval Europe. During the plague, populations fell, trade declined, prices rose, farmland was abandoned, and workers demanded higher wages. Today, disease, natural catastrophes, and war still have a great impact on an economy. Work with a team to research and present the effect of war, disease, or natural catastrophe on a country’s economy.
   - Use the Internet, magazines, or books to research the topic. You might choose a war such as the U.S. Civil War, World War II, or the Vietnam War. You might choose a disease such as heart disease or cancer. You might choose a natural disaster such as a hurricane or flood.
   - As part of your presentation, make a graph that shows statistical information about the impact of the event you have chosen on the economy.
   - Compare your team’s event with those of other teams to determine their relative economic impacts.

3. INTERPRETING A TIME LINE
   Revisit the unit time line on pages 228–229. Which events during the medieval period in Europe were triggered by a struggle for individual power?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. EDUCATION AFTER THE CRUSADES
   **THEME CULTURAL INTERACTION** How might life have been different for Europeans if Muslims had not shared their knowledge and skills?

2. THE GREAT SCHISM
   Using a problem-solution outline like the one below, summarize the Great Schism. Describe the problem, identify at least two attempted solutions, and note how the Church finally solved the problem.
   ![Problem-Solution Outline]

3. JOAN OF ARC AND THE 15TH CENTURY
   How does Joan of Arc’s story reflect the violence and pessimism of the early 1400s?

4. ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES
   In 1295, Edward I of England sent letters such as the following to sheriffs throughout the land, announcing a meeting of Parliament. Read the letter and answer the questions below it.

   **A VOICE FROM THE PAST**
   The king to the sheriff of Northampton, greeting. Whereas we wish to have a conference and discussion with the earls, barons, and other nobles of our realm concerning the provision of remedies for the dangers that in these days threaten the same kingdom . . . we command and firmly enjoin you that without delay you cause two knights, of the more discreet and more capable of labor, to be elected from the aforesaid county, and two citizens from each city of the aforesaid county, and two burgesses from each borough, and that you have them come to us . . . to do whatever in the aforesaid matters may be ordained by common counsel.

   - Why is the king calling a meeting of Parliament?
   - Who will represent the cities and boroughs, and how will they be chosen?

**FOCUS ON ART**

The painting below shows Richard the Lion-Hearted (left) unhorsing Saladin during the Third Crusade. In fact the two men never met in personal combat. Notice the way the two leaders are depicted.

   - What elements suggest that Richard is the hero of this painting?
   - What elements suggest that Saladin is the villain?

Connect to History What evidence of the artist’s bias is there in this painting about the confrontation between Islam and Christianity?