

## Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

### Chapter 10, Section 1



**Did You Know?** A serf required the permission of his lord to change his occupation or dispose of his property. A serf could become a freedman only through formal emancipation or escape.

#### I. The New Agriculture (pages 315–317)

- A. The number of people almost doubled in Europe between 1000 and 1300, from 38 to 74 million people. One reason is that increased stability and peace enabled food production to rise dramatically.
- B. Food production increased also because a climate change improved growing conditions and more land was cleared for cultivation. Europe had more farmland in 1200 than it does today.
- C. Technological changes also aided farming. Water and wind power began to do jobs once done by humans or animals. Also, iron was used to make scythes, axes, hoes, saws, hammers, and nails. Most importantly iron was used to make the *carruca*, a heavy, wheeled plow with an iron plowshare pulled by animal teams. A new horse collar, that distributed the weight throughout the horse's shoulders, and the horseshoe allowed horses to replace the slow oxen to pull the extremely heavy *carruca*.
- D. Using this heavy-wheeled plow led to the growth of farming villages. The plow was so expensive that communities bought one plow. People also shared animals. The shift from a two-field to a three-field system of crop rotation also increased food production. Earlier, peasants had one part of their field lie fallow and the other was cultivated. Now, one part of the field was planted in the fall with grains for a summer harvest, a second part was planted in spring with different grains for a fall harvest, and the third would lie fallow. Only one-third of the land now was not being used, and the rotation kept the soil from being exhausted so quickly.

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#### Discussion Question

Why does crop rotation enrich a field's soil? (*Using different crops and letting fields lie fallow allow the soil's nutrients to be replenished or not be used up so fast.*)

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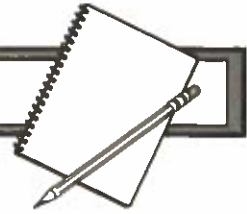
#### II. The Manorial System (pages 317–318)

- A. Medieval landholding nobles were a military elite who needed the leisure to pursue the arts of war. Peasants worked the lords' landed estates on the fiefs of the vassals. These estates provided the needed economic support for the nobles.



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- B.** These agricultural estates were called **manors**. Increasing numbers of free peasants became **serfs**—peasants legally bound to the land. Serfs worked the lord's land, helped maintain the estate, paid rent, and were under the lord's control. By 800 probably 60 percent of western Europeans were serfs.
- C.** Up to one-half of a manor's lands typically belonged to the lord. Serfs raised food for themselves on the remainder. Serfs paid rent by giving a share of what they raised for themselves. They also paid to use the lord's pastures and fishing ponds, and paid for services **like having their grain milled into flour**. The serfs were obligated to tithe to the village church.
- D.** Lords had a variety of legal rights over their serfs. Serfs needed the lord's permission to marry anyone outside of the manor and to leave the manor. Often lords had the right to try peasants in their own courts.
- E.** Serfs, however, were not slaves. Usually, a serf's land could not be taken away, and serfs' responsibilities were fixed. The lord was obligated to protect his serfs.

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#### Discussion Question

Compare the feudal manor to the plantation of the antebellum South in the United States. (*Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. Students should back up their answers with specifics about the lives of the lords and the plantation owners, on the one hand, and the serfs and the slaves, on the other hand.*)

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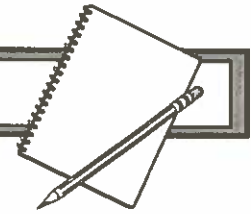
### III. Daily Life of the Peasantry (pages 318–319)

- A.** European peasant life was simple with little privacy. The peasants' one- or two-room cottages were built with wood frames surrounded by sticks. Spaces between the sticks were filled with straw and rubble, and then plastered over with clay. Roofs were thatched. A central hearth was used for heating and cooking. There were few windows and no chimney. Smoke escaped out cracks and through the thatch.
- B.** The peasant's diet was adequate. The staple was bread baked in community ovens. The dark, heavy bread was nutritious because it contained wheat, rye, barley, millet, and oats. Peasants usually ate meat only on feast days such as Easter and Christmas. Peasants raised vegetables and fruit, and made cheese. Chickens gave eggs.
- C.** Grains were important also for making ale, the most common drink of the poor in northern Europe. Medieval Europeans consumed great quantities of alcohol, which may account for the large number of accidental deaths found in court records.



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- D. The seasons largely determined peasant life and work. Harvest time, August and September, was especially hectic. In October peasants prepared the ground for winter planting. November brought the slaughtering of excess animals because usually there was not enough food to keep them alive all winter. Meat was preserved with salt. February and March brought plowing for spring planting. Summer was a time for lighter work on the estates.
- E. A peasant's life was not all labor because of the numerous Catholic feast days, or holidays. The three great feasts were Christmas, Easter, and Pentecost. Other feast days were dedicated to saints or the Virgin Mary. More than 50 days a year were essentially holidays.
- F. The village church was a crucial part of the manorial system. The priests taught the basic Christian ideas to enable peasants to achieve salvation. However, most priests were peasants who could not read, so just how well the Christian message was communicated to the serfs is not known. Probably they saw God as a force to be appeased to help with the harvest.
- G. Women had a difficult but important role in manorial life. They worked the fields and had children. Their ability to manage the household could determine if the family survived hard times.

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#### Discussion Question

What do you think is the most fundamental difference between life for the medieval peasant and life for the small farmer in the United States? What is the same? (*Answers will vary. Two good differences concern the lack of privacy in the medieval peasant cottage and the lack of meat in the medieval diet. A good similarity is how in both cases people are beholden to the seasons.*)

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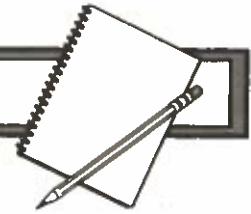
#### IV. The Revival of Trade (pages 319–320)

- A. In the eleventh and twelfth centuries, a revival of trade and the associated growth of towns and cities changed the economic foundation of Europe from being almost exclusively agricultural.
- B. Italian cities took the lead. Venice developed a mercantile fleet and became a major trading center by the end of the tenth century. The Italian cities traded mainly in the Mediterranean area.
- C. The towns of Flanders—the area along the coast of present-day Belgium and northern France—traded in northern Europe. These were most known for woolen cloth. Flemish towns like Bruges and Ghent became centers for the trade and manufacture of this cloth.



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- D. To encourage exchange between Flanders and Italy, the counts of Champagne in northern France held six trade fairs a year. Northern merchants exchanged furs, woolen cloth, tin, and honey for the cloth and swords of northern Italy and the silks, sugar, and spices from the East.
- E. Demand for gold and silver arose at trading fairs and markets. A **money economy**—an economic system based on money, rather than barter—arose. Trading companies and banks began to manage the exchange and sale of goods. These new practices were part of the rise of **commercial capitalism**—an economic system in which people invested in trade and goods to make profits.

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#### Discussion Question

What are the advantages of a money economy over a barter economy? (*The chief advantage is that to barter one must find a person who has what you want and wants what you have, which is quite economically inefficient.*)

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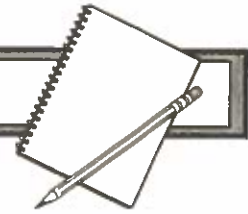
#### V. The Growth of Cities (pages 320–321)

- A. Expanding trades led to a revival of cities. Merchants began to settle in the old Roman cities. Artisans followed. They brought skills to make goods that merchants could sell.
- B. New cities and towns were founded, especially in northern Europe. Typically, a group of merchants built a settlement near a castle for the trade and the lord's protection. If the settlement prospered, walls were built to protect it. The merchants and artisans of these cities later came to be called burghers or **bourgeoisie**, from the German word *burg*, which means "a walled enclosure."
- C. Medieval cities were comparatively small. A large trading city would have only about five thousand inhabitants. In 1200 London had only thirty thousand people. The large Italian cities had about one hundred thousand inhabitants. Constantinople and the major Arab cities were much larger, however.
- D. The towns were tied to the lords and land around them. Lords wanted to treat the townspeople as vassals or serfs, but the inhabitants saw things differently. By 1100 townspeople had the right to buy and sell property, freedom from military service to the lord, and laws guaranteeing their freedom.
- E. Some towns had the right to govern themselves. Over time the cities developed their own governments. Only males born in the city or who had lived there a long time were citizens. These often elected a city council, who served as judges and local legislators. Elections were carefully rigged to make sure only the **patricians**, members of the wealthiest and most powerful families, won.



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#### Discussion Question

Why do you think elections were rigged to elect the patricians? (*The elections were rigged so that the interests of the wealthy and powerful were protected.*)

#### VI. Daily Life in the Medieval City (pages 321–322)

- A. Medieval towns were surrounded by stone walls, which were expensive. Therefore, the space inside was filled tightly. Thus, houses were close to each other, and the streets were narrow.
- B. Fire was a great danger because houses were wooden up to the fourteenth century. It was also a constant threat because candles and wood fires were used for light and heat. Once a fire started, putting it out was difficult.
- C. The physical environment of the towns was unpleasant. The cities and towns were dirty and smelled of human and animal waste. Air pollution from the ubiquitous wood fires was a problem. Blood from slaughtered animals and chemicals from such activities as tanning went into the rivers. Cities relied on wells for drinking water.
- D. Medieval cities had private and public baths. The great plague and pressure because of the nudity permitted in the baths closed them in the fourteenth century.
- E. There were many more men than women in medieval cities. Women could lead quite independent lives even though they were expected to fulfill the usual roles of taking care of the house and raising children. They could lead fairly independent lives because they helped their husbands at their trades and sometimes carried on his trade after his death.

#### Discussion Question

What would bother you most about living in a medieval town or city? (*Answers will vary. Accept any relevant, thoughtful answer. Make sure students are specific.*)

#### VII. Industry and Guilds (page 322)

- A. Medieval cities became important manufacturing centers for such goods as cloth, metalwork, shoes, and leather goods. Beginning in the twelfth century, craftspeople organized into business associations called **guilds**. They played a leading role in urban economic life. Almost every craft had a guild, as did some kinds of merchants.
- B. Craft guilds directed almost every aspect of the production process. They set quality standards, specified methods of production, and fixed the prices for the finished products. Guilds determined how many people could enter a guild and the procedure for entering.



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- C. A person who wanted to learn a trade first became an **apprentice** to a master craftsman at around age 10. Apprentices received room and board, but no pay. After learning for five to seven years, apprentices became **journeymen**. They worked for wages for other masters. To become a master, the journeymen had to produce a **masterpiece**, a finished product in their craft. The journeyman was admitted to the guild or not based on this work.

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#### Discussion Question

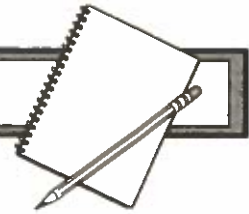
What contemporary institution resembles the medieval guild in some ways? *(The contemporary union bears a resemblance to the medieval guild. Unions look out for the interests of workers, and many unions have apprenticeship programs.)*

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## Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

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**Did You Know?** The term *heresy* comes from the Greek word *hairesis*, which simply signified holding a particular set of philosophical opinions. The term *heresy* took on a negative meaning in Christianity. According to the Catholic Church, a person is guilty of a material but not formal heresy if he or she does not know that he or she is denying a doctrine of the Church.

#### I. The Papal Monarchy (pages 323–325)

- A. The papal control of the **Papal States** in central Italy kept the popes involved in politics, often at the expense of their spiritual duties. The Church became increasingly involved in the feudal system. Bishops and abbots came to hold their offices as grants from nobles, and so were vassals. These bishops and abbots often cared little about spiritual duties.
- B. By the eleventh century Church leaders realized the need to be free from the interference of lords in the appointment of Church officials. **Pope Gregory VII** decided to fight the practice of **lay investiture**.
- C. When an individual became a Church official he was given a ring and a staff as symbols of the authority he was invested with. Secular, or *lay*, officials began granting this investiture. Pope Gregory VII saw the need to stop this practice. Only then could the Church regain its freedom, the sole right to appoint clergy and run its own affairs. If secular rulers did not accept this, the pope would remove them. Gregory VII believed the pope's authority extended over all rulers.
- D. Gregory VII found himself in conflict with **Henry IV**, the German king, over his views. The German kings had appointed high-ranking Church officials for years and made these officials vassals, to fight the power of the nobles. Gregory finally issued a decree forbidding lay investiture.
- E. The struggle between Gregory VII and Henry IV became known as the Investiture Controversy. In 1122 a new German king and a new pope reached an agreement called the **Concordat of Worms**. Church officials first elected the German bishop. The new bishop then paid homage to the king as his lord, and the king invested him with the symbols of earthly office. A representative of the pope then invested the bishop with symbols of his spiritual office.



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- F. The twelfth-century popes were most interested in strengthening papal power and building a strong administrative system. The Catholic Church reached the height of its political power during the papacy of **Pope Innocent III**. He believed the pope was the supreme judge and ruler of European affairs. To exercise his power, Innocent III especially used the **interdict**. An interdict forbids a priest to give the **sacraments** (Christian rites) to a particular group of people. People under interdiction lost the comforts and blessing of religion, and so they exerted pressure against their ruler to follow the pope's wishes.

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#### Discussion Question

On what basis might Gregory VII and other popes have believed they had authority over secular monarchs? (*Their argument was that they were the representative of God's power and authority, and God's power and authority outweighed human power and authority.*)

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#### II. New Religious Orders (pages 325–327)

- A. A wave of religious enthusiasm seized Europe in the first half of the twelfth century and led to a spectacular growth in the number of monasteries and new orders.
- B. The most important new order was the Cistercians, founded by a group of disgruntled Benedictine monks in 1098. The order spread rapidly throughout Europe. **Cistercians** were strict. They had only one robe and ate a simple diet; their churches and monastic buildings had no decorations.
- C. Cistercians were more active in the world than Benedictine monks. They took their religion to the people outside of the monastery.
- D. The number of women joining religious houses grew dramatically. Most nuns came from the landed aristocracy. Female intellectuals like **Hildegard of Bingen** found convents a haven for their activities. Hildegard of Bingen became abbess of a convent, and she was also one of the first women composers. She contributed to the genre called Gregorian chant. She was also sought out for her advice as a mystic and prophetess.
- E. The **Franciscans** and **Dominicans** emerged in the thirteenth century. Each had a strong impact on the lives of ordinary people. **Saint Francis of Assisi** founded the Franciscans. Born into wealth, he had a series of spiritual experiences that led him to abandon material pursuits and preach poverty. His simplicity, joy, and love attracted followers. Franciscans rejected all property and lived by working and begging for food.
- F. The Franciscans became popular with the poor, among whom they lived and whom they helped. Unlike many other religious orders, the Franciscans lived in the world and undertook missionary work.





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- G.** The Spanish priest Dominic de Guzmán founded the Dominicans to defend Church teachings from **heresy**—the denial of basic Church doctrines. People who denied Church doctrines were called heretics. Dominic believed that the best way to combat heresy was to have an order of men who lived in poverty and preached effectively.
- H.** The Church's wish to discover and deal with heretics led to the **Inquisition**, or Holy Office. This court was instituted to try heretics, and it developed a regular way to deal with them. Heretics who confessed performed public penance and were punished, for example by flogging. From 1252 on, those who did not confess voluntarily were tortured until they confessed. Many who did not confess were considered guilty and were executed by the state. Relapsed heretics were also subject to execution. For Christians of the thirteenth century, using force to save souls was the right thing to do. Heresy was a crime against God, and people's salvation hung in the balance.

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#### Discussion Question

Why did most nuns in the High Middle Ages come from the aristocracy? (*Convents were convenient for families who were unable or unwilling to find husbands for their daughters, for aristocratic women who did not wish to marry and had the option not to, or for widows.*)

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### III. Popular Religion in the High Middle Ages (pages 327–328)

- A.** The sacraments of the Catholic Church, such as baptism, marriage, and Communion, were very important to ordinary people. The sacraments were a means for receiving God's grace and were necessary for salvation. Only clergy could give the sacraments, which made people dependent on the clergy.
- B.** Venerating saints was also important to ordinary people. Saints had a special position in Heaven and could ask for favors before the throne of God. The apostles were recognized throughout Europe as saints. Local saints such as Saint Nicholas, the patron saint of children and the inspiration for Santa Claus, sprang up (see page 327). The Virgin Mary was the most highly regarded saint of the High Middle Ages. Many European churches in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries were dedicated to her.
- C.** Emphasis on the saints was tied to the use of **relics**, usually bones of saints or objects connected with the saints. They were worshipped because they offered a connection between the earthly world and God, they could heal, or they produced other miracles.
- D.** Medieval Christians also believed that a pilgrimage to a holy shrine produced a spiritual benefit. The Holy City of Jerusalem was the greatest such site. Rome, with its relics of Saint Peter, and Santiago de Compostela, supposedly where the apostle Saint James is buried, were also important pilgrimage destinations.



## Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes



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#### Discussion Question

Medieval Christians believed that relics produced miracles, especially of healing. What is a miracle in the religious sense? (*In the religious sense a miracle is an event that occurs but does not adhere to the laws of the realm of nature. The event's cause must be divine grace, it is believed.*)

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## Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

### Chapter 10, Section 3



**Did You Know?** The magnificent Gothic cathedral at Reims was the site of the coronation of French kings. The first Frankish king, Clovis, was crowned by Saint Rémy, archbishop of Reims, in the town where the cathedral was later built. From the ninth century it was claimed that a dove had descended from the heavens with sacred oil for anointing Clovis. Miraculously, the oil never dried up, and later kings supposedly were anointed with it.

#### I. The Rise of Universities (pages 329–330)

- A. The modern-day university is a product of the High Middle Ages. The word *university* comes from the Latin *universitas*, meaning “corporation” or “guild.” Medieval universities were guilds that produced educated and trained individuals.
- B. The first university appeared in **Bologna**, Italy. A great teacher of Roman law named Irnerius attracted students there from all over Europe. To protect their rights, students at Bologna formed a guild, which was chartered in 1158. The charter gave the guild the right to govern its own affairs. The first university in northern Europe was the University of Paris. In the second half of the twelfth century, some students left Paris and went to England, founding a university at Oxford. There were 80 European universities by 1500.
- C. Students began their university education with the traditional liberal arts: grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. Medieval universities taught through the lecture method. Teachers read from the few existing copies of books and added their commentary. There were no written exams. To graduate, the student had an oral examination with a committee of teachers. The student would receive a bachelor of arts and later might earn a master of arts, if he passed. No women attended these universities.
- D. A student could go on to study law, medicine, or **theology**—the study of religion and God. A student who passed the oral exam in one of these received a doctoral degree.
- E. Universities provided the teachers, administrators, lawyers, and medical doctors for medieval society.



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#### Discussion Question

In 1500 there were 80 universities in all of Europe. Thousands of universities now exist in the United States. What accounts for the difference? (*Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. Two good responses would mention democratization and the need to train a large workforce.*)

## II. The Development of Scholasticism (pages 330–331)

- A. Theology was the most highly regarded subject at medieval universities. The philosophical and theological system known as **scholasticism** became very important in the eleventh century.
- B. The main point of scholasticism was to harmonize Christian teachings with Greek philosophy, especially Aristotle. The works of **Aristotle** were introduced to Europe in the twelfth century, largely through the work of Muslim and Jewish scholars. Aristotle had arrived at his conclusions through rational thought, however, not faith, and some ideas contradicted Church teachings.
- C. **Saint Thomas Aquinas** made the most important attempt to reconcile Aristotle with Christianity, to reconcile the knowledge through Scripture with the knowledge gained through reason and experience. Aquinas is best known for his *Summa Theologica* (a *summa* was a summary of all knowledge on a given subject).
- D. This masterpiece was organized by the logical method of investigation used by scholasticism. Aquinas first posed a question, then cited sources offering opposing opinions on the question, and then reconciling them and arriving at his own conclusions. Aquinas believed that the truths of reason and the truths of faith did not contradict. Reason and experience could arrive at truths about the physical universe, but reason and experience unaided by faith could not grasp spiritual truths.

#### Discussion Question

Can we come to know the deepest religious truths by use of our reason and experience, or do we need faith for access to the divine? (*Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. One good line of argument would doubt that reason and experience can penetrate to deeper religious truths because by definition they transcend the realm of nature.*)



## Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

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#### III. Vernacular Literature and Architecture (pages 331–333)

- A.** Latin was the universal language of medieval civilization. In the twelfth century new literature was being written in the **vernacular**—the everyday language of particular regions, such as Spanish or English. Educated people at courts and in the cities took an interest in vernacular literature, often as a new source of entertainment.
- B.** The most popular vernacular literature was troubadour poetry, chiefly the product of nobles and knights. It told of a knight's love for a lady who inspired him, usually from afar, to be a braver knight.
- C.** The **chanson de geste**, or heroic epic, was another type of vernacular literature. The earliest and finest example is the *Song of Roland*, which appeared in French around 1100. Heroic epics describe battles and political contests. The epic world was one of combat. Women played little or no role in this literature.
- D.** In the eleventh and twelfth centuries, an explosion of building in medieval Europe, especially of churches, took place. Initially, these cathedrals were in the Romanesque style, built in the basilica shape favored in the late Roman Empire. The Romanesque basilica was topped with a long, round, stone arched structure called a barrel vault.
- E.** Because stone roofs were so heavy, the churches needed massive pillars and had little space for windows. The Romanesque churches, therefore, were dark and resembled fortresses.
- F.** In the twelfth century the new, Gothic style appeared. The Gothic cathedral is one of the artistic triumphs of the High Middle Ages. Two innovations made it possible.
- G.** One innovation was replacing the barrel vault with ribbed vaults and pointed arches. The Gothic cathedrals rose higher, therefore, creating an impression of the building reaching towards God.
- H.** The other innovation was the flying buttress—a heavy, arched, stone support on the outside of the building. This distributed the weight of the church's vaulted ceilings and eliminated the thick heavy walls of the Romanesque style. Since Gothic cathedrals had fairly thin walls, they could have windows, which were filled with magnificent stained glass. The windows also created a play of natural light inside the cathedral; natural light was believed to be a symbol of the divine light of God.
- I.** With its soaring towers and light-filled interior, the Gothic cathedral testifies to an age when most people believed in a spiritual world.

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#### Discussion Question

Troubadour poetry was the dominant form of love poetry for its time. Where do we principally get something like love poetry in modern culture? (*Popular music.*)

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## Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

### Chapter 10, Section 4



**Did You Know?** Some of William Shakespeare's plays, for example *The Life of King Henry the Fifth*, concern people and places of the Hundred Years' War.

#### I. The Black Death (pages 335–336)

- A. In the fourteenth century some catastrophic changes took place in Europe. The worst was the **Black Death**. It was the most devastating natural disaster in European history. It horrified people and seemed an incomprehensible evil force.
- B. Bubonic plague was the most common form of the Black Death. Black rats infested with fleas carrying a deadly bacterium spread it. Italian merchants brought it from Caffa, on the Black Sea.
- C. Usually the Black Death followed trade routes. Between 1347 and 1351 it ravaged most of Europe. Possibly as many as 38 million people died in those four years, out of a total population of 75 million. The Italian cities were hit hardest, losing 50 to 60 percent of their population.
- D. Many people believed the plague was a punishment sent by God for their sins or was caused by the devil. The plague led to an outbreak of **anti-Semitism**—hostility toward Jews (see page 341). Persecution was the worst in Germany. Some people thought that the Jews had caused the plague by poisoning their towns' wells. Many Jews fled eastward, especially to Poland, where the king protected them.
- E. The death of so many people had strong economic consequences. Trade declined; the shortage of workers made the price of labor rise. The lowered demand for food resulted in falling prices.
- F. Landlords were paying more for labor as their incomes declined. Some peasants bargained with their lords to pay rent instead of owing services. This change in effect freed them from serfdom, which had been declining throughout the High Middle Ages.

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#### Discussion Question

The Black Death caused some people to persecute Jews. Some say that AIDS is a similar epidemic of our time. Has it caused persecution or something comparable? (*Answers will vary. Accept relevant, thoughtful answers. Students should give examples. It seems reasonable to say that AIDS has not caused widespread persecution like that of the Jews during the Middle Ages, but it has caused widespread discrimination.*)

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**Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes****Chapter 10, Section 4****II. The Decline of Church Power (page 337)**

- A.** The Roman Catholic popes reached the height of their power in the thirteenth century. A series of problems in the next century lessened the Church's political position.
- B.** European kings grew unwilling to accept the papal claims of supremacy over both religious and secular matters, as the struggle between **Pope Boniface VIII** and **King Philip IV** of France shows. Their struggle had serious consequences for the papacy.
- C.** Philip claimed he had the right to tax the clergy. The pope said that in order to pay taxes, the clergy would need the pope's consent. **Philip** rejected this position and sent troops to bring Boniface to France for trial. The pope escaped but soon died from shock. Philip then engineered to have a Frenchman, **Clement V**, elected pope in 1305.
- D.** The new pope established himself at **Avignon**, not Rome. The popes lived there from 1305 to 1377. The pope not living in Rome seemed improper, as did the splendor of how the popes lived in Avignon. Pope Gregory XI recognized the decline in papal prestige and returned to Rome in 1377. He died soon after his return.
- E.** The citizens of Rome told the cardinals to elect an Italian pope or fear for their lives. The terrified cardinals elected one—Pope Urban VI. Soon a group of French cardinals declared the election invalid and chose a Frenchman as pope. He went to Avignon. There now were two popes, beginning what has been called the **Great Schism** of the Church.
- F.** The Great Schism lasted from 1378 to 1417 and divided Europe politically. It also damaged the Church. Each pope denounced the other as the anti-Christ, and people's faith in the papacy and the Church was shaken. At a council in 1417, a new pope acceptable to all parties was elected, ending the Great Schism.
- G.** This crisis in the Catholic Church led to cries for an end to the clergy's corruption and the papacy's excessive power. One protesting group was the Czech reformers led by **John Hus**. He was accused of heresy and burned at the stake in 1415.
- H.** By the early 1400s, then, the Church had lost much of its political power. The pope no longer could assert supremacy over the state. The papacy and Church also lost much of their spiritual authority.

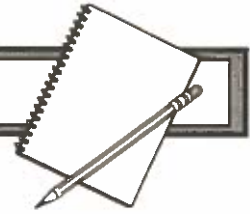
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**Discussion Question**

How could the French king have engineered the papal election? (*Answers will vary. The two most likely answers are the king engineered the election through intimidation and through promising rewards like power and position.*)

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**Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes****Chapter 10, Section 4****III. The Hundred Years' War** (pages 337–339)

- A.** In addition to economic crises, plague, and the decline of the Church, political instability was also a problem for the late Middle Ages.
- B.** In the thirteenth century, England still had a small possession in France, the duchy of Gascony. King Philip VI of France tried to take it back, and King Edward III of England declared war on Philip in 1337. Thus began the Hundred Years' War between England and France. It continued until 1453.
- C.** The war began in an explosion of knightly enthusiasm. However, the war was a turning point in the history of warfare because peasant foot soldiers won the chief battles in this war.
- D.** The English foot soldiers were armed not only with pikes, but the deadly longbow, which replaced the formerly favored crossbow. The longbow had great striking power, long range, and a rapid rate of fire.
- E.** The war's first major battle was at Crécy in 1346. The arrows of the English archers devastated the French cavalry. The English king, Henry V, was eager to conquer all of France even though the English did not have the resources. At the Battle of Agincourt (1415), 1,500 French nobles died on the battlefield. The English were masters of northern France.
- F.** Joan of Arc, a French peasant woman, stepped in to aid France and the timid ruler of southern France, Charles. Joan of Arc was born in 1412. She was deeply religious and experienced visions. She believed her favorite saints commanded her to free France. In 1429 Joan's sincerity and simplicity convinced Charles to let her accompany the French army to Orléans. Inspired by Joan's faith, the army captured the city.
- G.** Joan was captured in 1430. The Inquisition tried her for witchcraft. She was condemned as a heretic and executed. Even so, she inspired the French army, which after defeats of the English at Normandy and Aquitaine, won the war in 1453. The French success was also helped by the use of the cannon, made possible by the invention of gunpowder.

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**Discussion Question**

What weapons significantly changed warfare in the twentieth century, as the longbow once did? (*Answers will vary. Two good answers are the airplane, because of bombing, and the automatic weapon, because of how many rounds it can shoot in a row.*)

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## Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

### Chapter 10, Section 4



#### IV. Political Recovery (pages 339–340)

- A.** The fourteenth-century European monarchies experienced many difficulties over succession and finances. The fifteenth century saw a recovery of the centralized power of monarchies, however. Some historians refer to these reestablished states as the **new monarchies**. This term applies especially to France, England, and Spain.
- B.** The Hundred Years' War left France exhausted. Even so, the kings used the new French national feeling to reestablish royal power. King Louis XI, who ruled from 1461 to 1483, greatly **advanced the French state**. He **strengthened the use of the *taille***—an annual direct tax on property or land—as a permanent tax imposed by royal authority. This gave Louis the income that helped create a strong foundation for the monarchy.
- C.** The Hundred Years' War also strained England's economy. England faced more turmoil with the civil conflicts known as the War of the Roses broke out. Noble factions tried to control the monarchy until 1485, when Henry Tudor established a new dynasty.
- D.** Henry tried to establish a strong royal government. He abolished the nobles' private armies. He won support for his monarchy by his thrift and not overtaxing the nobles and middle class.
- E.** A strong national monarchy also emerged in Spain. Muslims had conquered much of Spain by 725. During the Middle Ages, soldieries of several independent Christian kingdoms had tried to win back Spain.
- F.** Two of the strongest kingdoms were Aragon and Castile. When **Isabella** of Castile married **Ferdinand** of Aragon in 1469, it was a big step towards unifying power in Spain. The two rulers also had a policy of adhering strictly to Catholicism. In 1492 they expelled all Jews from Spain. Muslims were "encouraged" to convert to Catholicism. Within a few years, all professed Muslims were also expelled from Spain. To be Spanish was to be Catholic.
- G.** The Holy Roman Empire did not develop a strong monarchical authority. After 1438 the Hapsburg dynasty held the position of Holy Roman emperor. By the mid-fifteenth century these wealthy rulers were playing an important role in Europe.
- H.** Religious differences made it hard for rulers in eastern Europe to unify their states. In Poland, the nobles established the right to elect their king, which weakened the monarchy. Since the thirteenth century, Russia had been under the control of the Mongols. Gradually the princes of Moscow gained power by using their relation with the khan to increase their wealth and landholdings. The great prince **Ivan III** established a new Russian state. By 1480 he had thrown off the yoke of the Mongols.



## Daily Lecture and Discussion Notes

### Chapter 10, Section 4



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#### Discussion Question

Which religions were so much at odds with each other in eastern Europe that a strong monarchy did not develop in the area? (*The three principal religions were Catholicism, Eastern Orthodoxy, and Islam.*)

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