

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 10, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 315–322

PEASANTS, TRADE, AND CITIES

KEY TERMS

manor an agricultural estate run by a lord and worked by peasants (page 317)

serf a peasant legally bound to the land (page 317)

money economy an economic system based on money, rather than barter (page 320)

commercial capitalism an economic system in which people invest in trade and goods in order to make profits (page 320)

guild a business association, or association of craftspeople, in the Middle Ages (page 322)

masterpiece a finished piece in a craft that was used to judge whether a journeyman was qualified to become a master and join a guild (page 322)

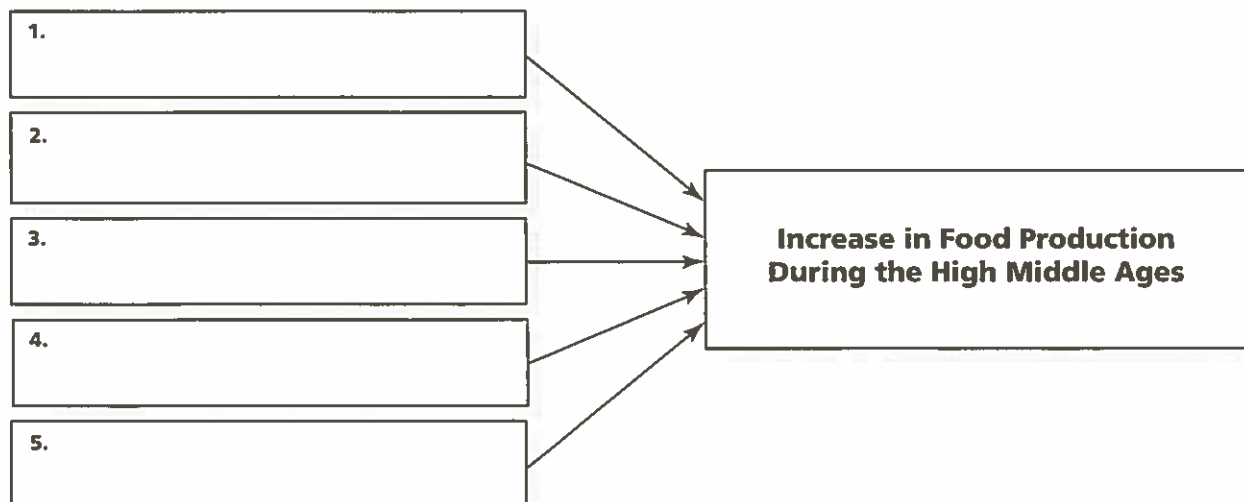
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How does money affect your ability to get the things you need? Could you get what you need by trading with people, without using money?

In this section, you will learn about daily life during the Middle Ages. It was during this period that a money economy began to emerge in Europe.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Several factors led to an increase in food production during the High Middle Ages. List five of those factors.



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Chapter 10, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The New Agriculture (page 315)

In the early Middle Ages, Europe had a relatively small population. Between 1000 and 1300, however, the population almost doubled, from 38 million to 74 million people. This period is called the High Middle Ages. During this period, food production increased dramatically. There were several reasons for this increase. There was more peace and stability during this time, because the invasions of the early Middle Ages had stopped. There was also a change in climate during the High Middle Ages that improved growing conditions. There was also more land to farm, because peasants cut down trees and drained swamps. New inventions also helped the development of farming. Two of these inventions, the horse collar and the horseshoe, made it possible for horses to plow fields instead of oxen. Because horses were faster, this increased production. The shift from a two-field to a three-field system of crop rotation also added to the increase in food production.

Labor-saving devices were also invented during this time. The people of the Middle Ages used the power of water and wind to do jobs such as grinding grain that had previously been done by humans or animals. Iron was mined in various areas of Europe and was used to make tools for farming and building. Iron was crucial for making the *carruca*, a heavy, wheeled plow with an iron plowshare that could turn over heavy clay soils. The use of this plow led to the growth of farming villages. Plows and teams of horses were too expensive to be bought by one family, so the entire village shared the cost.

6. How did the use of the *carruca* lead to the growth of farming villages?

• The Manorial System (page 317)

A **manor** was an agricultural estate run by a lord and worked by peasants. Although there were free peasants, more and more peasants became serfs. **Serfs** were peasants who were legally bound to the land. Serfs had to work for the lord and pay rents, and they were subject to the lord's control. By 800, probably 60 percent of the people of western Europe were serfs. A serf's work included farming the lord's land, building barns, and digging ditches. Serfs usually worked about three days a week for their lords. The rest of the week, they worked their own land to grow food for themselves. The serfs paid rent by giving the lords a share of everything they raised.

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Chapter 10, Section 1 (continued)

Lords had various legal rights over their serfs. Serfs could not leave the manor, or marry anyone outside the manor, without the lord's approval. Peasants also had to pay lords for certain services, such as having their grain ground in the lords' mills. Some lords had the authority to try peasants in their own courts. But serfs were not slaves. The land assigned to serfs to support themselves could not be taken away, and their responsibilities to the lord were fairly fixed. It was also the lord's duty to protect his serfs.

7. How were serfs different from slaves?

• Daily Life of the Peasantry (page 318)

The life of peasants in Europe was simple. Their houses were made of wood frames surrounded by sticks. The spaces between sticks were filled with straw and then plastered over with clay. Most houses consisted of one or two rooms. The basic staple of a peasant's diet was bread. It was very nutritious because it was made of wheat, rye, barley, millet, and oats. Peasants also ate vegetables from their gardens, cheese from cow's or goat's milk, and nuts, berries and fruit. Chickens provided eggs and sometimes meat. Peasants usually ate meat only on the great feast days, like Christmas and Easter.

The seasons of the year determined most of a peasant's activities. Harvest time was in August and September. In October, peasants worked the ground for the planting of winter crops. In November, excess livestock were slaughtered. In February and March, the land was plowed for the planting of spring crops. Early summer was a fairly relaxed time, but there was still weeding and sheepshearing to be done. In every season, the serfs worked both their own land and the lords' land. They also tended gardens next to their homes. Peasants had breaks from their work, however, thanks to the feast days (holidays) of the Catholic Church. The feast days celebrated the great events of the Christian faith or the lives of Christian saints. A total of more than 50 days were holidays. The feast days, Sunday mass, baptisms, marriages, and funerals brought peasants into contact with the village church. The village priest taught the peasants the basic ideas of Christianity so that they could gain the Christians' final goal—salvation.

The role of peasant women was both important and difficult. They had to work in the fields and at the same time bear children. Their ability to manage the household could determine whether their family would starve or survive in difficult times.

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8. What events gave peasants a break from their work?

• The Revival of Trade (page 319)

The revival of trade in Europe was gradual. Cities in Italy took the lead. Venice developed a fleet of trading ships and became a major trade center by the end of the tenth century. While Venice and other Italian cities were busy trading in the Mediterranean, the towns of Flanders were doing the same in northern Europe. Flanders was the area along the coast of what is now Belgium and northern France. Its location made it an ideal center for the traders of northern Europe. Merchants from England, Scandinavia, France, and Germany met there to trade their goods for the woolen cloth made in Flanders. By the twelfth century, trade developed between Flanders and Italy. As trade increased, demand for gold and silver coins arose. A money economy slowly began to emerge. A **money economy** is an economic system based on money rather than barter. Trading companies and banking firms were set up to manage the sale of goods. All of these practices were part of the rise of **commercial capitalism**, an economic system in which people invest in trade and goods in order to make profits.

9. What two areas in Europe were major trading centers during the Middle Ages?

• The Growth of Cities (page 320)

The revival of trade led to a revival of cities. Merchants began to settle in the old Roman cities. They were followed by craftspeople who could make goods for the merchants to sell. Many new cities and towns were founded in northern Europe. Merchants usually built settlements near castles because the castles were located on trade routes and could offer protection. Walls were built to protect the settlements. Merchants and artisans of these cities became known as *burghers* or *bourgeoisie*. (These words come from the German word *burg*, which means "a walled enclosure.") Medieval cities were small in comparison with ancient or modern cities. A large trading city had about five thousand people.

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Chapter 10, Section 1 (continued)

Most towns were dependent on the food grown in the surrounding manors. The towns were often part of the territory that belonged to a lord and were subject to his authority. But townspeople needed the freedom to trade. They also needed their own laws and were willing to pay for them. Lords and kings saw this as an opportunity to make money and were willing to sell the townspeople the rights they wanted. These included the right to buy and sell property and freedom from military service. Some new towns also received the right to govern themselves by electing their own officials and having their own courts. Over time, medieval cities developed their own governments. Only males who had been born in the city, or who had lived there for some time, were citizens. In many cities, these citizens elected a city council. The members of the city council served as judges and passed laws. Elections were usually rigged to make sure that only patricians (members of the wealthiest families) were elected.

10. What rights were townspeople willing to buy from lords and kings?

• Daily Life in the Medieval City (page 321)

Stone walls surrounded medieval towns. The walls were expensive to build, so the space inside was limited and crowded. Streets were narrow, and houses were built against one another. The second and third stories were built out over the streets. The houses were built mostly of wood, so the danger of fire was great. The cities were often dirty and smelled from animal and human waste. Air pollution and water pollution were a fact of life. Because of pollution, cities did not use the rivers for drinking water, but relied on wells instead.

There were more men than women in the medieval cities. Women were expected to supervise the household, prepare meals, raise the children, and manage the family's finances. They were often expected to help their husbands in their trades, as well. Some women developed their own trades to earn extra money. Many women became brewers, weavers, and hatmakers.

11. Why were medieval towns so crowded?

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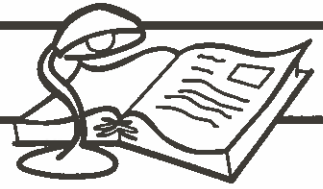
Chapter 10, Section 1 (continued)

• Industry and Guilds (page 322)

From the eleventh century on, craftspeople began to organize themselves into **guilds**, or business associations. There were guilds for almost every craft. There were also guilds for groups of merchants, such as dealers in silk and wool. Craft guilds directed almost every aspect of the production process. They set the standards for the goods produced and determined the prices for the goods. They also determined the number of people who could enter a trade and what procedure they had to follow to do so. A person who wanted to learn a trade first became an apprentice, usually around the age of 10. Apprentices were not paid but received room and board from their masters. After five to seven years of service, apprentices became journeymen and worked for wages. To become masters, journeymen had to produce a **master-piece**, a finished piece in their craft. This piece was used to judge whether a journeyman was qualified to become a master and join the guild.

12. What process did a person follow to learn a trade and join a guild?

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Chapter 10, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 323–328

CHRISTIANITY AND MEDIEVAL CIVILIZATION

KEY TERMS

lay investiture a practice in which secular (lay) rulers gave the symbols of office to church officials they had chosen (page 324)

interdict a command by the pope forbidding priests from giving the sacraments of the Church to a particular group of people (page 325)

sacraments Christian rites, such as baptism, marriage, and communion (page 325)

heresy the denial of basic Church doctrines (page 326)

Inquisition a medieval court whose job was to find and try heretics (page 326)

relic an object connected with a saint that was considered worthy of worship (page 328)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think people expect from their spiritual or religious leaders? Do you think religious leaders should be involved in government or in social issues? Why or why not?

In the last section, you learned about daily life in Europe during the Middle Ages. In this section, you will learn about the role of the Church in medieval society.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. New religious orders emerged during the Middle Ages. Compare three of those orders, the Cistercians, the Franciscans, and the Dominicans, in the chart below.

Religious Order	Founder(s)	Main Emphases
Cistercians	1.	2.
Franciscans	3.	4.
Dominicans	5.	6.

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Chapter 10, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Papal Monarchy (page 323)

The popes of the Catholic Church were the spiritual leaders of the Church, but they also had political power. They had control of territories in central Italy that were known as the Papal States. Other church officials, such as bishops and abbots, also had political ties. When a person became a church official, he was given a ring and staff. These objects symbolized the spiritual authority that the official was granted, or *invested* with, by the Church. Secular (lay) rulers usually chose the nominees to church offices and also gave them the symbols of their office. This practice was known as **lay investiture**. Bishops and abbots were often chosen by the lay rulers for political reasons. Church officials became involved in political matters, often at the expense of their spiritual duties.

Gregory VII was elected pope in 1073. He realized the need to be free from secular involvement in the appointment of church officials. He decided to reform the Church. He claimed that his authority extended over all the Christian world, including its rulers. He also claimed that the Church had the right to appoint clergy and run its own affairs. If rulers did not accept this, the pope would remove them. These claims brought Pope Gregory into conflict with Henry IV, the king of Germany. German kings appointed high-ranking clergy as their vassals so that they could use them as administrators. Eliminating lay investiture threatened the king's ability to administer his kingdom.

In 1075, Pope Gregory issued a decree forbidding high-ranking clergy from receiving their investiture from lay leaders. Henry IV had no intention of obeying this decree. The struggle between Henry IV and Gregory VII is known as the Investiture Controversy. The struggle continued until there was a new king and a new pope. They reached an agreement in 1122 called the Concordat of Worms. Under this agreement, Church officials elected a bishop in Germany, but the new bishop paid homage to the king as his lord. The king then invested him with the symbols of a temporal (worldly) office. A representative of the pope invested the bishop with the symbols of his spiritual office.

During the papacy of Pope Innocent III in the thirteenth century, the Catholic Church reached the height of its political power. Innocent III forced the King of France, Philip Augustus, to take back his wife after Philip had tried to have his marriage annulled. The pope also forced King John of England to accept the pope's choice for the archbishop of Canterbury. Pope Innocent was able to force the kings to do what he wanted by using interdicts. An **interdict** forbids priests from giving the **sacraments** (Christian rites) to a particular group of people. The sacraments included baptism, marriage, and the Eucharist (Communion). When people were denied the sacraments, they put pressure on their rulers to do what the pope wanted.

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Chapter 10, Section 2 (continued)

7. How were popes able to force rulers to do what they wanted?

• New Religious Orders (page 325)

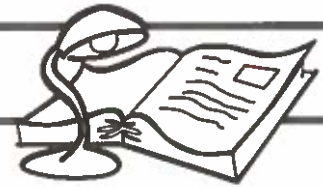
In the second half of the eleventh century and the first half of the twelfth century, more and more men and women joined religious orders. One of the most important new orders of the early Middle Ages was the Cistercian order. It was founded in 1098 by a group of Benedictine monks who were unhappy with the lack of discipline at their own monastery. The Cistercians were strict. They ate a simple diet and each had only one robe. They spent less time at religious services and more time in prayer and manual labor. While Benedictine monks spent most of their time inside the monastery, the Cistercians took their religion to the people outside the monastery.

The number of women who joined convents grew dramatically during this time. In the High Middle Ages, most nuns were from aristocratic families. Convents were convenient for families who were unable or unwilling to find husbands for their daughters. Widows and women who did not wish to marry also joined convents. Most of the learned women of the Middle Ages were nuns. One famous example is Hildegard of Bingen. She became the abbess of a convent in western Germany. She was also one of the first important women composers. She made important contributions to the body of music known as the Gregorian chant.

In the thirteenth century, two new religious orders emerged. These orders had a strong impact on the lives of ordinary people. They were the Franciscans and the Dominicans. Saint Francis of Assisi founded the Franciscans. Although he was born to a wealthy Italian family, Saint Francis gave up his riches. His followers took vows of poverty and agreed to live by working and begging for their food. The Franciscans lived among the people, preaching repentance and simplicity and helping the poor. The Franciscans were also missionaries. They traveled throughout Italy and then to all parts of Europe and even to the Muslim world.

A Spanish priest, Dominic de Guzmán, founded the Dominican order. Dominic wanted to defend Church teachings from heresy. **Heresy** is the denial of basic Church doctrines. The Church's desire to deal with heretics (people who believed in heresies) led to the creation of a court called the **Inquisition**. The job of this court was to find and try heretics. The Dominicans were often the examiners of people suspected of heresy. If an accused heretic confessed, he or she was forced to repent publicly and then was physically punished, often by flogging. Beginning in 1252, people who did not confess were tor-

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Chapter 10, Section 2 (continued)

ured until they did confess. Many did not confess but were still considered guilty and were executed. The Christians of this time thought that heresy was a crime against God. They thought that using force to save souls from damnation was the right thing to do.

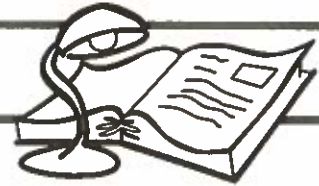
8. How did the Church deal with heretics during the Middle Ages?

• Popular Religion in the High Middle Ages (page 327)

The sacraments made the Church a crucial part of people's lives during the Middle Ages. The sacraments were seen as the means for receiving God's grace and were considered necessary for salvation. Only the clergy could administer the sacraments, so everyone who hoped to gain salvation depended on the clergy to help them. The veneration of saints was also important during the Middle Ages. Saints were men and women who were considered especially holy. It was believed that they had achieved a special position in heaven that allowed them to ask for favors from God for people who prayed to them. The Virgin Mary, mother of Jesus, was the most highly regarded of all the saints. A sign of Mary's importance is the number of churches all over Europe that were dedicated to her in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. In France, these churches were named *Notre Dame* ("Our Lady"). **Relics** of the saints were often worshipped. Relics were usually bones of saints or objects connected with saints that were considered worthy of worship because they linked the earthly world and God. It was believed that relics could heal people or produce other miracles. Medieval Christians also believed that pilgrimages to holy shrines had spiritual benefits. The greatest shrine, but the most difficult to reach, was the Holy City of Jerusalem. Shrines dedicated to the Virgin Mary also became pilgrimage centers.

9. Why was the clergy so important in the lives of medieval people?

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Chapter 10, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 329–333

THE CULTURE OF THE HIGH MIDDLE AGES

KEY TERMS

theology the study of religion and God (page 330)

scholasticism a philosophical and theological system that tried to reconcile faith and reason (page 330)

vernacular the language of everyday speech in a particular region (page 331)

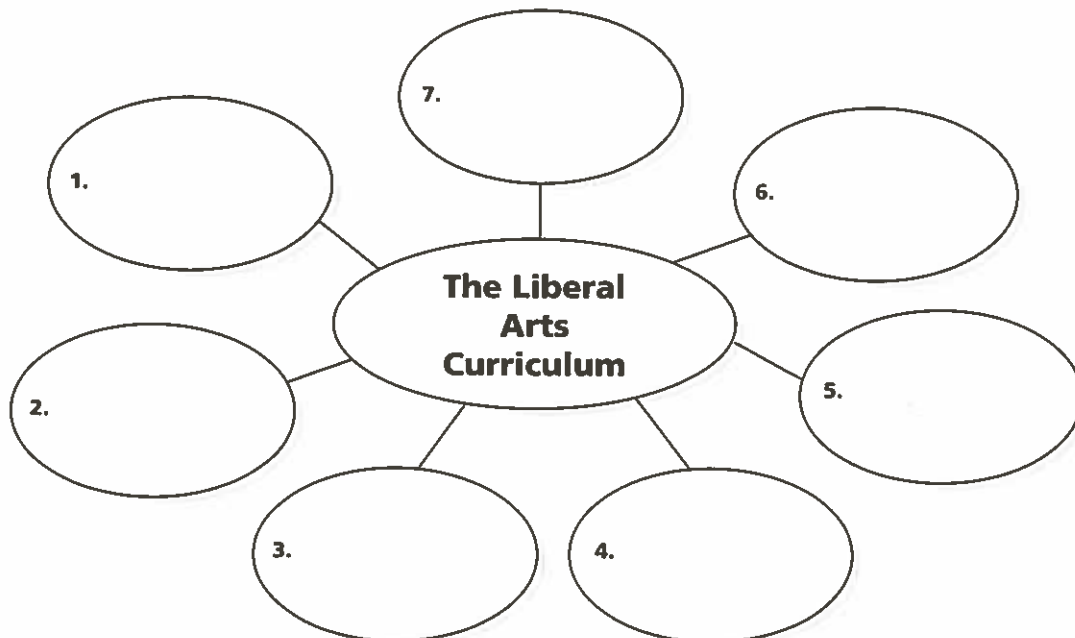
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever visited a university? Why do people attend universities? Do you plan to attend a university?

In the last section, you learned about the role of the Church in medieval life. In this section, you will learn about the role of universities and the development of literature and architecture during this period.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the concept web below to help you take notes. Students at medieval universities began their studies with the traditional liberal arts curriculum. List the seven subjects that were studied in that curriculum.



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Chapter 10, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The Rise of Universities (page 329)

The university as we know it today was a product of the Middle Ages. The word *university* comes from the Latin word *universitas*, which means “corporation” or “guild.” Like other guilds, universities had a product. They “produced” educated and trained people. The first European university was started in Bologna, Italy. The first university in northern Europe was the University of Paris. In the second half of the twelfth century, several students and teachers left Paris and started their own university at Oxford in England. By 1500, there were 80 universities in Europe.

Students began their studies at a medieval university with the traditional liberal arts curriculum (course of study). This curriculum consisted of grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy. Teaching at medieval universities was done by a lecture method. Few students could afford books, so teachers read from a basic text and then added their own explanations. (The word *lecture* is derived from Latin and means “to read.”) No exams were given until a student applied for a degree. At that time, a committee of teachers gave the student an oral examination. The first degree a student could earn was a bachelor of arts. Later, he might earn a master of arts. After completing the liberal arts curriculum, a student could go on to study law, medicine, or theology. **Theology** is the study of religion and God, and it was the most highly regarded subject at medieval universities. A student who passed his oral examinations in one of these areas was granted a doctor’s degree. Those who earned doctor’s degrees were able to teach, but they also pursued other careers. Universities provided the teachers, administrators, lawyers, and doctors for medieval society.

8. What was the most highly regarded subject at medieval universities?

• The Development of Scholasticism (page 330)

The study of theology was strongly influenced by scholasticism. **Scholasticism** was a philosophical and theological system that tried to reconcile faith and reason. It tried to show that what was accepted on faith was in harmony with what could be learned through reason and experience. In the twelfth century, western Europe was introduced to the works of Aristotle, and these works upset many Christian theologians. Aristotle had arrived at his conclusions by reason, not by faith, and some of his ideas contradicted the teachings of the Church. In the thirteenth century, Saint Thomas Aquinas

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Chapter 10, Section 3 (continued)

attempted to reconcile Aristotle with Christian doctrines. Thomas Aquinas is best known for his *Summa Theologica*. He tried to reconcile the Bible and other Christian writings with the knowledge learned through reason and experience. He believed that some truths were learned by reason and other truths were learned by faith and that they did not contradict each other.

9. What is scholasticism?

- **Vernacular Literature** (page 331)

Latin was the universal language of medieval civilization. It was used in the Church and in schools and allowed educated people to communicate anywhere in Europe. However, by the twelfth century, many works of literature were being written in the **vernacular**—the language of everyday speech in a particular region, such as Spanish, French, English, or German. One of the most popular forms of vernacular literature in the twelfth century was troubadour poetry. This poetry told of the love of a knight for a lady. Another type of vernacular literature was the *chanson de geste*, or heroic epic. The earliest and greatest example is the *Song of Roland*. It appeared around 1100 and was written in French. The chief events in heroic epic poems are battles and political contests.

10. What is vernacular literature?

- **Architecture** (page 333)

During the eleventh and twelfth centuries, there was an explosion of building in Europe, especially the building of churches. The cathedrals of the eleventh and twelfth centuries were built in the Romanesque style. The Romanesque churches had a basilica shape like the churches in the late Roman Empire. Basilicas were rectangular buildings with flat wood roofs. Romanesque builders replaced the flat roof with a stone arched structure, called a barrel vault. Stone roofs were very heavy, so Romanesque churches needed massive pillars and walls to hold them up. There was little space for windows, so Romanesque churches were very dark.

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Chapter 10, Section 3 (continued)

A new style, called Gothic, appeared in the twelfth century. The Gothic cathedral was one of the greatest artistic accomplishments of the High Middle Ages. In Gothic cathedrals, the barrel vault was replaced with a combination of ribbed vaults and pointed arches. This made Gothic churches higher than Romanesque churches and created an impression of upward movement. The buildings looked as if they were reaching to God. Gothic cathedrals also used flying buttresses. A flying buttress is a heavy, arched support built onto the outside of the walls. Flying buttresses made it possible to distribute the weight of the vaulted ceilings outward and down. Heavy walls were no longer needed for support, so the walls could be filled with stained glass windows. These windows depicted religious scenes and scenes from daily life.

11. How were Gothic cathedrals different from Romanesque cathedrals?

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Chapter 10, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 335–340

THE LATE MIDDLE AGES

KEY TERMS

Black Death a plague that killed nearly half of the population in Europe between 1347 and 1351 (page 335)

anti-Semitism hostility toward Jews (page 336)

Great Schism the period from 1378 to 1417 when there were two popes, one in Rome and one in Avignon (page 337)

new monarchies monarchies, such as France, England, and Spain, that reestablished centralized power in the late fifteenth century (page 339)

taille an annual direct tax, usually on land or property (page 339)

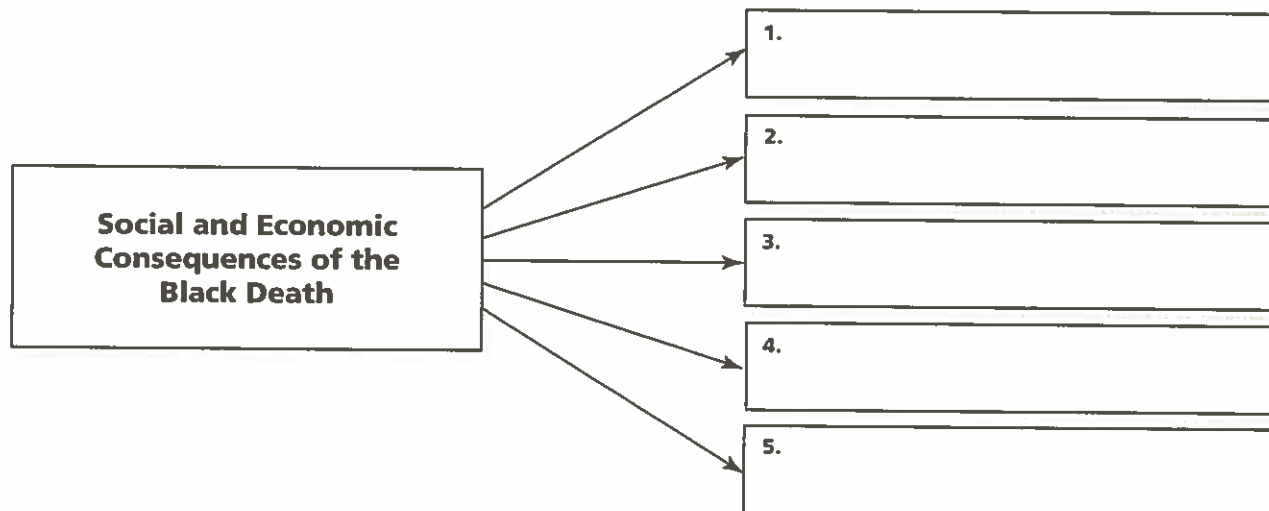
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you heard of a person known as Joan of Arc? Why is she so famous?

In the last section, you learned about the culture of the High Middle Ages. In this section, you will learn about some disastrous changes that took place in the late Middle Ages.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. The Black Death killed nearly half of the European population in the late Middle Ages. In the diagram below, list five other consequences of the plague.



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Chapter 10, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **The Black Death** (page 335)

The Middle Ages in Europe reached a high point in the thirteenth century. In the fourteenth century, some disastrous changes took place. The most catastrophic event was the Black Death. It was the worst natural disaster in European history. Bubonic plague was the most common form of the Black Death. Black rats infested with fleas carrying a bacterium spread it. People at the time did not know this, however. Italian merchants brought the plague with them from Caffa, on the Black Sea, to Sicily in 1347. It spread northward along the trade routes. By 1351, it had spread through Italy, Spain, France, the Low Countries, Germany, England, Scandinavia, Eastern Europe, and Russia. Out of a total European population of 75 million, as many as 38 million people died of the plague between 1347 and 1351.

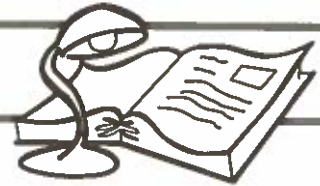
Because people did not know what caused the plague, they believed that God either sent it as a punishment for their sins or that it was caused by the devil. In some towns, Jews were accused of causing the plague by poisoning town wells. This led to an outbreak of **anti-Semitism** (hostility toward Jews). The worst attacks on Jews took place in Germany. Many Jews fled eastward, especially to Poland, during this time. The death of so many people also had severe economic consequences. Trade declined, and some industries were severely affected. A shortage of workers caused the price of labor to rise. Because there were fewer people, the demand for food declined. This resulted in lower food prices. Landlords were now paying more for labor, while their incomes were declining. Some peasants bargained with their lords to pay rents instead of owing services. This change freed them from serfdom.

6. How did medieval people explain the Black Death?

- **The Decline of Church Power** (page 337)

In the fourteenth century, a series of problems led to a decline in the Church's power. King Philip IV of France claimed that he had a right to tax the clergy of France. However, the pope at the time, Boniface VIII, said that the clergy could not pay taxes to their ruler without the pope's consent. Boniface claimed that popes were supreme over both the Church and the state. Philip IV refused to accept the pope's claims. He sent French forces to Italy to bring Boniface to France for trial. The pope escaped but died soon afterward. Philip IV rigged the election of the next pope, so that a Frenchman was elected. This pope, Clement V, was elected in 1305 and took up residence in Avignon, in southern France. From 1305 to 1377, the popes lived in

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Chapter 10, Section 4 (continued)

Avignon. But the popes were criticized for living in Avignon, rather than Rome. They were also criticized because of the splendor in which they lived.

Pope Gregory XI returned to Rome in 1377, but he died soon after his return. When the college of cardinals met to elect a new pope, the citizens of Rome said that they would kill the cardinals if they did not elect an Italian. The cardinals elected Pope Urban VI, an Italian. Five months later, a group of French cardinals declared the election invalid and chose a Frenchman as pope. This pope returned to Avignon. There were now two popes, one in Rome and one in Avignon. The **Great Schism**, as this was called, lasted from 1378 to 1417. It divided Europe. France and its allies supported the pope in Avignon. England and its allies supported the pope in Rome. The Great Schism also damaged the Catholic Church. When each line of popes said the other was the Antichrist (one who opposes Christ), people's faith in the papacy and the Church were damaged. A church council finally met at Constance, Switzerland, and ended the schism in 1417. A new pope who was acceptable to both sides was elected.

The problems in the Catholic Church led to cries for reform. A group of Czech reformers led by John Hus called for an end to the corruption of the clergy and the excessive power of the papacy. Hus was accused of heresy and burned at the stake in 1415. This angered the Czechs and led to a revolution in Bohemia. By the early 1400s, the papacy and the Catholic Church had lost much of their political power and spiritual authority.

7. How did the Great Schism damage the Catholic Church's spiritual authority?

• The Hundred Years' War (page 337)

In the thirteenth century, England still held one small territory in France, known as the duchy of Gascony. The English king was also the duke of Gascony. When King Philip VI of France seized Gascony in 1337, King Edward III of England declared war on Philip. This began the Hundred Years' War between France and England. It was a turning point in warfare. Peasant foot soldiers, not knights, won the chief battles of the Hundred Years' War. The English foot soldiers were armed with longbows and arrows, as well as spears. The first major battle took place in 1346 at Crécy. The arrows of the English soldiers devastated the French cavalry. At the Battle of Agincourt in 1415, the French were again defeated. The English now had control of northern France.

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Chapter 10, Section 4 (continued)

The French cause seemed hopeless, until a French peasant woman decided to free France. Joan of Arc was born in 1412. She was a deeply religious person who experienced visions. In February 1429, she made her way to the court of Charles, the heir to the French throne. She persuaded him to allow her to accompany a French army to Orléans. The French soldiers found a new confidence in themselves and captured Orléans. Joan of Arc herself was captured in 1430 and turned over to the English. She was tried as a witch, because her visions were thought to be inspired by the devil. She was condemned to death and burnt at the stake. Joan of Arc's achievements were important, however. The French defeated the English in Normandy and Aquitaine and the war ended in 1453.

8. How did Joan of Arc affect the outcome of the Hundred Years' War?

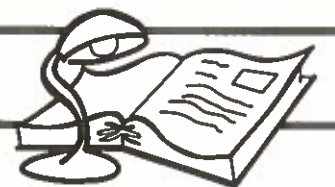
• Political Recovery (page 339)

In the fourteenth century, European rulers faced serious problems. Many dynasties in Europe were unable to produce male heirs. Rulers often had to fight for their positions. They also had financial problems. In the fifteenth century, however, some rulers began to reestablish the centralized power of their monarchies. Some historians call these reestablished monarchies the **new monarchies**. The term applies especially to France, England, and Spain at the end of the fifteenth century.

The Hundred Years' War left France exhausted, but it also developed a strong national spirit. The kings used this spirit to reestablish royal power. King Louis XI, in particular, helped to develop a strong French state. He ruled from 1461 to 1483. He strengthened the use of the **taille**. The *taille* is an annual direct tax, usually on land or property. This tax gave Louis a regular source of income, which helped him to create a strong French monarchy.

The Hundred Years' War also affected the English. The cost of the war and the losses in manpower strained the economy. After the war, groups of nobles fought to control the monarchy. These conflicts are known as the War of the Roses. They ended in 1485, when Henry VII abolished the nobles' private armies. Henry VII was the first Tudor king. He gained the support of the nobles and the middle class by not overburdening them with taxes.

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Chapter 10, Section 4 (continued)

In Spain, Muslims had conquered much of the country by 725. During the Middle Ages, Christian rulers in Spain had fought to regain their lands from the Muslims. Several independent Christian kingdoms had emerged. Two of the strongest kingdoms were Aragon and Castile. When Isabella of Castile married Ferdinand of Aragon in 1469, it was a major step toward unifying Spain. Ferdinand and Isabella were also strict Catholics. In 1492, they expelled all Jews from Spain. In 1502, Isabella expelled all Muslims from her kingdom. Ferdinand and Isabella created religious uniformity in Spain. Being Spanish was the same as being Catholic.

The Holy Roman Empire did not develop a strong monarchy. Germany was made up of many states. Almost all of them acted independently of the emperor. After 1438, the position of Holy Roman emperor was held by the Hapsburg dynasty. The house of Hapsburg was one of the wealthiest landholders in the empire. By the mid-fifteenth century, the Hapsburg rulers began to play an important role in European affairs.

In eastern Europe, rulers also found it difficult to centralize their states. Religious differences were part of the problem. In Poland, the nobles established the right to elect their kings. This policy severely weakened the king's authority. In Russia, the Mongols had been in control since the thirteenth century. The princes of Moscow used their close relationship to the Mongol khans to increase their wealth and power. During the reign of the great prince Ivan III, a new Russian state was created. By 1480, the Mongols no longer controlled Russia.

9. Which European countries established strong centralized monarchies during the late Middle Ages?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 11, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 347–350

THE PEOPLES OF NORTH AMERICA

KEY TERMS

longhouse an Iroquois house, built of wooden poles and covered with sheets of bark, that could house about a dozen families (page 348)

clan a group of related families (page 349)

tepee a circular tent made by stretching buffalo skins over wooden poles (page 349)

adobe sun-dried brick used to build pueblos (page 350)

pueblo a multi-storied structure built by the Anasazi that could house many people (page 350)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever wondered about the earliest Americans? How did they get their food and shelter? What did their towns and cities look like?

In this section, you will learn how and why the first people came to the Americas. You will also learn about the cultures of the early peoples of North America.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify where the following Native Americans lived, how they got their food, and what shelters and other structures they built.

Native American Group	Location	Food	Buildings
The Inuit	1.	2.	3.
The Hopewell People (The Mound Builders)	4.	5.	6.
The Iroquois	7.	8.	9.
The Peoples of the Great Plains	10.	11.	12.
The Anasazi	13.	14.	15.