

Medieval Europe

Backwards Planning Curriculum Units

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How to Use This Unit

Backwards planning offers an innovative yet simple approach to meeting curriculum goals; it also provides a way to keep students engaged and focused throughout the learning process. Many teachers approach history instruction in the following manner: they identify a topic required by state and/or national standards, they find materials on that topic, they use those materials with their students, and then they administer some sort of standard test at the end of the unit. Backwards planning, rather than just starting with a required instructional topic, goes a step further by identifying exactly what students need to know by the end of the unit—the so-called “enduring understandings.” The next step involves assessment: devising ways to determine whether students have learned what they need to know. The final step involves planning the teaching/learning process so that students can acquire the knowledge needed.

This product uses backwards planning to combine a PowerPoint presentation, activities that involve authentic assessment, and traditional tests (multiple-choice and essay) into a complete curriculum unit. Although the materials have enough built-in flexibility that you can use them in a number of ways, we suggest the following procedure:

1. Start with the “essential questions” listed on slide 2 of the PowerPoint presentation (these also appear in the teacher support materials). Briefly go over them with students before getting into the topic material. These questions will help students focus their learning and note taking during the course of the unit. You can also choose to use the essential questions as essay questions at the end of the unit; one way to do this is to let students know at the outset that one of the essential questions will be on the test—they just won’t know which one.

2. Next, discuss the activities students will complete during the unit. This will also help focus their learning and note taking, and it will lead them to view the PowerPoint presentation in a different light, considering it a source of ideas for authentic-assessment projects.

3. Present the PowerPoint to the class. Most slides have an image and bullet points summarizing the slide’s topic. The Notes page for each slide contains a paragraph or two of information that you can use as a presentation script, or just as background information for your own reference. Use the “show set up” function in PowerPoint to present with “two monitors.” Have yours set to include the ‘notes view’ and let the projector show only the slides to the students.

You don’t need to present the entire PowerPoint at once: it’s broken up into several sections, each of which concludes with some discussion questions that echo parts of the essential questions and also help students to get closer to the “enduring understandings.” Spend some time with the class going over and debating these questions—this will not only help students think critically about the material, but it will also allow you to incorporate different modes of instruction during a single class period, offering a better chance to engage students.

4. Have students complete one or more of the authentic-assessment activities. These activities are flexible: most can be completed either individually or in groups, and either as homework or as in-class assignments. Each activity includes a rubric; many also have graphic organizers. You can choose to have students complete the activities after you have shown them the entire PowerPoint

presentation, or you can show them one section of the PowerPoint, go over the discussion questions, and then have students complete an activity.

5. End the unit with traditional assessment. The support materials include a 20-question multiple-choice quiz; you can combine this with an essay question (you can use one of the essential questions or come up with one of your own) to create a full-period test.

6. If desired, debrief with students by going over the essential questions with them again and remind them what the enduring understandings are.

We are dedicated to continually improving our products and working with teachers to develop exciting and effective tools for the classroom. We can offer advice on how to maximize the use of the product and share others' experiences. We would also be happy to work with you on ideas for customizing the presentation.

We value your feedback, so please let us know more about the ways in which you use this product to supplement your lessons; we're also eager to hear any recommendations you might have for ways in which we can expand the functionality of this product in future editions. You can e-mail us at access@socialstudies.com. We look forward to hearing from you.

Dr. Aaron Willis
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Medieval Europe: Backwards Planning Activities

Enduring understandings:

- The Middle Ages were the centuries following the collapse of the Western Roman Empire, when Europe began to take shape as a distinct civilization in its own right.
- Most historians reject the label “dark ages” for the Middle Ages on the ground that these were not simply centuries of ignorance lacking in any creative and unique accomplishments.
- The Middle Ages in Europe were shaped above all by the Catholic Church, the single most powerful institution in the region.
- Feudalism was a way of providing protection, security, and social order at the local level in a society where threats to order were also local and central authority was weak.
- In the late Middle Ages, monarchs began to build more powerful states based on their own feudal ties and relationships.
- The expansion of Islam from the 700s on left Europeans at first feeling vulnerable and hemmed in by a more powerful and advanced civilization to the south.
- Muslims contributed to a rebirth of learning in Europe’s Middle Ages, but conflict between Muslims and Christians continued to shape their relationships, especially during the time of the Spanish *Reconquista* and the Crusades.
- The late Middle Ages was a time of economic chaos due to intensifying warfare and the devastation of the bubonic plague. But in spite of these challenges, continuing advances in culture and learning led to a time of renewal known as the Renaissance.

Essential questions:

- How did the Germanic kingdoms that took over the Western Roman Empire differ from the society the Romans had organized in that region?
- What is feudalism, and how did medieval feudalism differ from political rule by a central authority or state, such as the one that ruled the Roman Empire?
- What factors help to explain the rise and spread of feudalism in Europe in the Middle Ages?
- Why was the Catholic Church able to play a unique role in unifying the societies of medieval Europe?
- In what ways was medieval Europe influenced and shaped by its interactions with the Muslim societies to its south?
- What factors caused the crises and troubles of the late Middle Ages?

Learning Experiences and Instruction

Students will need to know...	Students will need to be able to...
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. what the Roman Empire was 2. which Germanic peoples took control of Europe after Rome's fall 3. the role of the Catholic Church in unifying an otherwise fragmented Europe in the Middle Ages 4. how the disruption of political order in Europe helped foster the rise of feudalism 5. why relations between the Christian societies of Europe and Muslim societies were marked both by bitter conflict and creative cooperation 6. how the growing power of kings and princes often pitted them against the power and authority of the Catholic Church 7. why the late Middle Ages were a time of chaos and crisis, yet also a time of creative change. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. read and interpret primary source documents from the Middle Ages 2. understand the reasons for broad period distinctions between the "early," "high," and "late" Middle Ages 3. identify some major historical figures from this era 4. understand and debate certain key medieval controversies, especially those involving clashes of church and state 5. identify causal relationships between various events and developments of this period.

These lessons incorporate the following learning activities to help students reach the enduring understandings:

- Overview of essential questions and basic understandings
- Class discussion of subject matter questions in the presentation
- Teacher introduction of common terms and ideas in the essential questions and related projects
- Provide students with primary source materials from which they will complete the related projects in the unit
- Students conduct research in groups to be used later in individual and group projects
- Informal observation and coaching of students as they work in groups
- Evaluation and delivered feedback on projects and research reports
- Students create and present their unit projects
- Posttest made of multiple-choice questions covering the presentation, with one or more essential questions as essay questions

Project #1: Who Was Right— Pope Gregory VII or Henry IV?

Overview:

In this lesson, student groups conduct a debate about the Investiture Controversy that pitted Pope Gregory VII against the Holy Roman Emperor Henry IV in the year 1075. This clash was a pivotal event in the history of relationships between the Catholic Church and the secular monarchs of medieval Europe. The showdown between Gregory and Henry was part of a longer battle in which several popes challenged the right of secular kings and princes to appoint bishops, abbots, or other high Church officials (such appointments were called “investitures”). The underlying issue continued to divide church and state well after the clash between Gregory and Henry was over. It was only resolved by the Concordat of Worms in 1122.

Objectives:

As a result of completing the lesson, students will be able to:

- identify and better understand the views of the two sides in this historic controversy
- express these views in a meaningful and coherent manner
- understand and interpret varying and opposing points of view about the controversy and about its broader significance.

Time required:

Four class periods (with one period for the actual debate)

Materials:

Computer(s) with Internet access, a printer, the “Investiture Controversy Chart” (provided), video camera (optional), a television for playback of the debate (optional)

Procedures:

Prior to beginning the lesson, assign students to three groups:

- **Moderator group**
- **Gregory VII’s defenders**
- **Henry IV’s defenders**

Students may select the group they wish to join, or you may elect to assign them to groups based on student abilities and personalities.

Give each group three class sessions to research, read background materials, and discuss the Investiture Controversy. The Web links below are suggested sources for this reading. All students in each of the groups should complete the “Investiture Controversy Chart” provided for this lesson. At the last of these small group meetings, each group should plan out its debate-day presentation and strategy so as to fulfill their task in the debate.

A suggested format for the debate:

Moderator group: This group will prepare a ten-minute presentation describing the relevant historical context. The group should describe the basic structure of the Catholic Church hierarchy at the time, who the pope was, what bishops and abbots were, what secular as well as religious powers they had, and why the ability to appoint them was of importance to both the Church and secular rulers. They should also describe who the Holy Roman Emperor was and why the ability to appoint church officials especially mattered to him. Finally, they need to describe the Gregorian reform movement that began in the Church in the mid-1000s and what its overall importance was.

The moderator group will then supervise the debate the two other student groups carry on with each other. The moderators should remain on the sidelines but try to keep debaters focused on the issue and make sure each debator listens carefully to responses from the other side. At the end of that debate, the moderator group will field question from the rest of the class

Gregory VII’s defenders: This group will prepare a five-minute opening statement of Gregory’s position and his reasoning. Its members will present this statement at the start of the debate. They will then listen closely to the opening statement of Henry’s defenders. They will have some time to discuss that statement, and then must do two things: They should repeat back as fully and accurately as they can the key points of Henry’s defenders. They will then have five minutes in which to challenge or criticize Henry’s position.

Henry IV’s defenders: This group will prepare a five-minute opening statement of Henry’s position and his reasoning. Its members will listen closely to the opening statement of Gregory’s defenders, then present their own opening statement. They will have some time to discuss the opening statement by Gregory’s defenders, and then must do two things: They should repeat back as fully and accurately as they can the key points Gregory’s defenders make. They will then have five minutes in which to challenge or criticize Gregory’s position.

Evaluation:

At the end of the debate, evaluate student work using a suitable rubric. Two sample rubrics are included with this lesson, which you may either use or adapt to meet your individual circumstances.

Suggested Web resources:

On the Investiture Controversy

- <http://www.crusades-history.com/Investiture-Controversy.aspx>
- http://www.questia.com/library/encyclopedia/henry_iv_holy_roman_emperor_and_german_king.jsp
- <http://www.usna.edu/Users/history/abels/hh315/invest.htm>
- <http://www.the-orb.net/textbooks/nelson/investiture.html>
- <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/g7-reform2.html>
- <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/henry4-to-g7a.html>
- <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/g7-invest1.html>

On Gregory VII and papal reform

- <http://www.newadvent.org/cathen/06791c.htm>
- <http://www.nndb.com/people/953/000091680/>
- <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/g7-cde1078.html>

On Henry IV and the Holy Roman Empire

- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Henry_IV,_Holy_Roman_Emperor
- <http://www.historyforkids.org/learn/medieval/history/highmiddle/hre.htm>
- <http://www.historyworld.net/wrldhis/PlainTextHistories.asp?historyid=aa35>

Investiture Controversy Chart

Information about Gregory VII	Information about Henry IV
Gregory's views on the Investiture Controversy	Henry's views on the Investiture Controversy
Reasons for Gregory's views on the Investiture Controversy	Reasons for Henry's views on the Investiture Controversy

Investiture Controversy Rubric: Moderator Group

Category	Excellent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)	Student score
Understands historical context	Understands the context well and explains it clearly	Adequately understands the context and explains it clearly	Only partially understands and explains the context	Poorly understands the context and does not explain it clearly	
Keeps debate teams focused on topic	Identifies key points in need of clarification and helps teams address them	Identifies and explains only a few key points in need of clarification	Identifies a few points in need of clarification but cannot help teams address them	Fails to identify points in need of clarification or help teams address them	
Guides teams to listen and respond to each other	Identifies and explains well central points that the teams need to respond to more carefully	Identifies and explains only a few points the teams need to respond to	Identifies few points the teams need to clarify but fails to help the teams respond to them	Identifies no key points that the teams need to respond to more carefully	
Total score					

Investiture Controversy Rubric: Debate Groups

Category	Excellent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)	Student score
Understands historical context	Understand the context well and explains it clearly	Adequately understands context and explains it clearly	Only partially understands and explains the context	Understands the context poorly and does not explain it clearly	
Explains the group's position on the Investiture Controversy	Identifies and explains well several major points in support of Gregory's (or Henry's) views	Identifies and explains only some key points in support of Gregory's (or Henry's) views	Identifies a few points in support of Gregory's (or Henry's) views, but not major ones	Fails to identify or explain clearly any points in support of Gregory's (or Henry's) views	
Responds to the other group's position on the Investiture Controversy	Understands and responds in a relevant way to the other side's critical comments	Understands and responds in a relevant way to only some of the other side's critical comments	Only partly understands or responds to some of the other side's critical comments	Understands few of the other side's critical comments and fails to respond to them in any relevant way	
Total score					

Project #2: Illustrated Timeline and Story of the Black Death

Overview:

This lesson helps students conceptualize the spread of the Plague known as the “Black Death” by creating illustrated timelines that will help them remember key events in this transformative crisis and see the significance of relationships between these events and trends that might not otherwise be obvious.

Objectives:

As a result of completing the lesson, students will be able to:

- identify the main events and turning points in the spread of the Black Death
- visually conceptualize the progression of the disease
- better understand the causal factors in the spread of the disease and the significance of its impact on European society.

Time required:

Three class periods

Materials:

Computer(s) with Internet access, a printer, butcher paper, the “Black Death Timeline Worksheet” (provided)

Procedures:

Explain that the Black Death was in many ways a dividing point between the Late Middle Ages and the modern era to come. The Black Death did not bring about this transition, but it did create a crisis in which many changes already underway were accelerated and redirected. The Plague was confusing, terrifying, and disruptive. An illustrated timeline can help students better understand the causal connections that explain its spread and its various outcomes, as well as enable them to identify key social, cultural, economic, and political developments linked to the crisis.

Explain to the class that this activity will help them remember important events and trends linked to and arising from the spread of the Black Death, and that they will be creating illustrated timelines showing these key events, trends, and turning points. Divide the class into

pairs or groups of three. Ask groups to use the “Black Death Timeline Worksheet” to organize information they will put in their timelines. Have them refer to the suggested Internet and/or print resources to find appropriate information. The events and developments they include should be ones of major importance to Europe as a whole, or to all of Eurasia.

Each timeline should include details on most if not all of these topics.

- *What was it—bubonic plague or other diseases as well?*
- *Where did it originate?*
- *How did it get to Europe?*
- *Where in Europe did it first arrive?*
- *What were the symptoms of the disease?*
- *How was it spread?*
- *Which places were affected earliest?*
- *Which places were affected most?*
- *How did officials react to it?*
- *How did the Church react*
- *How did ordinary people react?*
- *Who were the Flagellants?*
- *What part might climate change have played?*
- *What effect did it have on population and economic life?*
- *What were its effects on society, culture, and the arts?*

Give each group a large piece of butcher paper. Ask the groups to sketch their timelines in pencil. The timelines should contain the following components. (See “Alternative method” section below.)

- A straight horizontal line with small, evenly spaced vertical lines to designate the years 1300 through 1400
- Above the horizontal timeline, place the names, and where possible illustrations, of key locations throughout Eurasia relevant to any understanding of the Black Death, how it spread, and its various consequences. These should be placed above the appropriate years on the timeline.
- Below the timeline, boxes showing at least 15 events, trends, or themes key to an understanding of the Black Death; these boxes should contain text and pictures and should be connected to the timeline with lines showing the appropriate dates or date ranges.

Ask students to double-check the dates on their timelines to make sure they are correct.

Once students have followed the steps above to create their timelines, ask them to look for cause-and-effect patterns on the timelines. Did any of the events or developments they have included

lead to others? Can they notice any other significant relationships between the things they have placed on their timelines? For each relationship they recognize, ask them to draw arrows between the relevant items.

Have students color their timelines to make them look visually appealing and to clearly distinguish the lines showing cause-and-effect from the other lines.

Display students' timelines in the classroom, and allow them time to browse the room and view other groups' timelines. As they are doing this, ask them to look for further evidence of cause-and-effect patterns during this era, as evidenced by the arrows other students have drawn.

With the timelines still displayed around the room, hold a class discussion, asking students to consider which important events of this era they think had the most impact on later events, and why.

Alternative method:

Some students may prefer to create a digital timeline. Your school may have a commercial version of a program such as *Timeliner XE*, or students can find directions on the Web on how to make timelines with a Word document, or with other free software.

Evaluation:

At the end of the debate, evaluate student work using a suitable rubric. A sample rubric is included with this lesson, which you may either use or adapt to meet your individual circumstances.

Suggested Web resources:

- <http://www.google.com/images?um=1&hl=en&tbs=isch:1&q=black+plague&revid=1113816698&sa=X&ei=FfaLTaSPM4G40QG5p8ybCw&ved=0CDQQ1QIoAQ&biw=1003&bih=435>
- http://web.archive.org/web/20080516012329/http://www.avma.org/public_health/biosecurity/plague_bgnd.asp
- <http://www.boisestate.edu/courses/westciv/plague/>
- <http://www.insecta-inspecta.com/fleas/bdeath/http://www.insecta-inspecta.com/fleas/bdeath/>
- <http://www.themiddleages.net/plague.html>
- http://www.historylearningsite.co.uk/black_death_of_1348_to_1350.htm
- <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/famin1315a.html>
- <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/boccacio2.html>
- <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/jewish/1348-jewsblackdeath.html>
- <http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/froissart2.html>
- http://www.bbc.co.uk/history/british/middle_ages/blackdisease_01.shtml

Black Death Timeline Worksheet

Topic	Facts and illustrations on this topic	Reasons for selecting these facts and illustrations
Origins of the Black Death		
Nature of the Black Death		
Spread of the Black Death		
Reactions to the Black Death		
Population and economic impact of the Black Death		
Social and cultural impact of the Black Death		

Black Death Timeline Rubric

Criteria	Excellent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)	Student score
Timeline: completeness	Extremely thorough, containing all major events and trends	Somewhat complete, containing most major events and trends	Somewhat incomplete and missing several major events and trends	Almost wholly incomplete, lacking most major events and trends	
Timeline: use of illustrations	All illustrations and maps clearly explained and related to major events and trends	Some illustrations and maps clearly explained and related to major events and trends	A few illustrations and maps clearly explained, but some unrelated to major events and trends	Fails to use illustrations to explain major events and trends	
Timeline: significance of facts and relationships	All events and trends included help to explain key causal and other relationships	Most events and trends included help to explain key causal and other relationships	Only some of the events and trends included help to explain key causal and other relationships	Few or no events and trends included help to explain key causal and other relationships	
Total score					

Project #3: Understanding Slavery and Serfdom in the Middle Ages

Overview:

This lesson helps students confront the difficulty of understanding a past era in the same way that people who lived in that era did. It does this by asking them to imagine a trip to the past to understand the difference between slavery and serfdom in the Middle Ages from the point of view of those who lived in the Middle Ages.

Objectives:

As a result of completing the lesson, students will be able to:

- describe some apparent differences between serfs and slaves
- recognize the difficulty of fully understanding the distinction between serfs and slaves as people in the Middle Ages did
- gain an appreciation of how hard it is for people now to interpret the statements and views of past eras as expressed in the primary source documents we have today.

Time required:

Three class periods

Materials:

Computer(s) with Internet access, a printer, the “Slavery and Serfdom Student Worksheet” (provided)

Procedures:

Students will read a set of nine, very brief primary source documents and meet in small groups to discuss them during two class periods. In the third class period, each group will briefly present its answers to a set of questions. The entire class will discuss the issues that these answers suggest. Explain to the class that this activity will help them learn something about serfdom and slavery in the Middle Ages. Also stress that it will help them see how hard it is to properly interpret the very old primary sources on which historical understanding of the Middle Ages is based.

Divide the class into pairs or groups of three. Ask groups to use the “Slavery and Serfdom Student Worksheet” to guide them as they discuss the nine brief primary sources for the lesson. The sources are all available from the Internet Medieval Sourcebook Web site, along with many other primary sources from the Middle Ages (<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/sbook.html>).

After discussing the sources carefully, each student should complete the “Slavery and Serfdom Student Worksheet” and use it during a class discussion of slavery and serfdom in the Middle Ages.

Evaluation:

At the end of the debate, evaluate student work using a suitable rubric. A sample rubric is included with this lesson, which you may either use or adapt to meet your individual circumstances.

Web resources—The primary sources:

1. Around 600 CE, Pope Gregory I discusses the freeing of slaves and serfs.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/506agdechurchslaves.html>
2. In 731 CE, Pope Gregory III forbids the selling of slaves to pagans for the purpose of sacrificial rituals.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/731Greg3.html>
3. In 755 CE, the Archbishop of Mainz complains to the pope about priests’ selling serfs into slavery.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/755Lullo.html>
4. Some rulings by Charlemagne on the protection of the serf in status and place, as well as on protests by serfs in France, Germany, and Italy.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/803carol-coloni.html>
5. Some punishments for murdering slaves, as passed by the Council of Worms in 876 CE.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/876Worms.html>
6. A gift of serfs to a monastery in 938 CE.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/938Giftserf.html>
7. Gebhard, Bishop of Constance encourages serfs on his episcopal domain in 990 CE to learn crafts.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/990serfcrafts.html>
8. Around 1120 CE, Peter the Venerable defends the keeping of serfs by monasteries.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/1120Petebern.html>
9. In 1204 CE, Pope Innocent III comments on the keeping of slaves by Jews in France.
<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/source/1204Jewslave.html>

Slavery and Serfdom Student Worksheet

<p>Which document most seems to suggest that slavery and serfdom in the Middle Ages were the same?</p>	<p>Document ____ Explain your choice:</p>
<p>Which document most seems to show how slavery and serfdom differed?</p>	<p>Document ____ Explain your choice:</p>
<p>Which document is the hardest to interpret regarding the differences between slavery and serfdom?</p>	<p>Document ____ Explain your choice:</p>
<p>In your own words, what do you think the key differences were between slavery and serfdom in the Middle Ages?</p>	

Slavery and Serfdom Rubric

Category	Excellent (4)	Good (3)	Fair (2)	Poor (1)	Student score
Explaining why each primary source document was chosen	Extremely careful explanations of all chosen documents	Adequate explanations of all chosen documents	Adequate explanations of some but not all chosen documents	No or only vague explanations of the chosen documents	
Making comparisons among the primary source documents chosen	All document comparisons clear and relevant to the questions asked	Most document comparisons are clear and relevant to the questions asked	Document comparisons are clear but not relevant to the questions asked	Document comparisons are neither clear nor relevant to the questions asked	
Understanding of the differences between medieval slavery and serfdom	Good understanding of the differences, along with a sense of how hard it is to grasp this distinction fully	Good understanding of the differences, but with little sense of how hard it is to grasp this distinction fully	Adequate understanding of the differences, but with no sense of how hard it is to grasp this distinction fully	Little understanding of the differences, and no sense of how hard it is to grasp this distinction fully	
Total score					

Extension Activities

Castle Exploration:

The castle was an important part of the feudal experience. They were built for military advantage, as grand residences, and, of course, to impress and intimidate neighbors. Students should pick a castle from the list below and use the library, the Internet, and other resources to research these grand castles. Why were they built? What special features do they contain? What have they been used for throughout the ages? What remains of these buildings today?

- Avignon
- Bodiam Castle
- Bothwell Castle
- Caerlaverock Castle
- Ciechanow Castle
- Crathes Castle
- Dover Castle
- Edinburgh Castle
- Falkenstein
- Harman Castle
- Karlstein Castle
- Lindisfarne Castle
- Mont-Saint-Michel
- Neuschwanstein
- Pfalzgrafenstein
- Tarascon
- Wartburg
- Warwick Castle

Mapping the Crusades:

On an outline map of Europe (available in most curriculum materials or on the Internet), trace the routes of the Crusades, distinguishing each crusade by color. After tracing the routes, use a historical atlas, an encyclopedia, or the Internet to determine which major cities might have witnessed marching soldiers, which were dominated by those with or without Christian beliefs, and what types of transportation would have been used by soldiers.

Disease Epidemics in History:

Although the Black Death is among the most noted of disease outbreaks, others have occurred throughout world history. Research other epidemics throughout world history (listed below) and report your findings using the following chart.

Name	Disease	Years	Location	Number Dead	Interesting Fact
Peloponnesian War					
Antonine Plague					
Plague of Justinian					
Black Death					
First Cholera Pandemic					
Great Influenza Pandemic					

Discussion Questions

1. Could an outbreak of disease like the Plague happen today? What effects might it have on modern society?
2. Does chivalry exist today? In what fields?
3. Were the Crusades justified? If not, under what conditions is a crusade justified?
4. Was there anything positive about the feudal system?

Web Sites

The Camelot Project

<http://www.lib.rochester.edu/camelot/cphome.stm>

The Camelot Project is a scholarly Web site that seeks to catalog and distribute primary and secondary sources, bibliographic information, and images of the mythical King Arthur. The site provides extraordinary insight on the feudal age and could serve as a springboard to a lecture on the subject, an interesting project, or a teacher or student resource.

Vikings: The North Atlantic Saga

<http://www.mnh.si.edu/vikings/>

From the Smithsonian, this Web site details the traveling exhibit on the subject of the Vikings in North America. It includes detailed descriptions of the exhibit and a well-done multimedia presentation on the history, geography, and the controversy surrounding the Vikings.

The Internet Medieval Sourcebook

<http://www.fordham.edu/halsall/sbook.html>

Maintained at Fordham University, the Internet Medieval Sourcebook is a treasure trove of primary source documents as well as multimedia content covering a wide variety of medieval Europe topics. Some of the documents are full-text, others have been carefully trimmed for classroom use.

The Crusades

<http://boisestate.edu/courses/crusades/>

This is the main site for the full content of the virtual college course offered through Boise State University. It contains detailed information on each crusade as well as links to useful and informative off-site pages. The site is updated for each session of the class.

Medieval Europe: Multiple-Choice Quiz

1. What marked the end of the medieval era?
 - A. The rise of ancient Rome
 - B. The Renaissance
 - C. The rise of the Byzantine Empire
 - D. The rise of the Catholic Church
2. The invasion of which group signaled the end of the Roman Empire?
 - A. Germanic tribes
 - B. The Huns
 - C. African tribes
 - D. All of the above
3. Who was the first Frankish ruler to establish a large European kingdom?
 - A. Attila
 - B. Clovis
 - C. Charles
 - D. Franklyn
4. Who established the largest empire after the fall of Rome?
 - A. Chalemagne
 - B. Charles Martel
 - C. Pepin
 - D. Zacharius
5. What are the raiders from Scandinavia called?
 - A. Huns
 - B. Sarazens
 - C. Vikings
 - D. Goths

6. The Franks dominated which part of Europe?
 - A. British Isles
 - B. Iberian Peninsula
 - C. Italian Peninsula
 - D. Central Europe
7. From where did the concept of feudalism originate?
 - A. Roman Empire
 - B. Byzantine Empire
 - C. Norman France
 - D. Iberian Peninsula
8. Who is at the top of the feudal power structure?
 - A. Peasants
 - B. Nobles
 - C. Lesser nobles
 - D. The monarchy
9. The knight most often came from which class?
 - A. Peasants
 - B. Nobles
 - C. The monarchy
 - D. All of the above frequently provided men who became knights
10. What was the code of honor that knights were expected to live by called?
 - A. The Knight Code of Honor
 - B. Chivalry
 - C. Christianity
 - D. Tournament rules
11. Castles were used for:
 - A. military defense and offense
 - B. residence
 - C. intimidation
 - D. all of the above

12. St. Benedict of Nursia was the model for what movement?
- A. Jesuits
 - B. Medieval scholarship
 - C. Monasticism
 - D. Medieval music
13. Which area was not likely explored by the Vikings?
- A. Italian Peninsula
 - B. British Isles
 - C. India
 - D. Greenland and Iceland
14. Where did the Capetian dynasty rule?
- A. England
 - B. Italy
 - C. Spain
 - D. France
15. Feudalism was imported to England under:
- A. William the Conqueror
 - B. King John
 - C. Charlemagne
 - D. Justinian
16. The House of Lords and the House of Commons are components of the:
- A. French monarchy
 - B. British Parliament
 - C. Crusades
 - D. Byzantine government
17. The Magna Carta was forced upon the King of which nation?
- A. France
 - B. Spain
 - C. Holy Roman Empire
 - D. England

18. What area of Europe did the Muslims dominate, causing a centuries-long struggle for independence?
- A. France
 - B. England
 - C. Spain
 - D. Italian Peninsula
19. What was sparked by Pope Urban II's famous 1095 speech?
- A. The Crusades
 - B. The Hundred Years' War
 - C. The Inquisition
 - D. The Great Schism
20. Where did the Plague originate?
- A. Asia
 - B. Africa
 - C. North America
 - D. Europe

Medieval Europe: Multiple-Choice Quiz Answer Key

1. B
2. D
3. B
4. A
5. C
6. D
7. A
8. D
9. B
10. B
11. D
12. C
13. C
14. D
15. A
16. B
17. D
18. C
19. A
20. A

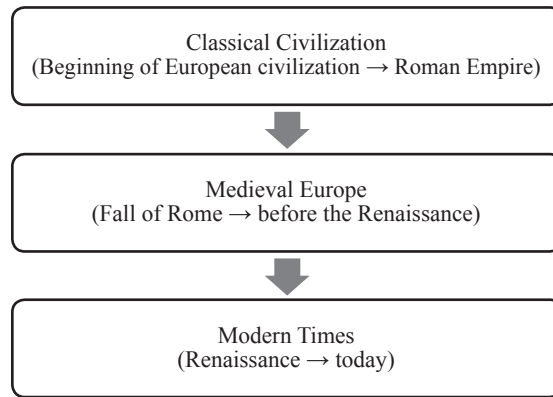


Knights in armor, the Crusades, castles and great cathedrals, the Black Death, the Magna Carta—all of these are part of the historical period called the Middle Ages, also known as the medieval era. When was this, and how did this period influence the development of Western civilization?

Essential Questions

- How did the Germanic kingdoms that took over the Western Roman Empire differ from the society the Romans had organized in that region?
- What is feudalism, and how did medieval feudalism differ from political rule by a central authority or state, such as the one that ruled the Roman Empire?
- What factors help to explain the rise and spread of feudalism in Europe in the Middle Ages?
- Why was the Catholic Church able to play a unique role in unifying the societies of medieval Europe?
- In what ways was medieval Europe influenced and shaped by its interactions with the Muslim societies to its south?
- What factors caused the crises and troubles of the late Middle Ages?

Defining the Medieval Period

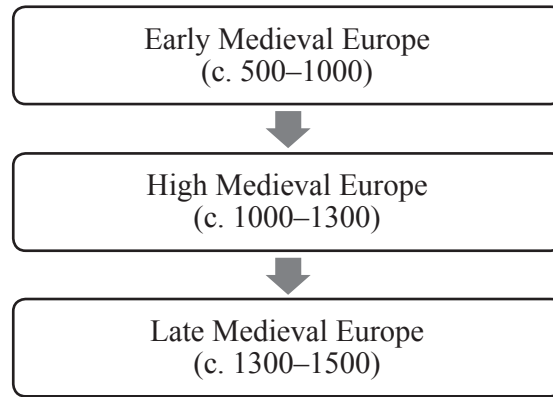


This time period has also been called the
“Middle Ages” and the “Dark Ages.”

There is some debate concerning the beginning and the end of the medieval period. Historians usually place the medieval era from approximately 500 CE to 1500 CE, or the period between the fall of the Roman Empire and the beginning of the Renaissance. Europe during this time period has also been called:

- the Middle Ages: This refers to the fact that this time is situated between classical Europe and more modern times. “Medieval” comes from the Latin *medium aevum*, which translates as “the middle period” or “Middle Ages.”
- the Dark Ages: This was a term used in the 15th and 16th centuries by those who believed the era lacked social or artistic worth—a somewhat unfair criticism. Historians generally avoid using this overtly judgmental term.

Medieval Europe: Stages



The Middle Ages can be broken down into three time periods, each made distinctive by major civilization-changing events:

- Early Middle Ages: After the fall of the Roman Empire, small independent kingdoms arose throughout western Europe. This era also witnessed the birth of feudalism, a system of sovereignty and protection which is discussed later in this presentation.
- High Middle Ages: During this era, Christianity became a dominant force, uniting western Europe under the authority of the Catholic Church. The Crusades occurred during this time period, allowing territorial leaders to bring diverse groups together and command authority by ordering people to defend their beliefs against the mounting threat of Islam.
- Late Middle Ages: This era was characterized by the decline of feudalism and the rise of nation-states ruled by royal families. Events during this time period also included the Hundred Years' War and the spread of the bubonic plague (the "Black Death"), which killed between one-third and one-half of the population of Europe.

The Fall of the Roman Empire

- Beginning of the Middle Ages
- Invasions from all sides
- End of the Roman emperors



What has been referred to as the fall of the Roman Empire marked the beginning of the medieval era, and it also contributed to the social and political climate of Europe for centuries afterwards. Historians note that the Roman Empire, especially the city of Rome, fell for multiple reasons; one of the most significant reasons was the invasion of barbarian tribes. Rome was under constant threat of invasion from all sides, including Germanic tribes from north-central Europe, the Huns from Asia, and African tribes in the south. Several barbarian tribes eventually did attack, particularly in the west. Germanic invaders from the north took lands as far south as Greece. Rome itself was sacked by Visigoths in 410 and by Vandals in 455, and finally in 476, Germanic invaders overthrew the last of the Roman emperors.

The Barbarian Invasions



Europe in 814

- From Asia:
Huns and
Magyars
- From the
Germanic
north:
Saxons,
Angles,
and Goths

The founders of Europe's future nations settled in the European mainland during the early medieval period. Invaders from Asia (namely the Huns and the Magyars) and Germanic tribes (including the Saxons, Angles, and Goths) became less nomadic and created permanent settlements. Although many of the kingdoms created were short-lived and unstable, they marked a new era of European development of population centers away from Rome.

Rise of the Germanic Peoples



Invasion of the Goths into the Roman Empire,
a 19th-century painting

- Ostrogoths:
Italian peninsula
- Visigoths: modern-day Spain
- Angles and Saxons:
modern-day Britain
- Franks:
central Europe

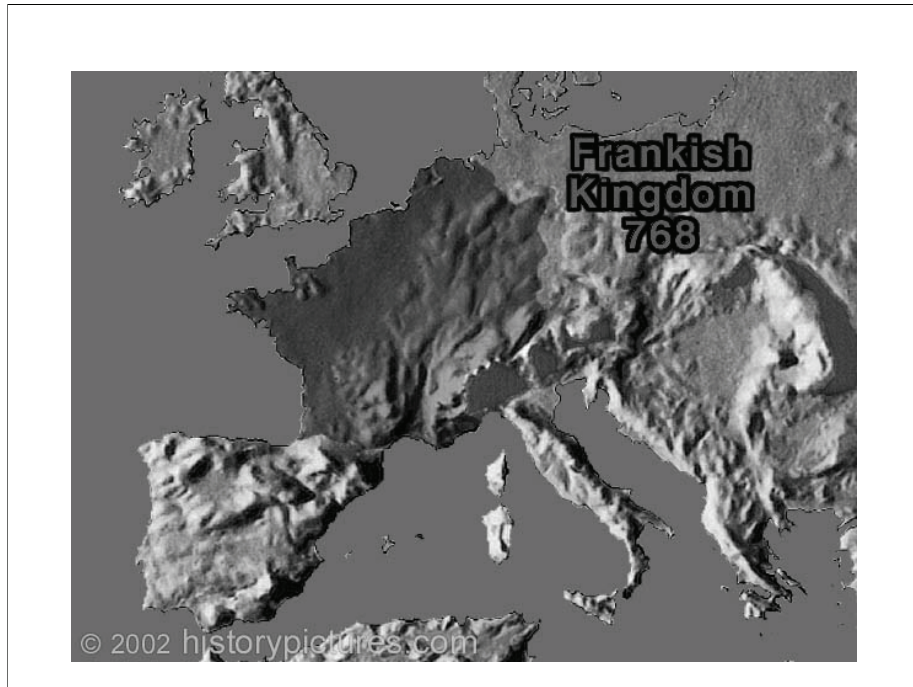
After the Germanic invasions, Roman influence merged with the Germanic culture and peoples in different ways. The Ostrogoths (in the Italian peninsula) preserved Roman governmental structure and traditions. The Visigoths, located in modern-day Spain, kept Roman traditions but installed Germanic leaders. In the British Isles, the Angles and Saxons each carved out portions to create their own kingdoms. The strongest of Germanic tribes was the Franks, located in central Europe, who gained much of their strength under Clovis and Charlemagne.

Clovis (466–511)

- Established a Frankish kingdom in central Europe
- Conquered many competing tribes and regional Roman political leaders
- Converted to Christianity



In 486, the Franks defeated the last major Roman army in Gaul (present-day France) then subdued other tribes and minor rulers in the area to establish the first Frankish kingdom. Clovis, the first Frankish king, had a brilliant military career and dramatically expanded the holdings of his empire through battles with both competing tribes and remaining regional Roman political leaders. During his reign, he converted to Christianity—supposedly after praying to Jesus during a battle. This helped to establish bonds with Christians now under his rule through military conquest.



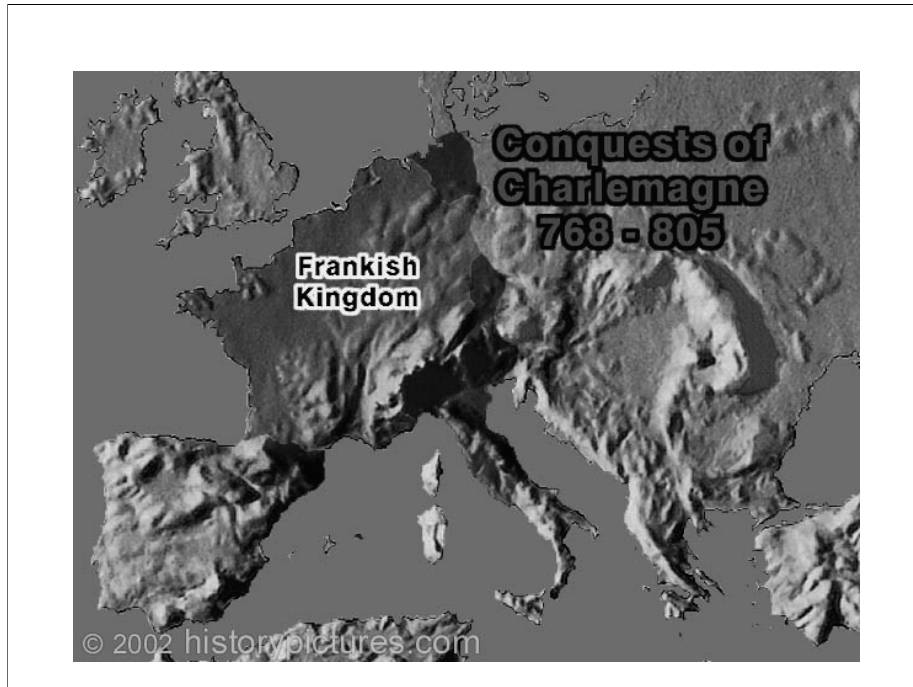
After the death of Clovis, Charles Martel became leader of the Franks. He continued to expand and defend the Frankish kingdom, including the defeat of Muslim invaders in 732. After his death, his son, Pepin, asked the head of the church, Pope Zacharias, to recognize him as king. The pope agreed, and Pepin became the first Frankish king to rule with papal blessing. Pepin ruled until 768. His successor, Charles, continued the relationship between the Frankish kingdom and the Church and expanded it further.

Charlemagne (742–814)

- Powerful leader, strong Christian
- Founded the Carolingian Empire
- Crowned by Pope Leo III as the first Holy Roman Emperor



Pepin's son, Charles, became leader of the largest empire since the Romans. Known as Charlemagne ("Charles the Great"), he was another fierce military leader who sought to expand the Frankish empire. The vast new territory that he created became known as the Carolingian Empire. During his rise to power, Charlemagne was summoned by Pope Leo III, who crowned him Emperor of the Romans (or Holy Roman Emperor), uniting the Roman, Christian, and Germanic cultures and traditions.



Charlemagne defeated the Lombards to the south, the Saxons to the north, and the Slavs to the east. After Charlemagne's death, his empire quickly fell apart as his grandsons fought one another for control. Powerful local nobles came to control land interests throughout Europe, leading to a decentralization of power. Adding to the disorder were constant raids carried out by Scandinavian warriors known as Vikings.

The Vikings

- Warrior culture from Scandinavia
- Raided Europe
- Established settlements throughout Europe and even in North America



A Viking longboat

The Vikings were a warrior culture from Scandinavia, hailing from the areas we now know as Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. Scholars disagree about the reasons why the Vikings began to aggressively raid other cultures and settle their lands. Overcrowding in the Viking homelands may have forced them to seek new territory; crop failures or a desire to find new trade outlets may also have been factors. Viking settlers ended up as far south as the Mediterranean, as far east as modern-day Russia, and as far west as modern-day Iceland, Greenland, and even Canada. They overran a large area of northwestern France and called it Norsemanland, later known as Normandy.



Charlemagne's heirs had difficulty maintaining law and order in the kingdom's fragmented territories, and the Vikings gained footholds in many areas of the Carolingian Empire. Though they had success in the ninth century venturing into the European mainland, the Vikings eventually lost their edge as the growing kingdoms of Europe developed new, more effective ways to organize and defend themselves.

Discussion Questions

1. The Middle Ages are seen as a time between the fall of the Western Roman Empire and the Renaissance. Why do you think many historians see these events especially as marking the start and the end of an age? Some historians criticize the concept of labeling these centuries a “middle” age between two other times, rather than giving them a name of its own. Why do you think this is?
2. The Romans often referred to the Germanic peoples who invaded and undermined the empire as “barbarian tribes.” Why do you think they referred to these groups as “barbarians”? How justified were they in describing these tribes this way?
3. The Middle Ages have often also been called the Dark Ages—especially the first five centuries or so after the fall of Rome. What about this period do you think has led so many to do this? Do you think this label is useful as a way of understanding this era? Why or why not?

1. Answers will vary and should be discussed. They should give students a chance to express what they already know about the Roman Empire and the Renaissance, and to explain why it does or does not make sense to conceptualize a time as essentially in the middle between them, rather than as a unique age.
2. To Romans, these tribes seemed to lack certain things the Romans considered basic to their own civilization, such as literacy, a strong central government, law codes, cities, etc. However, students should debate whether the term “barbarian” falsely suggests these Germanic societies were far more primitive than they were—after all, they did learn from Rome in many ways and did win out in the contest for control in Europe.
3. The decline in literacy and the loss of European awareness of many works of classical Roman and Greek culture and literature help explain the use of the term “dark.” Negative views of religious dogma as unenlightened superstition also influenced the view of these centuries in which the Church was the central force in medieval society. Students should understand that the term “dark” is based on judgments that may be biased or lacking in real understanding.

Feudalism



A French vassal receiving a feudal grant from the king

- A political, economic, and social system in which land was allocated in exchange for services
- Roles and obligations were clearly defined for all participants
- Grew out of Roman practices of clientage/patronage
- Originally developed as a means of protection and defense

Feudalism developed out of peoples' need for protection against invaders and landowners' need to defend their property. The feudal system grew out of the practices of "clientage" or "patronage" which had existed under the Roman Empire; these practices involved smaller landowners' placing themselves under the protection of larger landowners, usually in exchange for payment or goods. In medieval feudalism, individual monarchs throughout Europe were unable to afford protection of their empires, so they gave trusted soldiers parcels of land in exchange for their promise to defend it and make it useful.

Feudalism appeared in Europe during the 700s in the areas we know now as France and Germany, as weak governments sought solutions to the question of how to provide security with limited resources. By the 1000s, most of western Europe practiced some form of feudalism.

Roles in the Feudal System

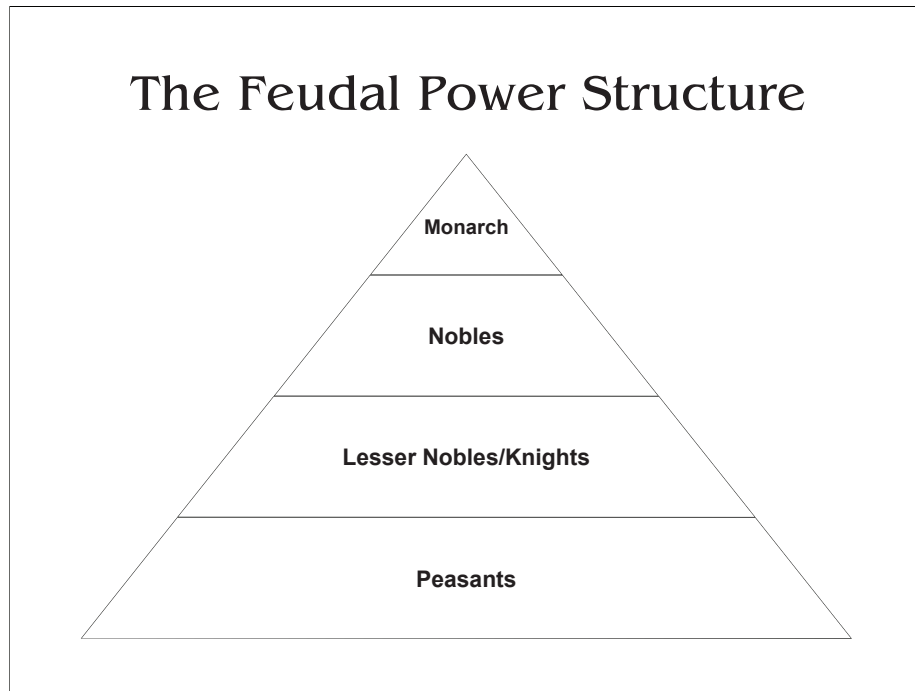
- Lord
- Vassal
- Fief
- Manor
- Serf



Feudal serfs

- Lord: a landowner, usually a noble, although sometimes lords were bishops
- Vassal: a person (usually a soldier) given a piece of land by a lord
- Fief: the land itself that is given
- Manor (sometimes referred to in the context of the “manorial system”): a basic unit of land, usually big enough for the supervision of a single noble or knight
- Serf: Though it technically translates as “slave,” the word “serf” (often used interchangeably with “peasant”) refers to a worker on the lord’s manor. Serfs weren’t technically slaves, but they had no legal rights and were compelled to work on their assigned land.

The Feudal Power Structure



In most European feudal relationships, a power structure evolved that remained intact for several centuries. At the top of the pyramid was the monarch, who granted autonomous control over different parts of the kingdom to nobles. These nobles became “vassals” of the monarch, and in exchange for land, each vassal swore an oath of “fealty,” or loyalty to the monarch. Although the nobles were powerful, they often subdivided their land grants to lesser nobles or knights who then became the vassals of the noble in much the same capacity as the nobles served the monarch. The vast majority of people in the feudal system were peasants—very poor individuals who were responsible for tending the land. All of these relationships were based on exchange: the monarch granted land in exchange for management, the nobles granted land and protection in exchange for goods, and the lesser nobles granted protection in exchange for goods. All levels of society were bound by loyalty to the level above them.

Knights

- Elite military soldiers
- Usually from the noble classes
- Stages of training: page, squire, knight
- Chivalry



Statue of a medieval knight

Knights tended to be vassals of nobles. In exchange for land, they would swear an oath of fealty to the noble and agree to fight for and protect them. Horses, heavy armor, and weapons were expensive, which meant that elite warriors usually came from the noble classes or were financed by them. There were two types of soldiers in feudal Europe: common foot soldiers (usually peasants forced into service) and knights (elite warriors).

A knight's training was rigorous and took a great deal of time: boys were often chosen to be knights early in life so that training could begin. Milestones in a knight's life were as follows:

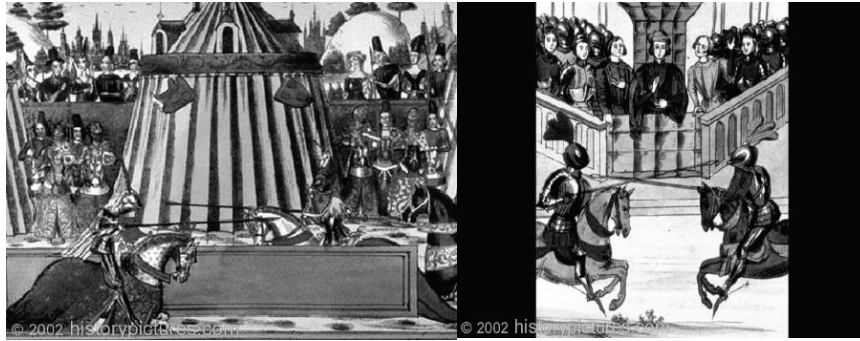
- Age 7: served as a page, an attendant in the personal service of an individual knight; given basic lessons in horsemanship and basic hand-to-hand fighting skills
- Age 14: successful students would be granted the title of "squire," which included sword privileges and increasingly difficult physical challenges and tasks, such as assisting a knight in battle
- Age 21: formally qualified to become a knight

Knighthood could be achieved in one of two ways: usually, a squire would be knighted as a rite of passage at the end of his training; however, he could also be granted knighthood after a particular act of bravery.

Knights were supposed to live by a code of behavior known as "chivalry," which required them to remain loyal to their lords, fight with honor, treat all with justice, and act politely towards women. Although chivalry has often been celebrated and idealized in literature and popular imagination, many historians note that it wasn't universally practiced and its rules were often ignored.

The Medieval Tournament

Means of practicing military skills



Knights practiced their military skills in exercises known as “tournaments”—mock battles that involved both real weapons and actual combat (though some tournaments outlawed points on swords). Tournaments ranged from small affairs with a handful of knights to grand, staged affairs played out in front of large audiences. Rules varied throughout the ages, but as tournaments became more violent, the various monarchs of Europe sought to limit—or, in some cases, to ban—the practice. Another popular sport in late medieval Europe was jousting, which involved two knights charging at each other on horseback and attempting to dismount one another.

Castles

- Centers of noble life
- Purposes included residence, intimidation, military defense



Warwick Castle, England

Castles were centers of life for nobles and knights, serving as homes and fortresses. Building a castle was often a lifelong pursuit for nobles; some castles would even take several generations to complete. Castles were usually constructed by serfs and masons (craftsmen who worked with stone). Once erected, these buildings would serve a number of purposes:

- Intimidation: Castles were often built in the spirit of competition with other nobles, friendly or otherwise. A large castle could serve as a sign of a noble's strength, esteem, or power. Castles were often situated at the highest point in a region so they could be seen from great distances.
- Military defense: Castles were most certainly built with military use in mind. They had clever defensive designs, incorporating elements such as moats, large watchtowers, and high walls. Castles were sometimes built on the outer regions of a noble's land grant as a means of encroaching on another noble's territory.
- Residence: Nobles and their families lived in castles. The castles of the higher nobles were often lavishly decorated, with rich tapestries on the walls, grand halls, and music rooms.

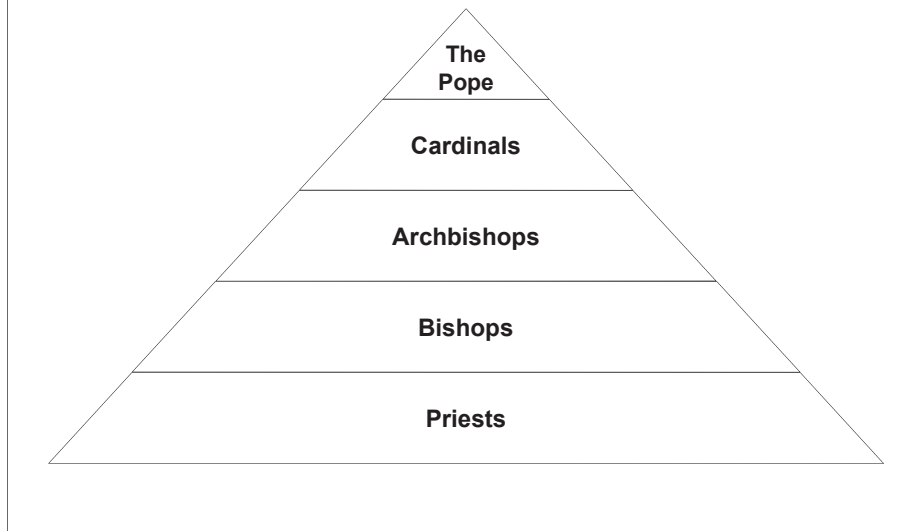
Castles were dark, lit only by torches and fireplaces. The rooms were large and drafty because windows did not have glass in them.

Discussion Questions

1. What trends or events in the early Middle Ages help explain why feudalism became an effective way to provide protection and security to people in various parts of Europe?
2. From the point of view of a monarch in the Middle Ages, what advantages can you see to accepting a system of feudal relationships, as opposed to trying to rule directly over an entire population? What would the disadvantages be?
3. Knights were expected to live according to a code of chivalry. Yet many historians say this code was often ignored in practice. Why then do you think a code of chivalry was seen as such a key part of the whole concept of knighthood?

1. Continual invasions of Germanic peoples at first fragmented the old Roman Empire's unity. Later, invasions by Vikings, nomadic peoples such as the Magyars, and Muslims along the southern edges of Europe all forced people to rely on local lords and knights for protection and security.
2. The advantage of feudalism to a king was the ability it gave him to enlist the support of powerful nobles, by making them his vassals and allowing them to take on knights as vassals of their own. The disadvantage was in relying on a number of powerful nobles who could be much more independent and harder to control than appointed officials of a bureaucracy.
3. Answers may vary, but students should see that chivalry added to the prestige or image of knighthood and might have "humanized" these powerful military figures, making them less frightening or more appealing.

Catholic Church Hierarchy



The Catholic Church provided one of the few unifying elements in Europe after the Fall of Rome. During medieval times, the Church developed a strict hierarchy which still exists today. The levels of this hierarchy include:

- The pope: leader of the Catholic Church, director of Church policy
- Cardinals: appointed by the pope, they both advise the pope and select his successor when he dies.
- Archbishop: the supervisor of a large region or major city
- Bishop: the priest in charge of a particular region or church-government post
- Priest: a minister who performs most day-to-day Church activities; usually associated with a specific church or church organization

The Catholic Church Expands Its Power

- The Church became a more political entity
- Struggles with monarchs
 - Investiture Controversy
 - Pope Gregory VII vs. Henry IV
- Expanded land ownership



Pope Gregory VII



Henry IV of Germany

As the Catholic Church grew in popularity, popes worked to increase the Church's power as a political entity. As kingdoms came and went in the early Middle Ages, many popes asserted that their authority was equal to or greater than the various political leaders of Europe.

In 1075, the Investiture Controversy erupted when Pope Gregory VII insisted that the Church, not kings, should control the appointment of archbishops, bishops, and other clergy. Henry IV of Germany disagreed and, after the two men exchanged bitter letters, the pope excommunicated Henry. The pope also threatened to excommunicate any German clergy who did not obey him. Since much of Henry's army came from lands administered by the Church, he was vulnerable to attack from powerful nobles. Henry went to Italy to seek papal forgiveness; at the same time, the pope started a journey to Germany to install a new king. They met at a castle in Canossa, Italy, where Henry stood in the snow for three days before Gregory forgave him. Though this episode resulted in a dramatic collapse of royal power, the pope was unable to control other European monarchs in the same manner. The rivalry between Church and state continued for centuries; however, there was no question that Europe was united under the Christian faith.

Throughout this era, the Catholic Church dramatically expanded its property holdings and became the largest single landowner in Europe—in the process making it extremely wealthy. Many popes hoped to use the growing power and wealth of the Church to unify Europe into a large, Christian state.

The Monastic Movement



St. Benedict

- Became popular in the fifth century
- A reaction against the increasing “worldliness” of the Church
- Monasteries: secluded religious communities
- Benedictine monasticism: vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience

A Christian movement called “monasticism,” which had begun in the third century, became more popular in the fifth century. Concern about the growing “worldliness” of the church led to criticism by those who felt that a meditative life organized under strict regulations of silence, obedience, physical labor, and religious practices was closer to the true meaning of Christianity. Throughout Europe, religious men and women established secluded enclaves called “monasteries,” that were dedicated to these ideals. Men in these communities were called “monks,” while women were known as “nuns.” They lived simple lives, often in basic communal dwellings.

The most prevalent model of the time was Benedictine monasticism, modeled after the life of Saint Benedict of Nursia (480–543). Benedictine monasticism involved taking three vows: chastity, poverty, and obedience. Most monks lived highly structured lives and engaged in activities such as producing copies of classical works (which they did by writing out the complete work by hand), reading, studying, and manual labor—especially farming, which would often serve as a monastery’s main source of economic support.

The Inquisition

- New orders: Franciscans and Dominicans
- The Inquisition: a special court established by the Church to combat heresy
- Accused heretics sometimes tortured
- Convicted heretics burned at the stake



A suspected heretic being tortured by the Inquisition

Monasticism was not the only new movement in the Church. Other new religious orders such as the the Franciscans and Dominicans dedicated themselves to working in the community rather than retiring from it. Founded in the early 13th century, the Franciscans and Dominicans were both mendicant orders—members took vows of poverty and depended on charity to support them so that they could devote all their time to preaching and aiding the poor and downtrodden. The orders were also a response to the growing number of heretics who had become disillusioned with the Church and were interested in ideas contrary to Church doctrine. They hoped that providing examples of religious men and women leading “godly” lives in service to the community would draw people back to the Church.

Many continued to deviate from Church doctrine, so in 1233 the Church established a special court called the Inquisition in order to combat heresy. The Dominicans, who were usually highly educated and skilled in debate, were often chosen to direct the operation of the Inquisition. Accused heretics were brought before the Inquisition and if they admitted error, they would be released after a penance was administered. If they were slow, or uncooperative, they would be tortured. A convicted heretic was burned at the stake.

The University



A map of medieval European universities

- Need for administrators
- Muslim knowledge, renewed interest in classical works
- *Universitas*

As new kingdoms and the Church grew during the early Middle Ages, so did the need for educated, capable administrators. Prior to the 1100s, education had taken place within monasteries or in large urban cathedrals run by bishops. In addition, Muslim schools in cities such as Cordoba and Baghdad had preserved and promoted the study of writings from ancient Greece and Rome. As knowledge from these schools made its way to the rest of Europe, it stimulated a renewed interest in classical writings such as the works of Aristotle, the study of law, philosophy, and medicine. Groups of students and teachers in Europe would gather to study in groups each known as a “guild,” or an *universitas* in Latin. These evolved into universities. The first European universities developed in Salerno and Bologna, Italy. Others were established in Paris, France, and in Oxford and Cambridge in England.

Discussion Questions

1. Henry IV's power depended on the fealty of powerful vassals to supply him with knights and foot soldiers—i.e., on feudal ties and relationships. However, this actually gave Pope Gregory VII an advantage over him in their showdown in 1075. Why was this?
2. Monasteries were places where men and women lived lives based on the principles of "chastity, poverty, and obedience." Yet many monastic orders became wealthy and powerful during the Middle Ages. Why do you think this was so? Does this mean that monasticism failed on its own terms, or succeeded? Explain.
3. The Middle Ages saw the rise of both the Inquisition and of universities as independent institutions of learning. Do these two developments seem basically compatible with each other, or at odds with one another in some ways? Why?

1. Many of Henry IV's vassals were churchmen whom the pope also controlled in many key ways. The pope could therefore threaten to undermine Henry's own base of support. In a broader sense, the conflict shows how the Catholic Church's more tightly structured hierarchy helped to make it powerful in the context of the feudal political order.
2. Given the values of chastity, poverty, and obedience, monasteries could organize their members to work diligently, efficiently, and cheaply producing crops or other goods for sale. Whether this means the monasteries undercut their own reasons for existing is a matter students should discuss and debate.
3. Answers may vary and should be discussed. Some may see the Inquisition as hostile to the values of open discussion that should prevail in an institution of higher learning. Others may see the Inquisition as the Church's way of protecting its key doctrines, thereby making it more confident that it could take the risk of allowing the growth of learning within the universities.

France

- Hugh Capet (938–996)
- Philip II (1180–1222)
- Philip IV (1285–1314)
- Most powerful kingdom in Europe by the 14th century



Hugh Capet

Beginning in the eighth century, foundations were laid for many modern European nations. Although their borders would remain fluid for many coming centuries, the political basis of countries like France, England, and Spain began to appear.

In 987, the Capetian dynasty assumed French rule under Hugh Capet (“Capet” is a nickname meaning “wearing a cape”). At the time, France was a collection of semi-independent states that included Normandy, Flanders, Anjou, and Aquitaine. Capet thus had limited royal authority and the nobles in the territories gave him only token allegiance.

Later, Philip II managed to bring several feudal territories claimed by England under French control. His military successes also enabled him to gain more authority over the nobility. By the reign of Philip IV (1285–1314), France had become the most powerful state in Europe.

England



William the Conqueror

- 1066: Norman conquest
- William the Conqueror (1027–1087)
 - Brought feudalism to England
- Henry II (1154–1189)
 - Instituted a single common law code; unified court system

In 1066, the Normans—a French-speaking group of Viking descendants who had settled in northern France—invaded England and toppled the Saxon king. Under William the Conqueror, the Normans established an Anglo-Norman government that slowly integrated traditional customs of the region with Norman traditions. William the Conqueror imported French-style feudalism into England.

After William's death in 1087, England went through a time of brief destabilization as his heirs fought over his titles and property. The country regained its strength under Henry II (1154–1189). Henry instituted a single common law code which applied equally to citizens; he also created a unified court system which included jury trials.

Magna Carta (1215)

- Conflict between King John and the English nobility
- Nobles rebelled against excessive taxation, forced John to sign the Magna Carta
- Formal recognition that the king was not above the law



A photograph of the Magna Carta

England experienced many instances of conflict between the king and the nobility. The situation became critical under King John. In an effort to raise money for war against France, John levied excessive taxes, thereby weakening his support throughout the country. After John was defeated in France, the nobles rebelled against him and forced him to sign the Magna Carta (Latin for “Great Charter”), a document that guaranteed rights to nobles and dramatically limited the power of the king. In practice, it meant that a “great council” made up of the king’s leading vassals had to approve any taxes levied beyond the king’s personal revenue. In theory, the Magna Carta established the principle that the king was not above the law. Ordinary English people did not benefit from this immediately, but over time the principles of the document were extended to protect the rights of all citizens.

Development of Parliament



Edward I

- Henry III (1216–1272)
- Edward I (1239–1307)
- Original parliament
 - House of Lords: nobles and church lords
 - House of Commons: knights and residents
- Approved taxes, discussed policies, worked with the monarch to make laws

As the 13th century progressed, English kings continually needed money—especially for war. The great council, later called “Parliament” (from the French *parler*, meaning “to speak”), wanted to control royal spending—and the power of the monarch. When Henry III resisted Parliament’s attempt to extend its influence, a rebellion ensued. Henry was temporarily removed and replaced by a parliament led by one of the nobles. Henry’s son Edward I retok the throne in 1265. Edward wanted to be granted the power to collect more money from the people and called for two knights from every county and two residents from every town to be assembled with the king’s Great Council. This was considered to be England’s first representative parliament. Eventually, Parliament was organized into two tiers: the House of Lords was made up of noblemen and church leaders, while the House of Commons comprised knights and town residents. Parliament approved taxes, discussed policies, and worked with the monarch to make laws.

Italian City-States

- Several on the Italian Peninsula
- Changed hands often; controlled by Germanic tribes, Byzantines, the French
- Rome and the Papal States remained important



Medieval Italy

After the fall of the Roman Empire, the various states located on the Italian peninsula remained independent of one another. Often referred to as “city-states” because many comprised an area only as large as a single city, these territories were sometimes controlled by Germanic tribes and were at other times under the rule of the Byzantines or the French. One of the few exceptions was the Papal States, which included the city of Rome. This area remained important due to its location as the headquarters of the Catholic Church.

Discussion Questions

1. The power of the French kings grew slowly over several centuries in the Middle Ages. Explain why the feudal basis of the king's power and authority made it hard for French kings to unify their lands quickly.
2. In England, the Magna Carta was an agreement only between the king and his most powerful nobles. Why then did it come to be seen as a key founding document in England's representative democratic system of government?
3. Like much else in the Middle Ages, modern political states grew from feudal arrangements. How did the English Parliament, with its House of Lords and House of Commons, arise out of England's feudal system?

1. The kings had to rely on the loyalty of their powerful vassals, as well as their ability to mobilize local forces in the form of knights and peasant foot soldiers. Since these vassals often had interests of their own and conflicting loyalties, the kings could not easily control or depend on them.
2. Even though it only applied to these powerful nobles at first, it contained the principle that the king had to accept certain limits and respect the rights of certain other people. In time, this idea that a king, or central governing authority, was not above the law grew to include the idea of protecting the rights of all citizens.
3. The two houses originally reflected the feudal divisions in society, with the House of Lords for the landed nobility and high church officials and the House of Commons for lesser knights and urban residents.

Islam in Europe



Inside the Great Mosque of Córdoba

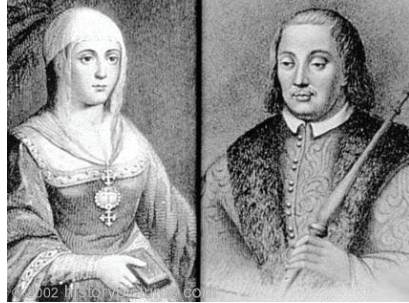
- Muslim forces took control of Spain in the early eighth century
- Innovations in agriculture, architecture, math, and science

Islam had arisen on the Arabian Peninsula in the early seventh century and had continued to spread after the death of Muhammad, its founder, in 632. Under the leadership of the Umayyad Dynasty, Muslim territory expanded into Europe: by 710, they controlled North Africa, and in 711, they moved across the Strait of Gibraltar and invaded the Iberian Peninsula (modern-day Spain and Portugal). By 725, Muslims controlled most of Spain, with the city of Córdoba acting as the Muslim “capital.”

Muslim innovations had a significant impact on Spain. In agriculture, the Muslims introduced new crops such as oranges, dates, and rice, as well as new methods of irrigation that significantly improved productivity. Muslim architects introduced new designs that would influence building in Spain for years. Numerous mosques and palaces were built, including the Alhambra in Granada and the Great Mosque at Córdoba, which was constructed with a complex interior consisting of a multitude of low, rounded arches made of alternating black and white stones. In addition, Arabic knowledge in science, mathematics, and medicine was far superior to anything in Europe at the time. For example, Arabic numerals (i.e., 1, 2, 3..., instead of the Roman I, II, III...) became the standard in algebra, mathematics, astronomy, and physics; the Muslims also introduced the concept of zero to Europe.

The *Reconquista* of Spain

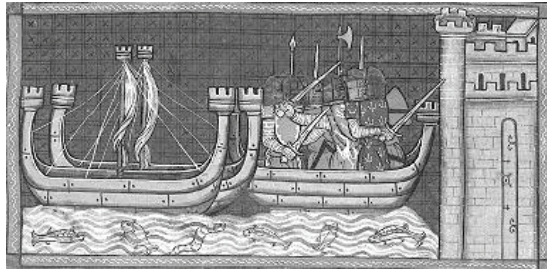
- Muslims ruled the Iberian Peninsula for nearly 800 years
- *Reconquista*: Struggle between Christians and Muslims to control Spain
- 718–1492
- King Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile



Isabella and Ferdinand

The Iberian peninsula was dominated by the Muslims for nearly 800 years, a rule which began in the eighth century. The *Reconquista*—the struggle between Christians and Muslims to control the territory—happened across several centuries, from 718 to 1492. Over this time, Christian forces slowly pushed the Muslims to the south. The *Reconquista* left Spain divided, as each region would develop a separate government after gaining its autonomy from the Muslims. The majority of Spain was finally unified under King Ferdinand of Aragon and Queen Isabella of Castile with the final expulsion of the Muslims in 1492.

The Crusades (1095–1291)



Louis IX of France
leads crusaders
against Damietta,
in Egypt

- Goals of the Crusades:
 - Convert nonbelievers
 - Eliminate heretics
 - Regain control of the Holy Land from the Muslims

The term “crusade” refers in general to a holy war; however, it is mostly associated with the medieval-era Crusades that went on from 1095–1291. The death of Charlemagne and his empire’s subsequent collapse, the Muslim invasion of Spain, and the fact that Muslims had gained control of the Holy Land made Christian Europe feel as if under attack. Some crusades were launched in an attempt to convert large numbers of nonbelievers; others were launched to fight against behavior and beliefs that the Christian Church found offensive. The Crusades also targeted heretics—other Christians who did not conform—and non-Christians, especially those of the Muslim faith. Finally, crusaders also fought to regain control of the Holy Land from Muslims.

Pope Urban II

- Gave speech in 1095
- Promised spiritual rewards for liberating the Holy Land from Muslims
- Thousands responded to the call for religious warriors



Pope Urban II calling for the Crusades

Pope Urban II (1042–1099) sparked the First Crusade by making a dramatic plea to a crowd in France in 1095 for warriors to organize and travel to the Middle East to liberate the Holy Land from the Muslims. The pope promised spiritual rewards for the fighters, including forgiveness of their sins in exchange for their service. The speech was so effective that thousands of soldiers marched east the next year to retake the Holy Land.

The First Crusade (1096–1099)



A depiction of the capture of
Jerusalem by crusaders

- Mostly French knights
- Captured Jerusalem in 1099
- Crusader states
- Jerusalem taken by Muslim forces under Saladin in 1187

French crusader-knights, referred to as “pilgrims,” left Europe to liberate the Holy Lands from the Muslims in 1096. The army traveled first to Constantinople and then to the Middle East, drawing out Muslim fighters throughout their journey. They were able to capture Jerusalem by 1099 after a siege that lasted several weeks. After breaking through the city walls, they killed almost every non-Christian they came across, and also killed several Christians they mistook for Muslims or Jews.

As a result of the First Crusade, several small crusader states were created, most notably the Kingdom of Jerusalem. These states were isolated amid Muslim territory, however, and in the 1100s the Muslims began to retake them. In 1187, forces led by the great Muslim commander Saladin recaptured Jerusalem.

Other Crusades

- Major and minor crusades took place between the 12th and 14th centuries
- Christians unsuccessful at recapturing the Holy Land
- Popes invoked crusades more often and for non-spiritual purposes
- Legacy of the Crusades:
 - Increased trade
 - Religious tensions



The Crusade on Constantinople

Three major and several minor crusades followed the initial one. They all failed in that the Holy Land was never returned to Christian hands. Pope Urban had shown moral leadership in 1095, but subsequent popes invoked crusades too frequently and over less significant matters. The later crusades became more worldly and less spiritual in purpose. For example, on his return from the Third Crusade, King Richard I of England (known as “Richard the Lion-Heart”) was captured by his enemy Duke Leopold of Austria and held for ransom. In the 13th century, the city-state of Venice had managed to get Frankish soldiers on the Fourth Crusade to attack and conquer Constantinople, not a Muslim stronghold.

In all, the Crusades put the Holy Land under Christian control for only a brief period of time. The Crusades did, however, lead to an increase in trade as new cross-Mediterranean trade routes arose to supply the crusaders. The rise in trade also helped spur the growth of towns and cities in Europe, and also gave rise to a new class of urban merchants.

In addition, the Crusades not only drove apart Christians, Jews, and Muslims—a rift that still has implications today—but also made the tense relationship between the Catholic Church in western Europe and the Orthodox Church in the Byzantine Empire even more fragile.

Discussion Questions

1. The presence of Muslims in Spain had a huge impact on that land even after the *Reconquista* had returned those lands to Christian control. In what ways might the Muslim presence in Spain have made that land different from other European kingdoms in the Middle Ages?
2. In 1095, when Pope Urban II called for a crusade to gain control over the Holy Land, many Europeans felt they were still under attack by Muslims. Why might they have felt that way in 1095?
3. Given the variety of crusades between 1095 and 1291, what other motives do you think led many Europeans to support and take part in crusades?

1. Answers to this may vary, but they should include ways Muslim learning and culture influenced this region, stressing both the creative accomplishments as well as the greater tension and conflict this diversity fostered.
2. Muslims had taken over much of Spain and still controlled a good deal of it, they had raided some other places on the Mediterranean, they were often fighting with the Byzantine Empire, etc.
3. A desire for glory and for riches, a desire to further the control of the Catholic Church over and against Orthodox Christianity in the Byzantine Empire, efforts to convert pagans and defeat heretics, etc.

The Late Middle Ages



Battle of Agincourt, 15th century

- 1300–1500
- War
- The Black Death

The late Middle Ages was a time of human misery and disaster. The population of Europe suffered greatly from both the Hundred Years' War and the Black Death, which both occurred during this time period.

The Hundred Years' War: Causes

- The Hundred Years' War: 1337–1453
- Struggles between French and English royal families over who would rule either country
- Conflicts over territory, trade



English ruler Edward III

The Hundred Years' War was a consequence of the growth of medieval France and England. When William the Conqueror became king of England, he tied the nobility of France to the nobility of England. As a result, tensions mounted over the years regarding who had the right to rule either country. The English and French had also become competitors in many economic pursuits, in particular the wool trade and control of Flemish towns vital to it.

Trouble began when the English claimed Aquitaine, a region in the south of France. In 1329, Edward III of England paid homage—a fee—for Aquitaine to the king of France. When Philip VI took over Aquitaine in 1337, however, Edward responded by invading France, thus beginning a series of intermittent wars that would last for 116 years.

The Hundred Years' War: Battles



The Battle of Crecy, the first major battle of the Hundred Years' War

- England had early victories
- The French eventually expelled the British from mainland Europe
- English military innovation: the archer

The Hundred Years' War started with several English victories. Many historians divide the Hundred Years' War into four phases: two phases featured English success, each followed by the French rallying to push the English out of their lands. The war ended in 1453 when the French finally expelled the English from mainland Europe.

The English use of skilled archers during the war proved to be influential to technology of the time. It was highly effective when used against knights, whose slow, bulky armor couldn't provide sufficient defense in the face of a multiple-arrow attack.

Joan of Arc

- Heroine of the war
- Had visions that told her to free France
- Fought with the army
- Captured, burned at the stake



Joan of Arc being burned at the stake

One of the French heroines of the Hundred Years' War was Joan of Arc (Jeanne d'Arc). The daughter of peasants, she claimed that she heard voices that told her to expel the English from France. She managed to persuade the king that she should be allowed to fight alongside the men in the war due to her passion and faith. She became a successful soldier whose will and strength inspired the French to several victories. She was eventually captured by the English and shipped to England to face trial for heresy. Found guilty, she was burned at the stake.

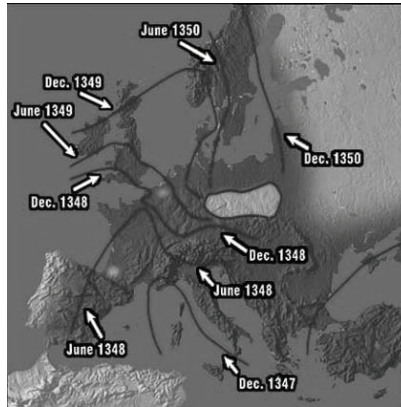
The Plague



During the late Middle Ages and early Renaissance, the bubonic plague—commonly referred to as the “Black Death”—ravaged the population of Europe. It was transmitted to humans by fleas that had bitten infected rats. The disease caused very painful swollen lymph nodes called “buboes.” The name “Black Death” came from the dried blood which would often form under the skin and cause black spots.

Spread of the Plague

- Started in China
- Reached Europe in 1347 via a merchant ship on the island of Sicily
- 1347–48: southern Europe
- 1349–50: central Europe and the British Isles



The Plague started in China and killed millions of people in mainland Asia. Due to its highly communicable nature, it spread very quickly. It first reached Europe in Sicily in 1347, when a merchant ship returning from China landed carrying rats with infected fleas. Trade and travel helped spread the plague to mainland Europe. By 1348, it had ravaged southern Europe. By 1350, it had hit central Europe and the British Isles. The Plague spread for several reasons, including the outbreak of war (the Hundred Years' War was fought while the Plague affected Europe) and the fact that many infected people often brought the disease to new locations by trying to escape the horrors of the disease.

Popular Medical “Cures” for the Plague



A costume worn by doctors to ward off the Plague

- Doctors wore strange costumes
- Bathing in human urine
- Wearing excrement
- Placing dead animals in homes
- Wearing leeches
- Drinking molten gold and powdered emeralds
- Burning incense to get rid of the smell of the dead

At the time, the field of medicine did not understand what caused the Black Death or how to cure it. Doctors wore strange costumes and used folk cures to deal with the disease. Among the more absurd remedies:

- Bathing in human urine
- Wearing excrement
- Placing dead animals in homes
- Wearing leeches
- Drinking molten gold and powdered emeralds
- Burning incense to get rid of the smell of the dead

Not surprisingly, these “cures” did little to address the real problems of the Plague, and many even made the disease worse.

Effects of the Plague

- Killed 25–30 million Europeans
- Undermined faith in religion
- Economic upheaval
- Arts influenced



The most obvious effect of the Plague was the number of people it killed—an estimated 25 to 30 million Europeans, or roughly one-third of the population. The Plague also shook many people's faith in religion. Though many religious leaders blamed the Plague on sin, piety and prayer offered no protection against the disease, and members of the clergy were as likely to become afflicted as anyone else. In the face of all this, the numbers of those willing to devote their life to the church dramatically declined.

The population decrease caused by the Plague led to an economic downturn; both the number of available laborers and consumers declined sharply. Merchants and tradespeople had fewer people to whom they could sell their wares. Products therefore accumulated, and the merchants and those who dealt with them—bankers, suppliers, and shippers—all lost revenue. In addition, peasants often fled their land in an attempt to escape the disease.

The Plague also influenced many of the artists of the time; works from this period often had very dark themes and tones.

Architecture



Chartres Cathedral in France, a prime example of medieval Gothic architecture

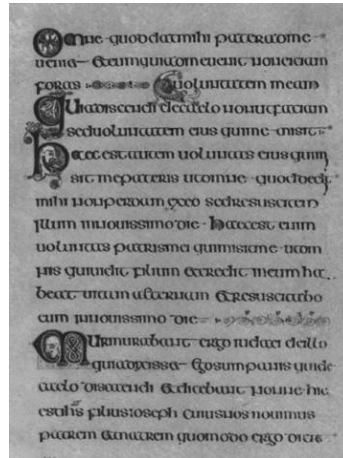
- Many churches and cathedrals built during the Middle Ages
- Church designs
 - Romanesque: cross, nave
 - Gothic: ribbed vault, flying buttress, stained glass

The Middle Ages saw a boom in the building of cathedrals and churches in Europe. By the 11th century, a clear but short-lived style of architecture emerged called “Romanesque” because it featured a Roman-like style inspired by Italian basilicas. This style produced an interior that was shaped like a Latin cross. From the exterior, a Romanesque church looked massive, with heavy, horizontal lines. The central area of the church (called the “nave”) was covered with a barrel vault, supported by pillars and thick walls. There were few windows; thus, the interior was gloomy.

A dramatic new style, known as Gothic, was introduced in the early 12th century. The architects of this style developed the ribbed vault, which worked like an umbrella to spread the weight of the roof from columns to the walls. To prevent the walls from collapsing outwards, a structure called a “flying buttress” braced them from the outside. When combined with pointed arches, this meant a cathedral could have larger interior spaces and larger windows, allowing the building to be filled with light. Many of these cathedrals used stained glass to fill their windows, and the creation of stained glass evolved into a distinct art form.

Illuminated Manuscripts

- *Manu scriptus* (“written by hand”)
- Originally copied by monks in scriptoria
- Became an art form
- The wealthy commissioned works from professional scribes and illustrators



Page from the *Book of Kells* (800 CE),
scribed by Celtic monks

Prior to the invention of the printing press, all documents were *manu scriptus*, meaning “written by hand”; this Latin phrase is also the source of the English word “manuscript.” Most of the time, copied manuscripts were bibles or other religious works such as prayer books. The manuscripts were usually produced by monks who went about the laborious task of hand-copying books in special rooms called “scriptoria.” The monks would also illustrate the manuscripts, a process known as “illumination.” Monks would illuminate manuscripts both to glorify sacred texts and to help the illiterate understand what the book was discussing. After 1200, books became more common, and professional scribes and illustrators began producing works. Often they were commissioned by the wealthy. The illumination of manuscripts became an art form. As well as illustrations appropriate to the story, verse, or prayer, capital letters at the beginning of each page were often decorated in bright colors and gold leaf.

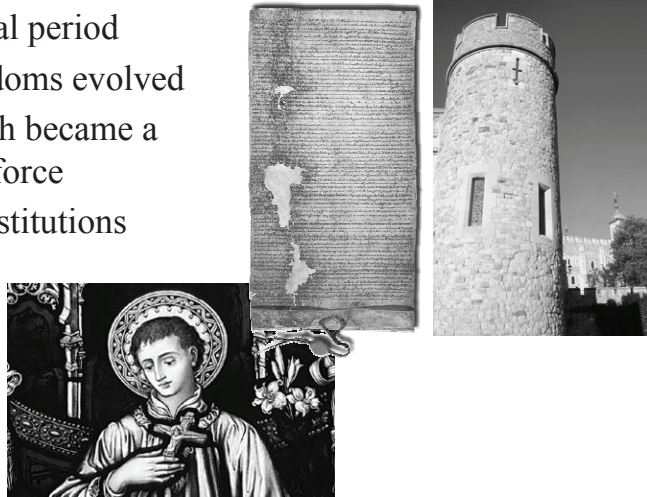
Discussion Questions

1. During the Hundred Years War, Joan of Arc fought for the French and was captured by the English, who burned her at the stake as a heretic. Yet in a way she succeeded in helping the French kings forge a more unified nation out of their lands. How do you think she helped them do this?
2. The greatest tragedy of the late Middle Ages was the Black Death, which resulted from Europe's starting to grow economically and interacting more with the rest of the world. How did growing economic activity contribute to this tragedy?
3. The Middle Ages are often thought of as a time of suffering, poverty, superstition, and little change. However, they led to the Renaissance, an era of rapid growth and the flowering of European culture and learning. What strengths of medieval society might help to explain this fact?

1. Joan of Arc became a symbol of resistance by all the French people. In other words, she helped awaken a national consciousness, or sense of national identity, in the French.
2. Under the Mongols, the routes across Eurasia to China were more accessible, and European merchants and cities grew in wealth by taking greater part in trade across those routes and throughout the Mediterranean region. The growing trade routes then enabled the Plague to spread more easily from China across Eurasia and into Europe through its sea ports.
3. Answers will vary and should be discussed, but students should mention the rise of the universities, the growth of towns and trade, the early origins of nation-states and parliamentary institutions, etc.

Legacy of the Medieval Era

- Transitional period
- New kingdoms evolved
- The Church became a dominant force
- Modern institutions originated



The medieval era is considered a transitional period between the classical ancient world and the Renaissance. Immediately after the fall of Rome, Europe disintegrated into a number of small kingdoms and states. Throughout the period, however, new kingdoms gradually evolved into states—England, France, and Spain, for example.

The Catholic Church expanded its influence throughout western Europe, with little to challenge its dominance, although issues such as the Inquisition and the Crusades may have diminished its prestige.

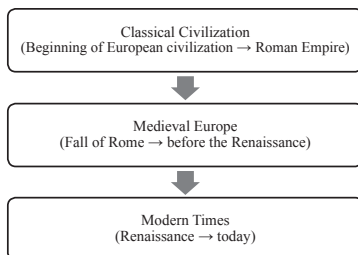
Despite the popular view of medieval Europe as the Dark Ages, many modern institutions originated during this time, including universities, the parliamentary form of government, and banks. What historians often refer to as “modern Europe” was beginning to take shape by the end of the 15th century. The emergence of modern Europe would be shaped by other factors as well—the Renaissance, the Reformation, and global exploration—over the next two centuries.



Essential Questions

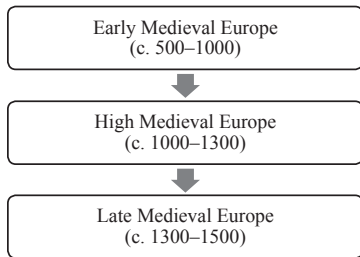
- How did the Germanic kingdoms that took over the Western Roman Empire differ from the society the Romans had organized in that region?
- What is feudalism, and how did medieval feudalism differ from political rule by a central authority or state, such as the one that ruled the Roman Empire?
- What factors help to explain the rise and spread of feudalism in Europe in the Middle Ages?
- Why was the Catholic Church able to play a unique role in unifying the societies of medieval Europe?
- In what ways was medieval Europe influenced and shaped by its interactions with the Muslim societies to its south?
- What factors caused the crises and troubles of the late Middle Ages?

Defining the Medieval Period



This time period has also been called the “Middle Ages” and the “Dark Ages.”

Medieval Europe: Stages



The Fall of the Roman Empire

- Beginning of the Middle Ages
- Invasions from all sides
- End of the Roman emperors



The Barbarian Invasions



Europe in 814

- From Asia: Huns and Magyars
- From the Germanic north: Saxons, Angles, and Goths

Rise of the Germanic Peoples



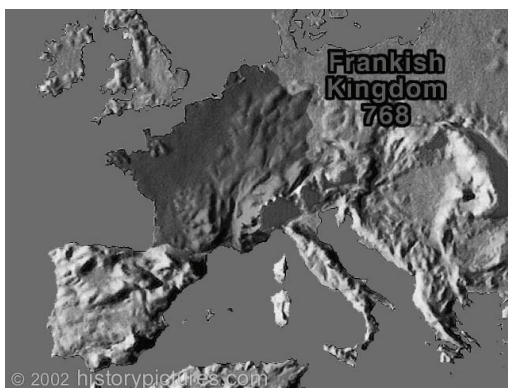
Invasion of the Goths into the Roman Empire,
a 19th-century painting

- Ostrogoths:
Italian peninsula
- Visigoths: modern-day Spain
- Angles and Saxons:
modern-day Britain
- Franks:
central Europe

Clovis (466–511)

- Established a
Frankish kingdom in
central Europe
- Conquered many
competing tribes
and regional Roman
political leaders
- Converted to Christianity





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Charlemagne (742–814)

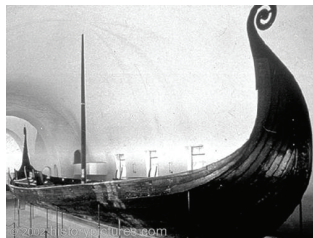
- Powerful leader, strong Christian
- Founded the Carolingian Empire
- Crowned by Pope Leo III as the first Holy Roman Emperor





The Vikings

- Warrior culture from Scandinavia
- Raided Europe
- Established settlements throughout Europe and even in North America



A Viking longboat



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Discussion Questions

1. The Middle Ages are seen as a time between the fall of the Western Roman Empire and the Renaissance. Why do you think many historians see these events especially as marking the start and the end of an age? Some historians criticize the concept of labeling these centuries a “middle” age between two other times, rather than giving them a name of its own. Why do you think this is?
2. The Romans often referred to the Germanic peoples who invaded and undermined the empire as “barbarian tribes.” Why do you think they referred to these groups as “barbarians”? How justified were they in describing these tribes this way?
3. The Middle Ages have often also been called the Dark Ages—especially the first five centuries or so after the fall of Rome. What about this period do you think has led so many to do this? Do you think this label is useful as a way of understanding this era? Why or why not?

Feudalism



A French vassal receiving a feudal grant from the king

- A political, economic, and social system in which land was allocated in exchange for services
- Roles and obligations were clearly defined for all participants
- Grew out of Roman practices of clientage/patronage
- Originally developed as a means of protection and defense

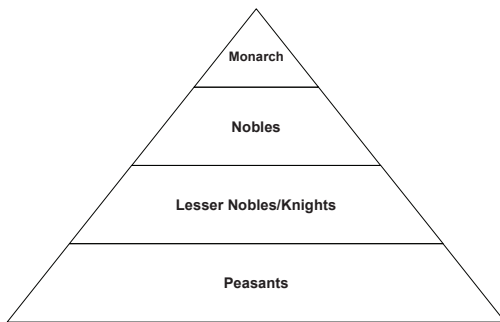
Roles in the Feudal System

- Lord
- Vassal
- Fief
- Manor
- Serf



Feudal serfs

The Feudal Power Structure



Knights

- Elite military soldiers
- Usually from the noble classes
- Stages of training: page, squire, knight
- Chivalry



Statue of a medieval knight

The Medieval Tournament

Means of practicing military skills



Castles

- Centers of noble life
- Purposes included residence, intimidation, military defense

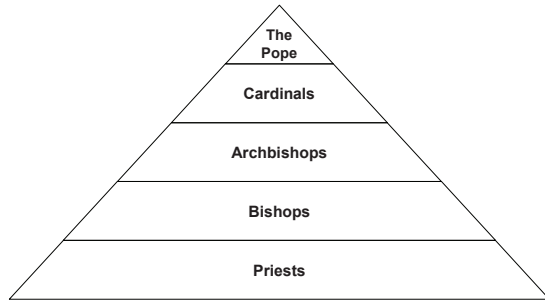


Warwick Castle, England

Discussion Questions

1. What trends or events in the early Middle Ages help explain why feudalism became an effective way to provide protection and security to people in various parts of Europe?
2. From the point of view of a monarch in the Middle Ages, what advantages can you see to accepting a system of feudal relationships, as opposed to trying to rule directly over an entire population? What would the disadvantages be?
3. Knights were expected to live according to a code of chivalry. Yet many historians say this code was often ignored in practice. Why then do you think a code of chivalry was seen as such a key part of the whole concept of knighthood?

Catholic Church Hierarchy



The Catholic Church Expands Its Power

- The Church became a more political entity
- Struggles with monarchs
 - Investiture Controversy
 - Pope Gregory VII vs. Henry IV
- Expanded land ownership



Pope Gregory VII



Henry IV of Germany

The Monastic Movement



St. Benedict

- Became popular in the fifth century
- A reaction against the increasing “worldliness” of the Church
- Monasteries: secluded religious communities
- Benedictine monasticism: vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience

The Inquisition

- New orders: Franciscans and Dominicans
- The Inquisition: a special court established by the Church to combat heresy
- Accused heretics sometimes tortured
- Convicted heretics burned at the stake



A suspected heretic being tortured by the Inquisition

The University



A map of medieval European universities

- Need for administrators
- Muslim knowledge, renewed interest in classical works
- *Universitas*

Discussion Questions

1. Henry IV's power depended on the fealty of powerful vassals to supply him with knights and foot soldiers—i.e., on feudal ties and relationships. However, this actually gave Pope Gregory VII an advantage over him in their showdown in 1075. Why was this?
2. Monasteries were places where men and women lived lives based on the principles of "chastity, poverty, and obedience." Yet many monastic orders become wealthy and powerful during the Middle Ages. Why do you think this was so? Does this mean that monasticism failed on its own terms, or succeeded? Explain.
3. The Middle Ages saw the rise of both the Inquisition and of universities as independent institutions of learning. Do these two developments seem basically compatible with each other, or at odds with one another in some ways? Why?

France

- Hugh Capet (938–996)
- Philip II (1180–1222)
- Philip IV (1285–1314)
- Most powerful kingdom in Europe by the 14th century



Hugh Capet

England



William the Conqueror

- 1066: Norman conquest
- William the Conqueror (1027–1087)
 - Brought feudalism to England
- Henry II (1154–1189)
 - Instituted a single common law code; unified court system

Magna Carta (1215)

- Conflict between King John and the English nobility
- Nobles rebelled against excessive taxation, forced John to sign the Magna Carta
- Formal recognition that the king was not above the law



A photograph of the Magna Carta

Development of Parliament



Edward I

- Henry III (1216–1272)
- Edward I (1239–1307)
- Original parliament
 - House of Lords: nobles and church lords
 - House of Commons: knights and residents
- Approved taxes, discussed policies, worked with the monarch to make laws

Italian City-States

- Several on the Italian Peninsula
- Changed hands often; controlled by Germanic tribes, Byzantines, the French
- Rome and the Papal States remained important



Medieval Italy

Discussion Questions

1. The power of the French kings grew slowly over several centuries in the Middle Ages. Explain why the feudal basis of the king's power and authority made it hard for French kings to unify their lands quickly.
2. In England, the Magna Carta was an agreement only between the king and his most powerful nobles. Why then did it come to be seen as a key founding document in England's representative democratic system of government?
3. Like much else in the Middle Ages, modern political states grew from feudal arrangements. How did the English Parliament, with its House of Lords and House of Commons, arise out of England's feudal system?

Islam in Europe

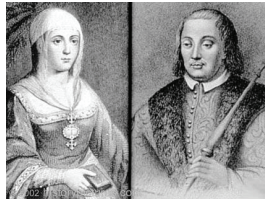


Inside the Great Mosque of Córdoba

- Muslim forces took control of Spain in the early eighth century
- Innovations in agriculture, architecture, math, and science

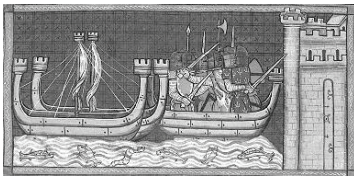
The *Reconquista* of Spain

- Muslims ruled the Iberian Peninsula for nearly 800 years
- *Reconquista*: Struggle between Christians and Muslims to control Spain
- 718–1492
- King Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile



Isabella and Ferdinand

The Crusades (1095–1291)



Louis IX of France leads crusaders against Damietta, in Egypt

- Goals of the Crusades:
 - Convert nonbelievers
 - Eliminate heretics
 - Regain control of the Holy Land from the Muslims

Pope Urban II

- Gave speech in 1095
- Promised spiritual rewards for liberating the Holy Land from Muslims
- Thousands responded to the call for religious warriors



Pope Urban II calling for the Crusades

The First Crusade (1096–1099)



A depiction of the capture of Jerusalem by crusaders

- Mostly French knights
- Captured Jerusalem in 1099
- Crusader states
- Jerusalem taken by Muslim forces under Saladin in 1187

Other Crusades

- Major and minor crusades took place between the 12th and 14th centuries
- Christians unsuccessful at recapturing the Holy Land
- Popes invoked crusades more often and for non-spiritual purposes
- Legacy of the Crusades:
 - Increased trade
 - Religious tensions



The Crusade on Constantinople

Discussion Questions

1. The presence of Muslims in Spain had a huge impact on that land even after the *Reconquista* had returned those lands to Christian control. In what ways might the Muslim presence in Spain have made that land different from other European kingdoms in the Middle Ages?
2. In 1095, when Pope Urban II called for a crusade to gain control over the Holy Land, many Europeans felt they were still under attack by Muslims. Why might they have felt that way in 1095?
3. Given the variety of crusades between 1095 and 1291, what other motives do you think led many Europeans to support and take part in crusades?

The Late Middle Ages



Battle of Agincourt, 15th century

- 1300–1500
- War
- The Black Death

The Hundred Years' War: Causes

- The Hundred Years' War: 1337–1453
- Struggles between French and English royal families over who would rule either country
- Conflicts over territory, trade



English ruler Edward III

The Hundred Years' War: Battles



The Battle of Crecy, the first major battle of the Hundred Years' War

- England had early victories
- The French eventually expelled the British from mainland Europe
- English military innovation: the archer

Joan of Arc

- Heroine of the war
- Had visions that told her to free France
- Fought with the army
- Captured, burned at the stake



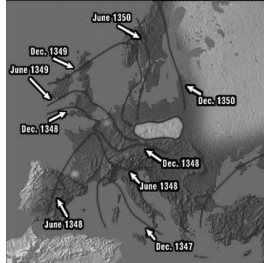
Joan of Arc being burned at the stake

The Plague



Spread of the Plague

- Started in China
- Reached Europe in 1347 via a merchant ship on the island of Sicily
- 1347–48: southern Europe
- 1349–50: central Europe and the British Isles



Popular Medical “Cures” for the Plague



A costume worn by doctors to ward off the Plague

- Doctors wore strange costumes
- Bathing in human urine
- Wearing excrement
- Placing dead animals in homes
- Wearing leeches
- Drinking molten gold and powdered emeralds
- Burning incense to get rid of the smell of the dead

Effects of the Plague

- Killed 25–30 million Europeans
- Undermined faith in religion
- Economic upheaval
- Arts influenced



Architecture

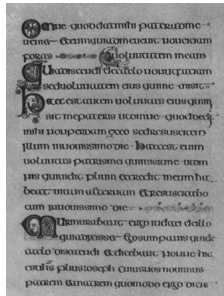


Chartres Cathedral in France, a prime example of medieval Gothic architecture

- Many churches and cathedrals built during the Middle Ages
- Church designs
 - Romanesque: cross, nave
 - Gothic: ribbed vault, flying buttress, stained glass

Illuminated Manuscripts

- *Manu scriptus* (“written by hand”)
- Originally copied by monks in scriptoria
- Became an art form
- The wealthy commissioned works from professional scribes and illustrators



Page from the *Book of Kells* (800 CE), scribed by Celtic monks

Discussion Questions

1. During the Hundred Years War, Joan of Arc fought for the French and was captured by the English, who burned her at the stake as a heretic. Yet in a way she succeeded in helping the French kings forge a more unified nation out of their lands. How do you think she helped them do this?
2. The greatest tragedy of the late Middle Ages was the Black Death, which resulted from Europe’s starting to grow economically and interacting more with the rest of the world. How did growing economic activity contribute to this tragedy?
3. The Middle Ages are often thought of as a time of suffering, poverty, superstition, and little change. However, they led to the Renaissance, an era of rapid growth and the flowering of European culture and learning. What strengths of medieval society might help to explain this fact?

Legacy of the Medieval Era

- Transitional period
- New kingdoms evolved
- The Church became a dominant force
- Modern institutions originated