CHAPTER 11
AP® FOCUS & ANNOTATED CHAPTER OUTLINE

AP® FOCUS
The following information provides a "cheat sheet" for you to use when teaching this chapter.

This chapter addresses material that falls outside the parameters of the material tested on the AP® European History Examination as described in the AP® European History Course Description. The Course Description states that no multiple-choice or free- response question will focus on the period before 1450.

However, many teachers begin their courses with this chapter because of the compelling nature of the material it covers: the Black Death, the Hundred Years' War, the Great Schism—events that occasionally do appear on the exam. More important, an understanding of the political, economic, social, and cultural conditions of the late Middle Ages is instrumental to understanding the causes and significance of the Renaissance and the Reformation.

This chapter could be the first interaction your students have with a college-level textbook and college-level expectations, and will almost certainly be so if the students are ninth- or tenth-graders. Even if your students have taken an AP® history course before, you will want to use the content and themes in this chapter to introduce the key skills necessary to succeed in this particular course. You should present various methods for organizing the material and introduce techniques of document analysis that students will use throughout the remainder of the course. In addition, you should explore questions that consistently demonstrate that this course travels far beyond the what, where, and when to the how and why; it is a course that requires accurate mastery of the historical narrative as the basis for historical interpretation.

While it is valuable to start with this chapter, you may find that it takes longer to cover this material because most students have little knowledge of medieval history. Be sure to plan accordingly so that you have time to explore the remainder of European history through the course's endpoint (which is 2001).

ANNOTATED CHAPTER OUTLINE
The following annotated chapter outline will help you review the major topics covered in this chapter.

I. **Prelude to Disaster**
   A. Climate Change and Famine
      1. About 1300 the climate in Europe became colder and wetter, beginning a period that historical geographers refer to as a "little ice age."
      2. Evidence of this change comes from nature, reports written by humans, and archaeological evidence.
      3. An unusual number of storms ruined wheat, oat, and hay crops, resulting in poor harvests that led to scarcity and starvation.
      4. Almost all of northern Europe suffered a "Great Famine" in the years 1315 to 1322.
      5. Even in non-famine years, the cost of grain, livestock, and dairy products rose sharply, meaning fewer people could afford to buy food.
      6. Reduced caloric intake meant increased susceptibility to disease, especially for infants, children, and the elderly.
      7. Workers on reduced diets had less energy, which in turn meant lower productivity, lower output, and higher grain prices.

B. Social Consequences
1. The changing climate and resulting agrarian crisis of the fourteenth century led to the abandonment of homesteads and even entire villages as many people became vagabonds, wandering in search of food and work.
2. Some peasants were forced to mortgage, sublease, or sell their holdings to richer farmers to buy food.
3. Overall, the population declined because of the deaths caused by famine and disease, though the postponement of marriages as young men and women sought work in the towns and the resulting decline in offspring also may have played a part.
4. As the subsistence crisis deepened, starving people focused their anger on the rich, speculators, and Jews, who were often targeted as creditors fleecing the poor through pawnbroking.
5. Rumors spread of a plot by Jews and their agents, the lepers, to kill Christians by poisoning wells, and many lepers and Jews were killed, beaten, or fined.
6. The international character of trade and commerce meant that a disaster in one country had serious implications elsewhere.
7. For example, an infection attacked English sheep in 1318, resulting in a sharp decline in wool exports that put Flemish weavers out of work and thus hurt the businesses of Flemish, Hanseatic, and Italian merchants.
8. Unemployment encouraged people to turn to crime.
9. Government responses to these crises—condemning speculators, forbidding exports of grain, setting price controls, attempting to import grain—were ineffectual.

II. The Black Death
A. Pathology
1. Most historians and microbiologists identify the disease that spread in the fourteenth century as the bubonic plague, caused by the bacillus *Yersinia pestis*, a disease that normally afflicts rats.
2. Fleas living on the infected rats drink their blood and then pass the bacteria that cause the plague on to the next animal or human they bite.
3. Outbreaks of the disease had occurred several times previously, including one in the sixth century that killed millions.
4. Only in the 1890s, during another outbreak, did doctors and epidemiologists identify the bacillus as bubonic plague and come to understand the cycle of infection.
5. Because of differences between the nineteenth- and fourteenth-century outbreaks, some historians have questioned whether the Black Death was, in fact, the bubonic plague.
6. The medieval plague was often transmitted directly from one person to another through coughing and sneezing as well as through flea bites.
7. The classic symptom of the bubonic plague was an agonizingly painful growth (the *bubo*) the size of a nut or an apple in the armpit, in the groin, or on the neck.
8. If the bubo was not lanced and drained, the next stage was the appearance of black spots or blotches caused by bleeding under the skin.
9. Finally, the victim began to cough violently and spit blood, indicating the presence of millions of bacilli in the bloodstream; death followed within two or three days.
10. The coughing also released pathogens into the air, infecting others who breathed them.

B. Spread of the Disease

1. Plague symptoms were first described in 1331 in southwestern China; plague-infested rats accompanied Mongol armies and merchant caravans across central Asia in the 1330s and then boarded ships that carried the disease to the ports of the Black Sea by the 1340s.
2. An Italian chronicler reported that Mongol armies besieging the city of Kaffa on the Black Sea catapulted plague-infested corpses over the walls to infect those inside.
3. In October 1347 Genoese ships brought the plague from Kaffa to Messina, from which it spread across Sicily.
4. From the port of Pisa, the disease spread south to Rome and east to Florence and all of Tuscany.
5. By late spring in 1348, southern Germany was infected.
6. The plague entered France at the port of Marseilles, infecting that city before spreading to the rest of southern France and Spain.
7. In June 1348 two ships entered the Bristol Channel and introduced the plague into England, and from there it traveled northeast into Scandinavia.
8. The plague apparently entered Poland through the Baltic seaports and spread eastward from there.
9. Medieval urban conditions proved ideal for the spread of disease.
10. Rats had little trouble entering houses constructed of wood, clay, and mud and built on overcrowded streets reeking of refuse and human waste.
11. People were already weakened by famine, and standards of personal hygiene remained frightfully low.
12. Fleas and body lice afflicted everyone in medieval society, and the association among rats, fleas, and the plague was unknown.
13. Mortality rates can be only educated guesses because population figures do not exist for most countries and cities in the pre-plague period, but the most widely accepted estimate is that one-third of the population of western Europe and the Mediterranean died in the first wave of infection.
14. Densely populated Italian cities endured incredible losses; Florence lost between one-half and two-thirds of its population when the plague visited in 1348.
15. Islamic parts of Europe, as well as the rest of the Muslim world, also suffered.
16. Some areas, including Milan and Nuremberg, were largely spared because city authorities closed the city gates and had stored enough food to sustain the population until the danger passed.
17. As the Black Death took its toll on the Holy Roman Empire, waves of emigrants fled to Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary, sometimes taking the plague with them.
18. Across Europe the Black Death recurred intermittently in the following centuries, though never with the same virulence because Europeans had built up some resistance.
19. Improved standards of hygiene and quarantine measures also lessened the plague's toll, but the plague continued to appear in Europe until 1721.
20. In 1947 the American microbiologist Selman Waksman discovered an effective treatment, streptomycin.

C. Care of the Sick
1. Fourteenth-century medical literature indicates that physicians tried many different things to prevent and treat the plague.
2. They observed that crowded cities had high death rates, especially when the weather was warm and moist, but they thought in terms of "poisons" in the air or "corrupted air" that caused fluids in the body to become unbalanced.
3. Treatment focused on ridding the air and body of these poisons and rebalancing bodily fluids.

4. People tried anything they thought might help: ringing church bells, firing cannons, taking medicines made from oozing plants, and creating cryptograms.
5. In an age of mounting criticism of clerical wealth, the behavior of the clergy during the plague was often exemplary; priests, monks, and nuns cared for the sick and buried the dead, and consequently, their mortality rate was very high.
6. Descriptions of the course of the disease by Giovanni Boccaccio (1313–1375) in *The Decameron* reveal that many realized the disease passed from person to person.
7. To avoid contagion, wealthier people often fled cities for the countryside, though sometimes this simply spread the plague faster.
8. Some cities tried shutting their gates to prevent infected people and animals from entering, which worked in a few places; others walled up houses in which there was plague in an attempt to isolate the sick.

D. Economic, Religious, and Cultural Effects
1. The traditional view that the plague had a disastrous effect has been greatly modified.
2. Evidence seems to indicate that population losses allowed less fertile land to be abandoned and promoted more specialized types of agriculture, which ultimately proved a better use of the land.
3. The Black Death brought on a European-wide inflation, but labor shortages meant that workers could demand better wages, and those who survived enjoyed a higher standard of living.
4. The greater demand for labor also meant greater mobility for peasants and artisans.
5. The plague also had effects on religious practices.
6. People's sadness at the loss of their loved ones, especially their children, led some to seek release from the devastating affliction in wild living, but more became more deeply pious.
7. Rather than seeing the plague as a medical issue, people interpreted it as God's punishment for their terrible sins and sought remedy through prayer, donations to churches, and efforts to live better lives.
8. Some Christians turned to the severest forms of asceticism and frenzied religious fervor, joining groups of flagellants, who whipped and scourged themselves as penance for their and society's sins.
9. Groups of travelling flagellants often grew into unruly mobs, prompting officials who worried they would provoke violence and riots to forbid them to enter their cities.
10. People also searched for scapegoats, and many came to believe that the Jews had infected the drinking water, which led to the expulsion and murder of thousands of Jews across Europe.
11. The literature and art of the late Middle Ages reveal a terribly morbid concern with death.
12. A popular literary and artistic motif, the Dance of Death, depicted a dancing skeleton leading away living people.
13. New colleges and universities were founded whose charters specifically cited the shortage of priests and the decay of learning as reasons for their establishment.
14. These new institutions had more national and local constituencies, which weakened the international character of medieval culture.
15. As is often true with devastating events, the plague highlighted central qualities of medieval society: deep religious feeling, suspicion of those who were different, and a view of the world shaped largely by oral tradition, with a bit of classical knowledge mixed in among the educated elite.

III. The Hundred Years' War
A. Causes

1. Causes of the Hundred Years' War included disagreements over rights to land, a dispute over the succession to the French throne, and economic conflicts.
2. A strongly expansionist French crown resolved to absorb the duchy of Aquitaine into the kingdom of France; the duchy had become part of the holdings of the English crown when Eleanor of Aquitaine married King Henry II of England in 1152.
3. The immediate political cause of the war was a dispute over who would inherit the French throne after Charles IV of France died childless in 1328.
4. The nobles passed the crown to Philip VI of Valois (r. 1328–1350), a nephew of Philip the Fair, rather than to Philip's sister Isabella or to her son Edward III, king of England.
5. Claiming that Salic Law, a sixth-century code of the Franks, prohibited women from ruling or passing down the right to rule, the nobles invented a tradition that banned female succession.
6. In 1329 Edward III formally recognized Philip VI's lordship over Aquitaine.
7. In 1337 Philip, eager to exercise full French jurisdiction in Aquitaine, confiscated the duchy, an action Edward III interpreted as a cause for war.
8. One reason the war lasted so long was that it became a French civil war, with some French nobles, most importantly the dukes of Burgundy, supporting English monarchs in order to thwart the centralizing goals of the French crown.
9. The governments of both England and France manipulated public opinion to support the war.
10. The English public was convinced that the war was waged for one reason: to secure for King Edward the French crown he had been unjustly denied.
11. Edward III issued letters describing the evil deeds of the French and listing royal needs, while Philip VI sent agents to warn communities about the dangers of invasion.
12. Both sides developed a deep hatred of the other, as royal propaganda on both sides fostered a kind of early nationalism.
13. Economic factors involving the wool trade and the control of Flemish towns were linked to these political issues.
14. The wealth of Flemish merchants and cloth manufacturers depended on English wool, so Flemish burghers strongly supported the claims of Edward III even though Flanders technically belonged to the French crown.
15. The war also presented opportunities for wealth and advancement: knights were promised regular wages, criminals were granted pardons, and great nobles were rewarded with estates; royal exhortations before battles repeatedly stressed that, if victorious, the troops might keep whatever they seized.

B. English Successes
1. The war began with a series of French sea raids on English coastal towns in 1337.
2. After the destruction of the French fleet, the rest of the war was fought almost entirely in France and the Low Countries and consisted mainly of a series of random sieges and cavalry raids, fought in fits and starts, with treaties along the way to halt hostilities.
3. During the war's early stages, England was highly successful.
4. At Crécy in northern France in 1346, English longbowmen scored a great victory over French knights and crossbowmen.
5. The English use of the cannon and longbow, which allowed for rapid reloading, unhorsed French horsemen and caused mass confusion and panic.
6. Edward was not able to take all of France, but the English held Aquitaine and other provinces and allied themselves with many of France's nobles.

7. After a brief peace, the French fought back and recovered some territory, and a treaty again halted hostilities as both sides concentrated on conflicts over power at home.
8. War began again in 1415 when an army led by the able English soldier-king Henry V (r. 1413–1422) invaded France and defeated a much larger French force at Agincourt, which Henry followed up with the reconquest of Normandy.
9. By 1419 the English had advanced to the walls of Paris.
10. Henry married the daughter of the French king, and a treaty made Henry and any sons the couple would have heir to the French throne.
11. Henry died unexpectedly, however, and although the English went on to besiege the city of Orléans, the French cause was not lost.

C. Joan of Arc and France's Victory
   1. The ultimate French success rests on the actions of a peasant girl, Joan "of Arc" (1412–1431), who came from a religious household in Champagne and whose visions and military leadership revived French fortunes and led to victory.
   2. During adolescence Joan began to hear voices that told her the dauphin (the uncrowned King Charles VII) had to be crowned and the English expelled from France.
   3. Joan traveled to the French court wearing male clothing, had an audience with Charles, and secured his support to travel with the French army to Orléans dressed as a knight.
   4. There Joan dictated a letter to the English, ordering them to surrender to "The Maid," as she called herself, sent by God.
   5. Joan inspired and led French attacks, forcing the English to retreat from Orléans.
   6. The king made Joan co-commander of the entire army, and she led it to a string of military victories; other cities simply surrendered without a fight and returned their allegiance to France.
   7. In July 1429, two months after the end of the siege of Orléans, Charles VII was crowned king at Reims.
   8. In 1430 the Burgundians captured Joan; Charles refused to ransom her, and she was sold to the English, who charged her with heresy in a church court and burned her at the stake in Rouen.
   9. The Burgundians switched their allegiance to the French, who reconquered Normandy and, finally, ejected the English from Aquitaine.
   10. As loss of life mounted and more money was spent, Parliamentary opposition mounted, fewer soldiers were sent, and more territory passed into French hands.
   11. At the war's end in 1453, only the town of Calais remained in English hands.
   12. In 1456 Charles VII requested that the pope conduct a new trial of Joan; the pope cleared her of all charges and declared her a martyr.
   13. Pious and popular legends aside, Joan, a teenage girl who saved the French monarchy, became a political symbol of France.

D. Aftermath
   1. In France thousands of soldiers and civilians had been slaughtered and hundreds of thousands of acres of rich farmland were ruined, leaving the rural economy in shambles.
   2. The war disrupted trade and drastically reduced French participation in international commerce, and the heavy taxes that financed war aggravated peasant grievances.
   3. The war wreaked havoc in England as well, even though only the southern coastal ports saw battle.
   4. England suffered an enormous financial loss, spending more than £5 million on the war effort.

5. When the government raised taxes on the wool crop as a way to finance the war, it priced wool out of the export market.
6. In both England and France, the social order was disrupted as the knights who ordinarily served as sheriffs, coroners, jurymen, and justices of the peace were abroad.
7. Although some men who fought became rich from acquiring booty, most fortunes seem to have been squandered as fast as they were made.
8. The war stimulated technological experimentation, especially with artillery, and cannon revolutionized warfare, making the stone castle no longer impregnable.
9. Because only central governments, not private nobles, could afford cannon, their use strengthened the military power of national states.
10. The long war and Edward III's constant need for money to pay for it stimulated the development of the English Parliament, although representative assemblies declined in other countries after 1450.
11. The Commons—knights and wealthy urban residents—gradually realized that they held the country's purse strings, and a parliamentary statute of 1341 required that most new taxes have parliamentary approval.
12. When he signed the law, Edward III acknowledged Parliament's power.
13. No similar national representative assembly developed in France, mostly because the regional and provincial assemblies, highly jealous of their independence, did not want a national assembly and because Charles VI found the idea distasteful.
14. In both countries, however, the war did promote the growth of nationalism—the feeling of unity and identity that binds together a people.

IV. Challenges to the Church
A. The Babylonian Captivity and Great Schism
1. With the death of Pope Boniface VIII and in an effort to control the church and its policies, King Philip the Fair of France pressured the new pope, Clement V, to settle permanently in Avignon in southeastern France, where the popes already had their summer residence.
2. The popes lived in Avignon from 1309 to 1376, a period in church history often called the Babylonian Captivity (referring to the seventy years the ancient Hebrews were held captive in Mesopotamian Babylon).
3. The Babylonian Captivity cut off church leadership from its historic roots and the source of its ancient authority, Rome, which badly damaged papal prestige.
4. The Avignon papacy concentrated on bureaucratic matters to the exclusion of spiritual objectives amidst an atmosphere of luxury and extravagance.
5. In 1377 Pope Gregory XI brought the papal court back to Rome, but he died shortly after the return.
6. The next pope, Urban VI (pontificate 1378–1389), was a distinguished administrator and had excellent intentions for church reform, but he went about it in a tactless and bullheaded manner.
7. He attacked clerical luxury, denouncing by name and threatening with excommunication individual cardinals and bishops, who then slipped away from Rome and met at Anagni.
8. The cardinals declared Urban's election invalid because it had come about under threats from the Roman mob, and they excommunicated him and elected a new pope, Clement VII (pontificate 1378–1394).
9. The two popes—Urban at Rome and Clement VII at Avignon—began the Great Schism that divided Western Christendom until 1417.
10. The powers of Europe aligned themselves with Urban or Clement along strictly political lines: France, Aragon, Castile, Portugal, Scotland, and, later on, the Italian city-states supported the

French pope, Clement; England and the German emperor, long-time enemies of France, recognized Urban.

11. The schism weakened the religious faith of many Christians and brought church leadership into serious disrepute.

B. Critiques, Divisions, and Councils
 1. William of Occam (1289?–1347?), a Franciscan friar and philosopher, saw the papal court at Avignon firsthand and argued vigorously against the papacy.
 2. Occam also questioned the connection between reason and faith that had been developed by Thomas Aquinas, asserting instead that governments should have limited powers and be accountable to those they govern, and church and state should be separate.
 3. The Italian lawyer and university official Marsiglio of Padua (ca. 1275–1342) agreed with Occam, claiming in his *Defensor Pacis* (The Defender of the Peace) that the state was the great unifying power in society and that the church should be subordinate to it.
 4. Both Marsiglio's and Occam's ideas were condemned as heresy, but in the later fourteenth century, many thinkers agreed with these two critics of the papacy.
 5. These conciliarists believed that reform of the church could best be achieved through periodic assemblies, or councils, composed of clergy theologians and laypeople representing all Christian people.
 6. The English scholar and theologian John Wyclif (ca. 1330–1384) went even further, arguing that Scripture alone should be the standard of Christian belief and practice and that papal claims of secular power had no foundation in the Scriptures.
 7. Wyclif wanted Christians to read the Bible for themselves and produced the first complete translation of the Bible into English.
 8. Although Wyclif's ideas were condemned by church leaders, they were spread by his followers, called Lollards, who made many copies of his Bible, allowed women to preach, and, in the face of persecution, met in secret to read and discuss the Bible and other religious texts.
 9. A university theologian in Prague, Jan Hus (ca. 1372–1415), built on Wyclif's ideas; Hus also denied papal authority, called for translations of the Bible into the local Czech language, and declared indulgences—papal offers of remission of penance—useless.
10. Hus gained many followers, who linked his theological ideas with their opposition to the church's wealth and power and who, with a growing sense of Czech nationalism, defeated the combined armies of the pope and the emperor many times.
11. In response to continued calls throughout Europe for a council to resolve the schism, the cardinals of Rome and Avignon summoned a council at Pisa in 1409, which failed to do anything except make matters worse by selecting a third pope.
12. Finally, a great council met at the imperial city of Constance (1414–1418) with three objectives: to end the schism, to reform the church, and to wipe out heresy.
13. The council moved first on the last point: despite being granted a safe-conduct to go to Constance by the emperor, Jan Hus was tried, condemned, and burned at the stake as a heretic in 1415.
14. The council also eventually healed the schism by deposing both the Roman pope and the successor pope chosen at Pisa, isolating the Avignon antipope, and calling a conclave that elected a new pope, Martin V (pontificate 1417–1431).
15. Martin proceeded to dissolve the council, and nothing was done about reform; the schism and conciliar movement had exposed the need for reform, however, laying the foundation for the great reform efforts of the sixteenth century.

C. Lay Piety and Mysticism
   1. The failings of the Avignon papacy and the scandal of the Great Schism weakened the spiritual mystique of the clergy in the popular mind; laypeople had already begun to develop their own forms of piety, which developed more fully in the fourteenth century.
   2. Lay Christian men and women often formed confraternities, voluntary lay groups organized by occupation, devotional preference, neighborhood, or charitable activity.
   3. Some confraternities prayed for souls in purgatory, and others held dances, festivals, and collections to raise money for church repairs, supplies, and liturgical objects; all, however, often carried out their devotional practices without a priest.
   4. Most confraternities were composed of men, but some women's confraternities were formed, usually to oversee the production of vestments and altar cloths.
   5. In Holland beginning in the late fourteenth century, a group of pious laypeople called the Brethren and Sisters of the Common Life lived in stark simplicity while daily carrying out the Gospel teaching of feeding the hungry, clothing the naked, and visiting the sick.
   6. The Brethren's goal of making religion a personal inner experience was best articulated by the Dutch monk Thomas à Kempis (1380?–1471) in *The Imitation of Christ*, which urged Christians to take Christ as their model, seek perfection in a simple way of life, and look to the Scriptures for guidance in living a spiritual life.
   7. For some individuals, both laypeople and clerics, religious devotion included mystical experiences.
   8. The noblewoman Bridget of Sweden (1303–1373) gave advice to laypeople and church officials based on her visions.
   9. The confraternities and mystics were generally not considered heretical unless they began to challenge the authority of the papacy the way conciliarists such as Wyclif and Hus had.
   10. The movement of lay piety, however, altered many people's perceptions of their own spiritual power.

V. **Social Unrest in a Changing Society**
   A. Peasant Revolts
      1. Nobles and clergy lived on the produce of peasant labor, thinking little of adding taxes to the burden of peasant life.
      2. The difficult conditions of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries spurred a wave of peasant revolts across Europe, the first of which was a large-scale rebellion in Flanders in the 1320s.
      3. Peasant forces burned and pillaged castles and aristocratic country houses in retaliation for oppressive taxes but were subsequently crushed by a French army, and savage repression and the confiscation of peasant property followed in the 1330s.
      4. In 1358 the frustrations of French peasants over oppressive taxes, the criminal banditry of the countryside, losses on the battlefield, and their general misery exploded in a massive uprising called the Jacquerie, after a mythical agricultural laborer, Jacques Bonhomme (Good Fellow).
      5. Crowds of peasants swept through the countryside, slashing the throats of nobles, burning their castles, raping their wives and daughters, and killing their animals; artisans, small merchants, and parish priests soon joined the peasants.
      6. After several weeks the upper class united to repress the revolt with merciless ferocity, cutting down thousands of the "Jacques," innocent as well as guilty, in a forcible suppression of social rebellion that did nothing to alleviate its underlying causes and served only to drive protest underground.

7. In England, when the Black Death drastically cut the labor supply, peasants demanded higher wages and fewer manorial obligations, to which their lords

   responded in 1351 with the Statute of Laborers, a law freezing wages and binding workers to their manors.
8. The statute could not be enforced, and peasants' economic grievances, along with the government's lack of protection during the war, aristocratic violence, and agitation by the popular preacher John Ball, fueled a revolt.
9. In 1381, when the royal council reimposed a tax on all adult males, peasants revolted in a major uprising known as the English Peasants' Revolt, involving thousands of people.
10. Beginning with assaults on the tax collectors, the uprising in England followed a course similar to that of the Jacquerie in France: the sacking of castles and manors, destruction of manorial records, and murder of nobles.
11. The boy-king Richard II (r. 1377–1399) met the leaders of the revolt, agreed to charters ensuring peasants' freedom, tricked them with false promises, and then crushed the uprising with terrible ferocity.
12. The English Peasants' Revolt did not bring social equality to England, but nobles were unsuccessful in their attempts to restore serfs' labor obligations; thus, rural serfdom continued to decline, disappearing in England by 1550.

B. Urban Conflicts
   1. Revolts flared up in urban centers across Europe, where the conditions of work were changing for many people.
   2. In the fourteenth century, a new system evolved to make products on a larger scale; in this system capitalist investors hired many households, with each household performing only one step of the process.
   3. Some shop masters became so wealthy from the profits of their workers that they and their families no longer had to work in a shop themselves, though they still generally belonged to the craft guild.
   4. While capitalism provided opportunities for some artisans to become investors and entrepreneurs, for many it led to a decrease in income and status.
   5. Urban uprisings also were sparked by issues involving honor, such as employers' requiring workers to do tasks they regarded as beneath them.
   6. As their status and prospects declined, journeymen and poorer masters emphasized skill and honor as qualities that set them apart from less-skilled workers.
   7. Guilds increasingly came to view the honor of their work as tied to an all-male workplace.
   8. In the fourteenth century, the amount of time that masters' widows could operate a shop was limited, as was the number of daughters a master craftsman could employ, resulting in a decline in women's participation in guilds.

C. Sex in the City
   1. Peasant and urban revolts and riots had clear economic bases, but some historians have suggested that late medieval marital patterns also may have played a role in unrest.
   2. In northwestern Europe, people believed that couples should be economically independent before they married, which resulted in a later age of marriage for men and women.

3. Unlike in earlier time periods, a woman in late medieval northern and western Europe entered marriage as an adult in her twenties and took charge of running a household immediately, making her less dependent on her husband or mother-in-law.
4. She also had fewer pregnancies than a woman who married earlier, though not necessarily fewer surviving children.
5. Men of all social groups were older when they married; journeymen and apprentices often were explicitly prohibited from marrying, as were the students at universities.
6. The prohibitions on marriage for certain groups of men and the late age of marriage for most men contributed to a steady market for sexual services outside of marriage, or prostitution.
7. Municipal authorities set up houses or districts either outside the city walls or away from respectable neighborhoods, as prostitution passed from being a private concern to a social matter requiring public supervision.
8. Young men associated visiting brothels with achieving manhood, though for the women themselves—many of whom had no choice—their activities were work.
9. Poor women—and men—also sold sex illegally, combining it with other sorts of part-time work such as laundering or sewing.
10. Prostitution was an urban phenomenon because only populous towns had large numbers of unmarried young men, communities of transient merchants, and a culture accustomed to a cash exchange.
11. In the late fifteenth century, cities started to limit brothel residents' freedom of movement and to require them to wear distinctive items; cities also began imposing harsher penalties on women who did not live in the designated house or section of town.
12. Along with buying sex, young men also took it by force, and unmarried women often found it difficult to avoid sexual contact.
13. Notions of female honor kept upper-class women secluded in their homes, but little effort was made to protect female servants or day laborers from seduction or rape.
14. Rape was a capital crime in many parts of Europe, but the sentences were usually fines or brief imprisonment, and the severity of the sentence depended on the social status of the victim and the perpetrator.
15. Women bringing rape charges often were more concerned about restoring their own honorable reputations than about punishing the perpetrators; for this reason women sometimes asked the judge to force their rapists to marry them.
16. Same-sex relations were another feature of medieval urban life, but they were of relatively little concern to church or state authorities until the late twelfth century, when authorities began to define them as "crimes against nature" and made them a capital crime in most of Europe.
17. In Florence a special board of adult men, the Office of the Night, investigated about seventeen thousand men suspected of sodomy; most cases involved an adult man and an adolescent boy.
18. The Florentine social-sexual model identified the boy in the passive role as subordinate and dependent, while the dominant male was not considered to have compromised his masculinity.
19. A variety of accounts indicates that sodomy was not a marginal practice, which may explain why, despite harsh laws and special courts, actual executions for sodomy were rare.
20. Same-sex relations often developed within the context of all-male environments, such as the army or the craft shop, and were part of the collective male experience.
21. Same-sex relations involving women almost never came to the attention of legal authorities, although both female-female desire and male-male desire were expressed in songs, plays, and stories.

D. Fur-Collar Crime
  1. After the Hundred Years' War, many nobles once again had little to do.
  2. Many were living on fixed incomes, which were devalued with inflation; because their chivalric code demanded lavish generosity and an aristocratic lifestyle, many turned to crime as a way of raising money.
  3. Groups of noble bandits engaged in "fur-collar crimes," roaming the English countryside and seizing wealthy travelers for ransom or demanding that peasants pay "protection money" to avoid having their hovels burned and their fields destroyed.
  4. Corrupt landowners, including some churchmen, also pushed peasants to pay higher taxes and extra fees.
  5. When accused of wrongdoing, fur-collar criminals intimidated witnesses, threatened jurors, and used their "pull" or cash to bribe judges.
  6. The popularity of Robin Hood—a hero of folk legends that relate the adventures of the outlaw and his merry men as they avenge the common people against fur-collar criminals—symbolized the deep resentment of aristocratic corruption and abuse and represented the struggle against tyranny and oppression.

E. Ethnic Tensions and Restrictions
  1. Large numbers of people in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries migrated from one part of Europe to another in search of land, food, and work.
  2. The colonization of frontier regions and movement to towns meant that peoples of different ethnic backgrounds lived side by side.
  3. In the early periods of conquest and colonization, and in all regions with extensive migrations, a legal dualism existed: native peoples remained subject to their traditional laws, whereas newcomers brought and were subject to the laws of the countries from which they came.
  4. The great exception to this broad pattern of legal pluralism was Ireland, where the English practiced an extreme form of discrimination toward the native Irish, whom they considered unfree by the fact of Irish birth, and denied them access to the common-law courts.
  5. With the economic turmoil of the fourteenth century, ethnic tensions multiplied.
  6. The later Middle Ages witnessed a movement away from legal pluralism or dualism and toward legal homogeneity and an emphasis on blood descent.
  7. The dominant ethnic group in an area tried to bar others from leadership positions in the church and from guild membership.
  8. Marriage laws were instituted that attempted to maintain ethnic purity by prohibiting intermarriage.
  9. The most extensive attempt to prevent intermarriage and protect ethnic purity is embodied in the Statute of Kilkenny issued in 1366, which forbade marriage between the English and Irish, required the use of the English language, and denied the Irish access to ecclesiastical offices.
  10. Late medieval chroniclers used words such as *gens* (race or clan) and *natio* (species, stock, or kind) to refer to different groups, and commentators increasingly described ethnic differences in terms of "blood."
  11. Religious beliefs also came to be conceptualized in terms of blood, with people regarded as having Jewish blood, Muslim blood, or Christian blood.
  12. Blood also came to be used as a way to talk about social differences, especially those of "noble blood" who were prohibited from marrying commoners in many parts of Europe.

13. As Europeans increasingly came into contact with people from Africa and Asia, and particularly as they developed colonial empires, these notions of blood also became a way of conceptualizing racial categories.

F. Literacy and Vernacular Literature
   1. A more positive effect of the development of ethnic identities was the increasing use of the vernacular rather than Latin.
   2. Two masterpieces of European culture, Dante Alighieri's *Divine Comedy* (1310–1320) and Geoffrey Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* (1387–1400), illustrate a sophisticated use of the rhythms and rhymes of the vernacular.
   3. The *Divine Comedy* is an epic poem of one hundred cantos (verses) that describes the realms of the next world: Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise.
   4. The *Divine Comedy* portrays contemporary and historical figures, comments on secular and ecclesiastical affairs, and draws on the Scholastic philosophy of uniting faith and reason.
   5. This poem embodies the tensions of the age; profoundly Christian, it also contains criticisms of church authorities, and although it perpetuates the classical tradition, it is the first major work of literature in the Italian vernacular.
   6. Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* is a collection of stories in lengthy rhymed narrative built around a pilgrimage made by thirty people of various social backgrounds to Saint Thomas Becket's shrine at Canterbury.
   7. The *Canterbury Tales* presents a rich panorama of English social life in the fourteenth century and, like the *Divine Comedy,* reflects the cultural tensions of the times; many of the pilgrims also are materialistic, sensual, and worldly.
   8. A variety of evidence, including wills and inventories, attests to the increasing literacy of laypeople in the fourteenth century.
   9. In England the number of schools in the diocese of York quadrupled between 1350 and 1500, with similar patterns seen in Flemish and German towns.
   10. Laymen increasingly served as managers or stewards of estates and as clerks to guilds and town governments; such positions obviously required that they be able to keep administrative and financial records.
   11. With growing frequency, the upper classes sent their daughters to convent schools, where they gained the rudiments of reading and sometimes writing.
   12. Trade, commerce, and expanding government bureaucracies required an increasing number of literate people.
   13. Late medieval culture was an oral culture; however, by the fifteenth century, the evolution toward a more literate culture was perceptible, and craftsmen would develop the printing press in response to increased demand for reading materials.