

>> This photo shows a jeweled crown worn by King Louis XV of France. Crowns were a symbol of the wealth, power, and prestige of the monarch.

Interactive Flipped Video

TEKS
16.A, 19.B, 24.B, 26.B

>> Objectives

Identify the characteristics of absolute monarchy, including the concept of divine right.

Explain how Spanish power grew under Charles V and Philip II.

Understand how France built a centralized monarchy after the wars of religion.

Evaluate Louis XIV as an absolute monarch.

Describe how the arts flourished in Spain and France.

>> Key Terms

- | | |
|---------------------|------------------|
| Hapsburg empire | Jean-Baptiste |
| Charles V | Colbert |
| Philip II | Versailles |
| absolute monarchy | levée |
| armada | balance of power |
| El Greco | divine right |
| Miguel de Cervantes | |
| Huguenots | |
| Henry IV | |
| Edict of Nantes | |
| Cardinal Richelieu | |
| Louis XIV | |
| intendant | |

12.1

During the Renaissance and Reformation, European rulers continued to centralize power at the expense of their nobles and the clergy. As wars of religion raged in many European lands, monarchs battled to impose royal law and restore order in their kingdoms.

Absolute Monarchy in Spain and France

Ruling with Absolute Power

Between about 1500 and 1800, the old feudal order gave way to individual nation-states with strong central governments. Monarchs presided over government bureaucracies that enforced the law and collected taxes. They used income not only to support lavish Renaissance courts but also to strengthen their military power.

Powerful States and Rulers The emergence of strong unified nation-states occurred at different times in different parts of Europe.

The rulers of some countries, such as Spain and France, set up **absolute monarchies**. The chief characteristic of this political system is that a ruler has complete authority over the government and the lives of the people.

During the Age of Absolutism, as this period is called, powerful new dynasties emerged. The Hapsburgs in Spain and the Bourbons in France passed power from generation to generation within the family while they added lands to their kingdoms through skillfully arranged marriages.

Absolute monarchs often had parliaments or other bodies, but these bodies had no real power. The ruler could dissolve them at will.

In theory, absolute monarchs had total power, but in practice, to preserve power, they had to balance the interests of different groups from nobles and clergy to the middle class and peasants.

Divine Right to Rule During the Age of Absolutism, European monarchs embraced the idea of **divine right**, meaning that their authority to rule came directly from God. They used divine right theory to justify their power. As God's representative on Earth, monarchs could command absolute obedience from their subjects. In the 1600s, a French bishop and court preacher, Jacques Bossuet (bah soo WAY) defended the theory of divine right and royal absolutism, saying that absolute power was necessary to protect the people.

"The royal power is absolute...Without this absolute authority the king could neither do good nor repress evil. It is necessary that his power be such that no one can escape him."

—Jacques Bossuet, "Politics Drawn from the Very Words of Scripture," 1679

Still, absolute monarchs who claimed to rule by divine right were expected to act for the good of their people.

By 1700, absolute monarchs reigned over most of the great powers in Europe, except England. In time, however, thinkers and others challenged divine right theory along with the entire system of absolute monarchy. They called, instead, for limits on government power and for governments to be responsible to the people.

2 IDENTIFY What are the characteristics of an absolute monarchy?

Spain and the Hapsburg Empire

By the 1500s, Spain had emerged as the first modern European power. Through their marriage, Queen Isabella and King Ferdinand had unified the country. They pursued a policy of imposing religious unity and financed Columbus's voyage, which would lead to the Spanish conquest of the Americas. Wealth from the Americas would help Spain to become the most powerful nation in Europe.

Charles V Wears Two Crowns In 1516, Ferdinand and Isabella's grandson, Charles I, became king of Spain, and thereby ruler of the Spanish colonies in the Americas as well. When his other grandfather died in 1519, Charles I also became heir to the sprawling

Hapsburg empire, which included the German states of the Holy Roman Empire and the Dutch Netherlands. As ruler of the Hapsburg empire, Charles took the name **Charles V**, the title by which historians now usually refer to him.

Ruling two empires involved Charles in constant warfare. He continued a long Hapsburg struggle with France over rival claims in Italy.

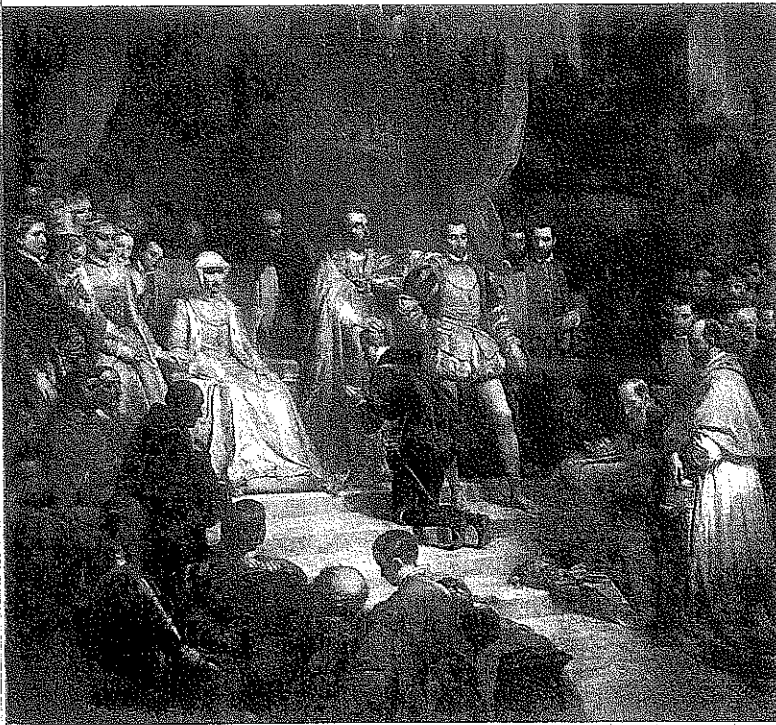
As a devout Catholic, he fought to suppress Protestantism in the German states. After years of religious conflict, however, Charles was forced to allow the German princes to choose their own religion.

His greatest foe was the Ottoman empire, which at the time controlled the Balkans in southeastern Europe. Under Suleiman, Ottoman forces advanced across central Europe to the walls surrounding Vienna, Austria. Although Austria held firm during the siege, the Ottomans occupied much of Hungary following their crushing victory at the Battle of Mohács. Ottoman naval forces also continued to challenge Spanish power in the Mediterranean.

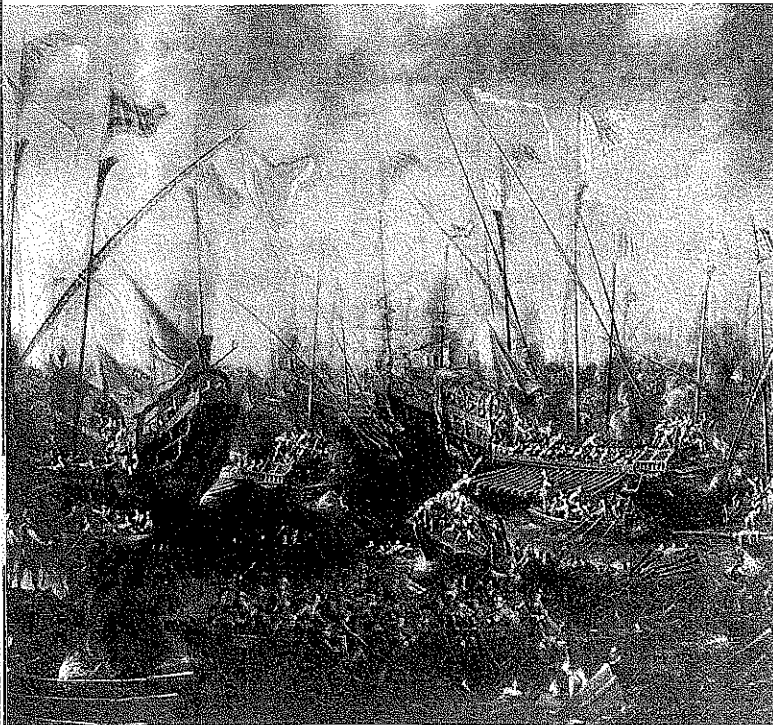
The Empire Is Divided The Hapsburg empire proved to be too scattered and cumbersome for any one person to rule. Exhausted, Charles gave up his titles in 1556 and entered a monastery. He divided his empire,



>> In the early 1500s, Charles V became ruler over both the Spanish and the Hapsburg empires. He faced constant warfare, particularly against the Ottomans.



>> This painting shows the abdication of Charles V 1555. He divided the Hapsburg empire between his son, Philip II of Spain, and his brother, Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand I. Infer What types of problems could have contributed to Charles V's decision to resign?



>> The Spanish fleet was victorious over the Ottomans at the Battle of Lepanto in 1571.

leaving the Hapsburg lands in central Europe to his brother Ferdinand, who became Holy Roman emperor. He gave Spain, the Netherlands, some southern Italian states, and Spain's overseas empire to his son Philip, who became Philip II.

2 SUMMARIZE Why did Charles V divide the Hapsburg Empire?

Philip II Becomes an Absolute Monarch

During his 42-year reign, **Philip II** expanded Spanish influence, strengthened the Catholic Church, and made his own power absolute. Thanks in part to silver from Spanish colonies in the Americas, he made Spain the foremost power in Europe.

A Dedicated Ruler Philip surpassed Ferdinand and Isabella in making every part of the government responsible to him. He reigned as an absolute monarch, claiming divine right. Like his father, he was hard working, devout, and ambitious. Unlike many other monarchs, Philip devoted most of his time to government work. He seldom hunted, never jousted, and lived as simply as a monk. The king's isolated, somber palace outside Madrid, known as the Escorial (es kohr YAHL), reflected his character. It served as a church, a residence, and a tomb for the royal family.

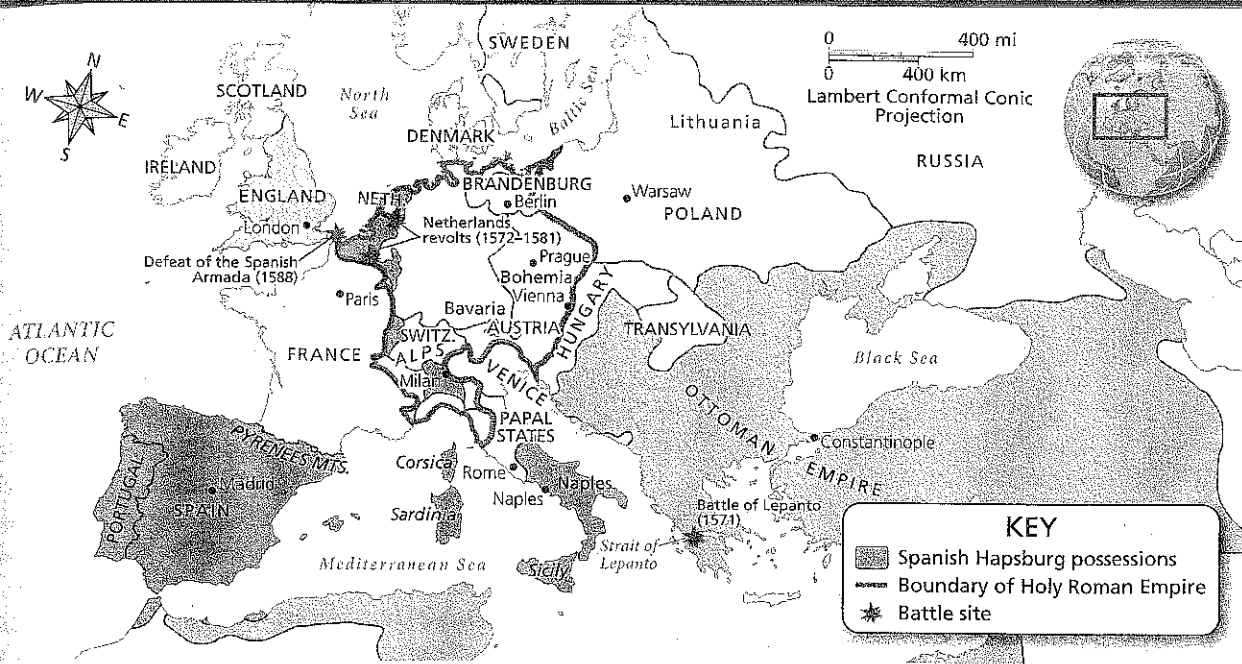
Philip saw himself as the guardian of the Roman Catholic Church. The great undertaking of his life was to defend the Catholic Reformation and turn back the rising Protestant tide in Europe. Within his empire, Philip enforced religious unity, turning the Inquisition against Protestants and other people thought to be heretics.

The Wars of Philip II Philip fought many wars to advance Spanish Catholic power. In the Mediterranean Spain and its Italian allies soundly defeated an Ottoman fleet at the Battle of Lepanto in 1571. Although Christians hailed this as a great victory, the Ottoman Empire would remain a major power in the Mediterranean region for three more centuries.

During the last half of his reign, Philip battled Protestants and other rebels in the Netherlands. At the time, the region included 17 provinces that are today Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg. It was the richest part of Philip's empire.

Protestants in the region resisted Philip's efforts to crush their faith. Protestants and Catholics alike opposed high taxes and autocratic Spanish rule, which threatened local traditions of self-government.

The Wars of Philip II, 1571–1588



>> **Integrate Information** Which country divided Philip's empire? Based on the map, why was England in a position to disrupt Spanish shipping?

In the 1560s, riots against the Inquisition sparked a general uprising in the Netherlands. Savage fighting raged for decades. In 1581, the northern, largely Protestant provinces declared their independence from Spain and became known as the Dutch Netherlands. They did not gain official recognition, however, until 1648. The southern, mostly Catholic provinces of the Netherlands remained part of the Spanish Empire.

The Spanish Armada By the 1580s, Philip saw England's Queen Elizabeth I as his chief Protestant enemy. First secretly, then openly, Elizabeth had supported the Dutch against Spain. She encouraged English captains, known as sea dogs, to plunder Spanish treasure ships and loot Spanish cities in the Americas. To Philip's dismay, Elizabeth made Francis Drake, the most daring sea dog, a knight instead of punishing him as a pirate.

To end English attacks and subdue the Dutch, Philip prepared a huge **armada**, or fleet, to carry a Spanish invasion force to England. In 1588, the Spanish Armada sailed with more than 130 ships, 20,000 men, and 2,400 pieces of artillery. The Spanish were confident of victory. "When we meet the English," predicted one Spanish commander, "God will surely arrange matters so that we can grapple and board them, either by sending some strange freak of weather or, more likely, just by depriving the English of their wits."

This prediction did not come to pass. In the English Channel, lumbering Spanish ships were outmaneuvered by the lighter, faster English ships. Strong winds favored the English, scattering the Armada. After further disasters at sea, the tattered remnants limped home in defeat.

Decline of the Spanish Empire While the defeat of the Spanish Armada ended Philip's plan to invade England, it had little short-term effect on his power. In the long-term, however, Spanish power slowly faded. The decline was due in part to Philip's successors, who were less able rulers than he.

Economic problems were also to blame. Costly overseas wars drained wealth out of Spain almost as fast as it came in. Treasure from the Americas led Spain to neglect farming and commerce. The government heavily taxed the small middle class, weakening a group that in other European nations supported royal power. The expulsion of Muslims and Jews from Spain deprived the economy of many skilled artisans and merchants. Finally, the influx of American gold and silver led to soaring inflation. As Spain's power dwindled in the 1600s and 1700s, Dutch, English, and

French fleets challenged—and eventually surpassed—Spanish power both in Europe and around the world.

2 SUMMARIZE What were Philip II's motivations for waging war?

ELPS 3.G.1 Listen to your teacher read *Philip II Becomes an Absolute Monarch*, and discuss your opinion of his reign.

Arts and Literature of Spain's Golden Century

The century from 1550 to 1650 is often referred to as Spain's *siglo de oro* (SEEG loh day OHR oh), or "golden century," for the brilliance of its arts and literature. Philip II was an enthusiastic patron of the arts and also founded academies of science and mathematics.

Painting Among the famous painters of this period was a man known as **El Greco**, meaning "the Greek." Though not Spanish by birth, El Greco became a master of Spanish painting. Born on the Greek island of Crete, El Greco had studied in Italy before settling in Spain. He produced haunting religious pictures and striking

portraits of Spanish nobles, done in a dramatically elongated style.

El Greco's use of vibrant colors influenced the work of Diego Velázquez (vuh LAHS kes), court painter to King Philip IV. Velázquez is perhaps best known for his vivid portraits of Spanish royalty.

Literature Spain's golden century produced several outstanding writers. Lope de Vega (LOH pay duh VAY guh), a peasant by birth, wrote more than 1,500 plays, including witty comedies and action-packed romances.

During Spain's golden age, **Miguel de Cervantes** (sur VAN teez) wrote Europe's first modern novel. *Don Quixote* pokes fun at medieval tales of chivalry. The elderly Don Quixote has read too many tales of days when fictional knights were bold. Imagining himself a medieval knight, he sets out across the Spanish countryside dressed in rusty armor. By his side is his practical servant, Sancho Panza.

Don Quixote mocks the traditions of Spain's feudal past. At the same time, Cervantes depicts with affection both the earthy realism of Sancho and the foolish but heroic idealism of Don Quixote.

2 DESCRIBE What was the *siglo de oro*?

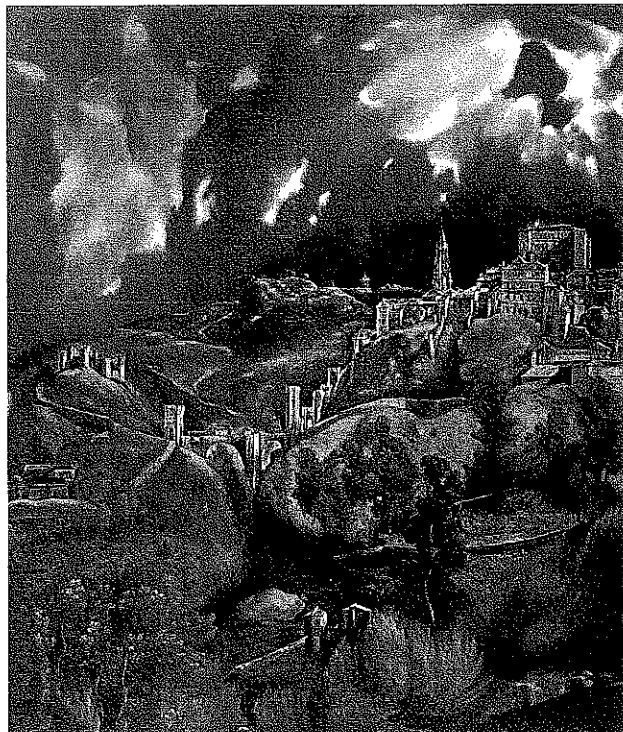
Royal Power Expands in France

Like Philip II in Spain, French rulers were determined to expand royal power. France was torn apart by wars of religion in the late 1500s. Then a new dynasty, the Bourbons, rose to power and built the foundations for an absolute monarchy in France.

Wars of Religion After the Hundred Years' War, French kings slowly consolidated power over their lands. In the 1500s, rivalry with Spain and the Protestant Reformation posed new challenges for France. Religious wars between the Catholic majority and French Protestants, called **Huguenots** (HYOO guh nahts), tore France apart. Leaders on both sides used the strife to further their own ambitions.

Each side committed terrible acts of violence. The worst began on St. Bartholomew's Day (a Catholic holiday), August 24, 1572.

While Huguenot and Catholic nobles were gathered for a royal wedding, a Catholic plot led to the massacre of 3,000 Huguenots. In the next few days, thousands more were slaughtered. For many, the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre symbolized the complete breakdown of order in France.



>> The Spanish painter El Greco was born Domenikos Theotokopoulos in Greece. The *View of Toledo*, shown here, was one of the very few landscapes done by El Greco. It shows his elongated, dramatic style.

 **Interactive Gallery**

Henry IV Restores Order In 1589, a Huguenot prince inherited the French throne as **Henry IV**. Henry was the first ruler in the Bourbon dynasty. As a Huguenot, Henry had battled Catholic forces. Once on the throne, he realized he would face severe problems ruling a largely Catholic country, so he converted to Catholicism. "Paris is well worth a Mass," he is supposed to have said. To protect Protestants, however, he issued the **Edict of Nantes** in 1598. It granted the Huguenots religious toleration and other freedoms.

Henry IV then set out to restore royal power and rebuild a land shattered by war. His goal, he said, was not the victory of one sect over another, but "a chicken in every pot"—a good Sunday dinner for every peasant. Under Henry, the government reached into every area of French life.

Royal officials administered justice, improved roads, built bridges, and revived agriculture. By building the royal bureaucracy and reducing the influence of nobles, Henry IV laid the foundations for royal absolutism.

Richelieu Strengthens Royal Authority When Henry IV was killed by an assassin in 1610, his nine-year-old son, Louis XIII, inherited the throne. For a time, nobles reasserted their power. Then, in 1624, Louis appointed **Cardinal Richelieu** (ree shul YOO) as his chief minister. This cunning, capable leader devoted the next 18 years to strengthening the central government.

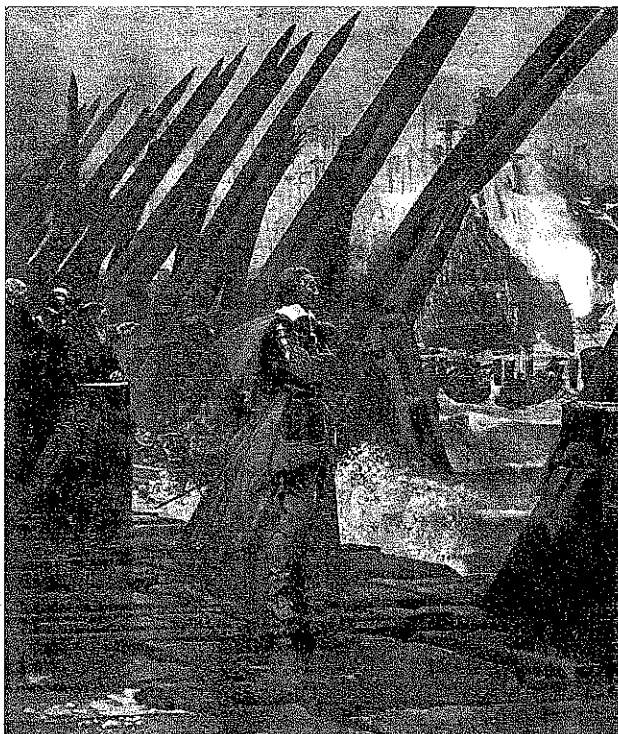
Richelieu was determined to destroy the power of two groups that defied royal authority—nobles and Huguenots. He defeated the private armies of the nobles and destroyed their fortified castles. While reducing their independence, Richelieu tied the nobles to the king by giving them high posts at court or in the royal army. At the same time, he smashed the walled cities of the Huguenots and outlawed their armies. Yet he allowed them to continue to practice their religion.

Richelieu handpicked his able successor, Cardinal Mazarin (mä za RAN). When five-year-old **Louis XIV** inherited the throne in 1643, the year after Richelieu's death, Mazarin was in place to serve as chief minister. Like Richelieu, Mazarin worked tirelessly to extend royal power.

IDENTIFY SUPPORTING DETAILS How did the Edict of Nantes affect Huguenots?



>> The St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre began at a royal wedding in Paris in 1572. Thousands of French Huguenots were massacred.



>> Cardinal Richelieu, one of the architects of French absolutism, was principle advisor to Louis XIII. The Siege of La Rochelle, shown here, was a battle in Richelieu's campaign to bring the Huguenots under royal authority.

Louis XIV, an Absolute Monarch

Soon after Louis XIV became king, disorder again swept France. In an uprising called the *Fronde*, nobles, merchants, peasants, and the urban poor each rebelled in order to protest royal power or preserve their own. On one occasion, rioters drove the boy king from his palace. It was an experience Louis would never forget.

When Mazarin died in 1661, the 23-year-old Louis resolved to take complete control over the government himself. "I have been pleased to entrust the government of my affairs to the late Cardinal," he declared. "It is now time that I govern them myself."

"I Am the State" Like his great-grandfather Philip II of Spain, Louis XIV firmly believed in his divine right to rule. He took the sun as the symbol of his absolute power.

Just as the sun stands at the center of the solar system, he argued, so the Sun King stands at the center of the nation. Louis is often quoted as saying, "*L'état, c'est moi*" (lay TAH seh MWAH), which in English translates as "I am the state."

During his reign, Louis did not once call a meeting of the Estates General, the medieval assembly made up of representatives of all French social classes. In fact, the Estates General did not meet between 1614

and 1789. Thus, the Estates General played no role in checking royal power.

Louis Centralizes Power Louis spent many hours each day attending to government affairs. To strengthen the state, he followed the policies of Richelieu. He expanded the bureaucracy and appointed **intendants**, royal officials who collected taxes, recruited soldiers, and carried out his policies in the provinces.

The king often appointed wealthy middle-class men to government jobs. In this way, Louis cemented ties with the middle class and limited the influence of nobles.

Under Louis XIV, the French army became the strongest in Europe. The state paid, fed, trained, and supplied up to 300,000 soldiers. Louis used this highly disciplined army to enforce his policies at home and abroad.

Colbert Strengthens the Economy The French economy grew under the king's brilliant finance minister, **Jean-Baptiste Colbert** (kohl behr). Colbert had new lands cleared for farming, encouraged mining and other basic industries, and built up luxury trades such as lacemaking. To protect French manufacturers, Colbert put high tariffs on imported goods.

Colbert also fostered overseas colonies, such as New France in North America and several colonies in India.

LOUIS XIV STRENGTHENS HIS ABSOLUTE MONARCHY

<p>FOLLOWED THE PROVEN POLICIES OF CARDINAL RICHELIEU</p> 	<p>EXPANDED THE BUREAUCRACY</p> <p>APPOINTED INTENDANTS</p> <p>WHO COLLECTED TAXES, </p> <p> RECRUITED SOLDIERS, AND CARRIED OUT POLICIES</p>	<p>GAVE MANY JOBS TO WEALTHY MIDDLE-CLASS MEN TO CEMENT HIS TIES WITH THE MIDDLE CLASS</p> <p>BUILT THE FRENCH ARMY INTO THE STRONGEST IN EUROPE</p> 
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>> **Make Generalizations** What do all Louis XIV's efforts to strengthen absolutism have in common?

Imposing mercantilist policies, he regulated trade with the colonies to enrich the royal treasury.

Colbert's policies helped make France the wealthiest state in Europe. Yet not even his financial genius could produce enough income to support the huge costs of Louis's court and his many foreign wars.

RECALL Why did Louis XIV choose the sun as his symbol?

The Royal Palace at Versailles

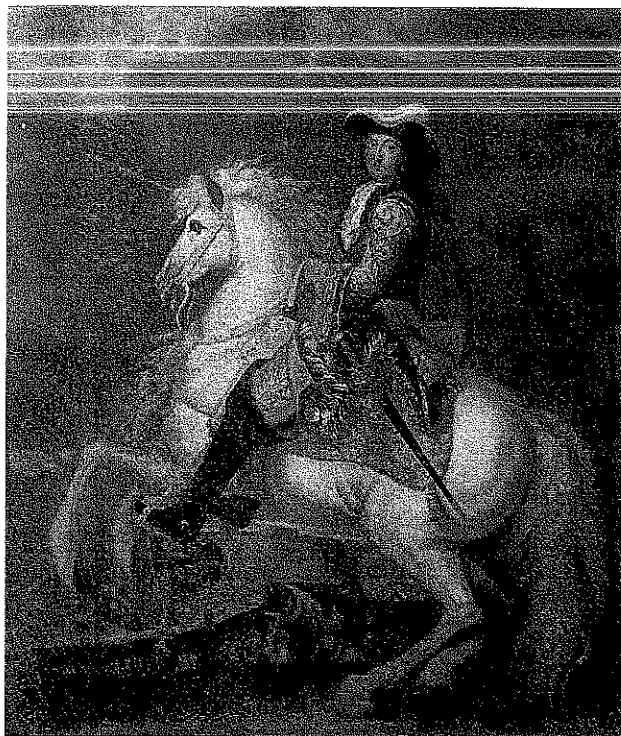
In the countryside near Paris, Louis XIV turned a royal hunting lodge into the immense palace of **Versailles** (ver sy). There, he presided over both his court and the government. Versailles became the perfect symbol of the power of the Sun King.

Louis spared no expense in making Versailles the most magnificent building in Europe. Its halls and salons displayed the finest paintings and statues. Some depicted the king as Apollo, the ancient Greek god of the sun. Chandeliers and mirrors glittered with gold. In the royal gardens, millions of flowers, trees, and fountains were set out in precise geometric patterns, reflecting royal power over nature.

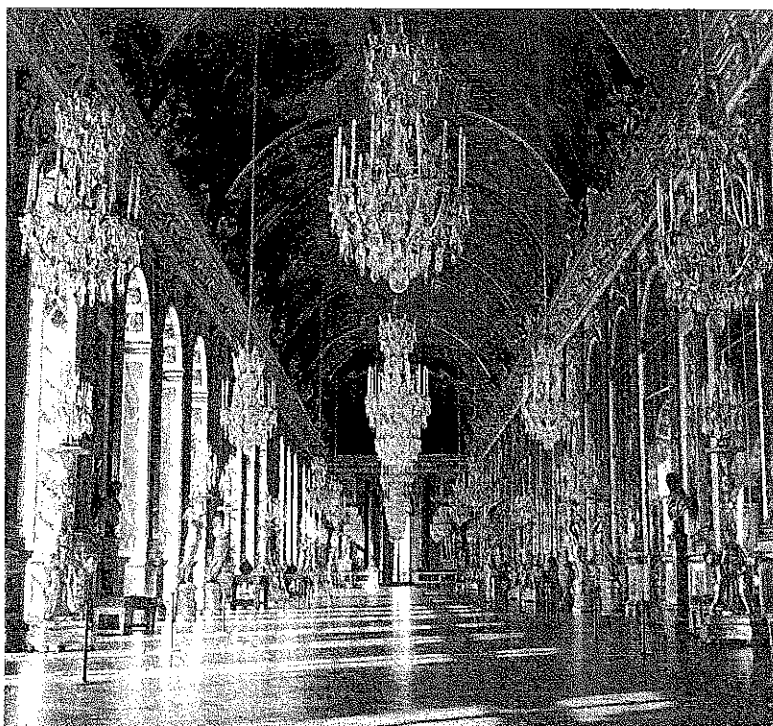
Elaborate Court Ceremonies Louis XIV perfected elaborate ceremonies that emphasized his own importance. Each day began in the king's bedroom with a ritual known as the **levée** (luh VAY), or rising. High-ranking nobles competed for the honor of holding the royal washbasin or handing the king his diamond-buckled shoes. At night, the ceremony was repeated in reverse. Wives of nobles vied to serve women of the royal family.

Rituals such as the levée served a serious purpose. French nobles were descendants of the feudal lords who had held power in medieval times. At liberty on their estates, these nobles were a threat to the power of the monarchy. By luring nobles to Versailles, Louis turned them into courtiers angling for privileges rather than rival warriors battling for power. His tactic worked because he carefully protected their prestige and continued their privilege of not paying taxes.

A Flowering of French Culture The king and his court supported a "splendid century" of the arts. The king sponsored musical entertainments and commissioned plays by the best writers. The age of Louis XIV came to be known as the classical age of French drama.

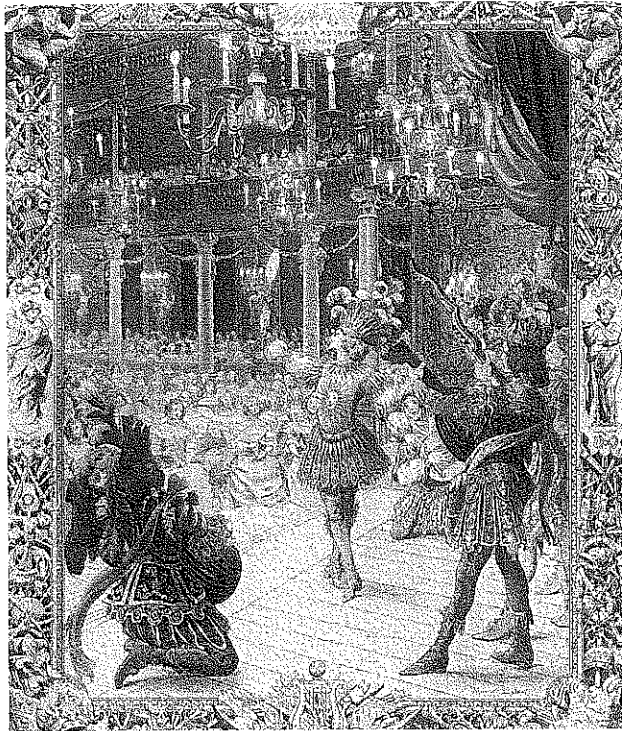


>> Louis XIV, who came to the throne at a young age, ruled France for more than 72 years. He believed in the divine right of kings and was a powerful absolute monarch.



>> The Hall of Mirrors is one of the most famous rooms at the Versailles Palace. This elaborate palace was the principal residence of Louis XIV and a monument to his power.

 [Interactive Gallery](#)



>> This is a 19th-century lithograph of the "Ballet of the Night," performed in Paris in 1654. In this scene, titled "I am the sun king," a dancer representing Louis XIV plays the rising sun. Louis XIV was a leading patron of the arts. **Infer** Why might Louis XIV have sponsored this ballet?

In painting, music, architecture, and decorative arts, French styles became the model for all Europe. A new form of dance drama, ballet, gained its first great popularity at the French court. As a leading patron of culture, Louis sponsored the French Academies, which set high standards for both the arts and the sciences.

? SUMMARIZE How did Louis XIV secure support from the nobility?

The Legacy of Louis XIV

Louis XIV ruled France for 72 years—far longer than any other monarch. During that time, French culture, manners, and customs set the standard for European tastes. The Sun King made France the strongest state in Europe. In both foreign and domestic affairs, however, many of Louis's policies were costly failures.

Costly Wars Louis XIV poured vast resources into wars meant to expand French borders. However, rival

rulers joined forces to check these ambitions. Led by the Dutch or the English, these alliances fought to maintain the **balance of power**. The goal was to maintain a distribution of military and economic power to prevent any one country from dominating Europe.

In 1700, Louis's grandson Philip V inherited the throne of Spain. To maintain the balance of power, neighboring nations led by England fought to prevent the union of France and Spain.

The War of the Spanish Succession dragged on until 1713, when an exhausted France signed the Treaty of Utrecht (vootrekt). Philip remained on the Spanish throne, but France agreed never to unite the two crowns.

Huguenots Face Persecution Perhaps Louis's most costly mistake was his treatment of the Huguenots. Louis saw the Protestant minority as a threat to religious and political unity. In 1685, he revoked, or withdrew, the Edict of Nantes.

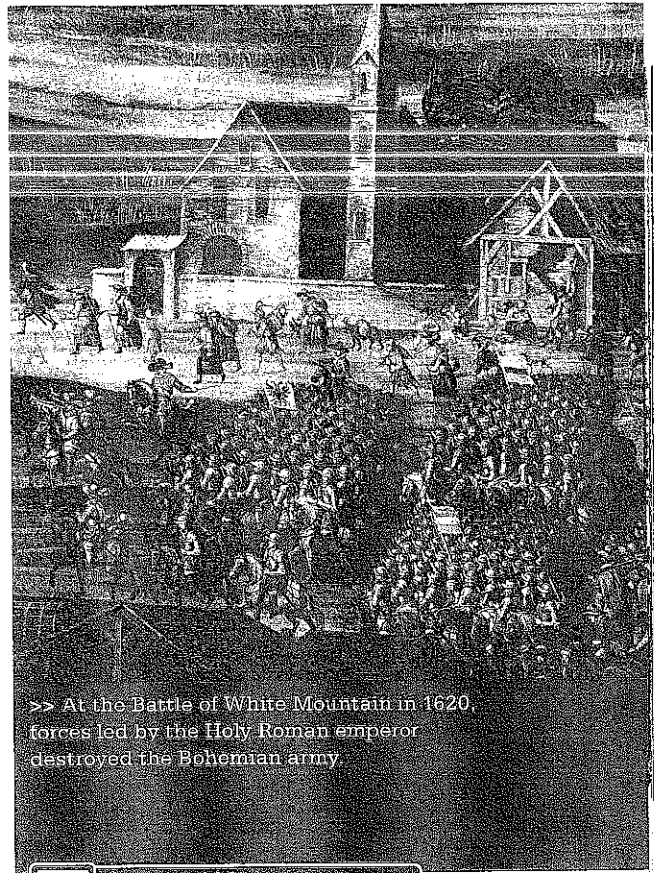
Facing renewed persecution, more than 100,000 Huguenots fled France. They settled mainly in England, the Netherlands, Germany, Poland, and the Americas. The Huguenots had been among the hardest working and most prosperous of Louis's subjects. Their loss was a serious blow to the French economy, just as the expulsion of Spanish Muslims and Jews had hurt Spain.

? IDENTIFY CAUSE AND EFFECT How did Louis's actions weaken the French economy?

ASSESSMENT

1. **Identify** What factors led to the rise of absolute monarchies?
2. **Summarize** How did Spanish power grow under Charles V? under Philip II?
3. **Identify Supporting Details** How did France build a centralized monarchy after the wars of religion?
4. **Support a Point of View with Evidence** Would you consider Louis XIV a successful absolute monarch? Give examples from the text to support your answer.
5. **Connect** What impact did Spanish king Philip II and French king Louis XIV have on the arts?

During the Reformation, the many German-speaking states within the Holy Roman Empire were plunged into religious wars. Some princes remained loyal to the Roman Catholic Church. Others accepted the teachings of Protestant reformers like Martin Luther or John Calvin. By the early 1600s, war raged across much of the Holy Roman Empire.



>> At the Battle of White Mountain in 1620, forces led by the Holy Roman emperor destroyed the Bohemian army.

Interactive Flipped Video

Rise of Austria, Prussia, and Russia

The Thirty Years' War

A Fragmented "Empire" By early modern times, as the French philosopher Voltaire later observed, the Holy Roman Empire was neither holy, nor Roman, nor an empire. Instead, by the seventeenth century it had become a patchwork of several hundred small, separate states.

In theory, these states were ruled by the Holy Roman emperor, who was chosen by seven leading German princes called **electors**. In practice, the emperor had little power over the many rival princes. This power vacuum contributed to the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War.

Religion further divided the German states. The north had become largely Protestant, while the south remained Catholic.

Conflict Erupts The Thirty Years' War was actually a series of wars. It began in Bohemia, the present-day Czech Republic. Ferdinand, the Catholic Hapsburg king of Bohemia, sought to suppress Protestants and to assert royal power over nobles.

TEKS

16.A, 19.B, 24.B

>> Objectives

Outline the causes and results of the Thirty Years' War.

Understand how Austria and Prussia emerged as great powers.

Explain the steps Peter the Great took to modernize Russia.

Describe how Russia grew under Peter the Great and Catherine the Great.

Describe how European nations tried to maintain a balance of power.

>> Key Terms

elector	autocratic
mercenary	warm-water port
depopulation	St. Petersburg
Peace of Westphalia	Catherine the Great
Maria Theresa	partition
War of the Austrian Succession	
Prussia	
Frederick William I	
Frederick II	
Peter the Great	
westernization	
boyar	

In May 1618, a few rebellious Protestant nobles tossed two royal officials out of a castle window in Prague. This act, known as the Defenestration of Prague, sparked a general revolt, which Ferdinand moved to suppress. As both sides sought allies, what began as a local conflict widened into a general European war.

The following year, Ferdinand was elected Holy Roman Emperor. With the support of Spain, Poland, and other Catholic states, he tried to roll back the Reformation by force. Early on, he defeated rebellious Bohemians and their Protestant allies. Alarmed, Protestant powers like the Netherlands and Sweden sent troops into Germany.

Political motives quickly outweighed religious issues. Catholic and Protestant rulers shifted alliances to suit their own interests. At one point, Catholic France joined Lutheran Sweden against the Catholic Hapsburgs.

A Time of Chaos The fighting took a terrible toll. Roving armies of **mercenaries**, or soldiers for hire, burned villages, destroyed crops, and killed without mercy. Murder and torture were followed by famine and disease. Wolves, not seen in settled areas since the Middle Ages, stalked the deserted streets of once-bustling villages.

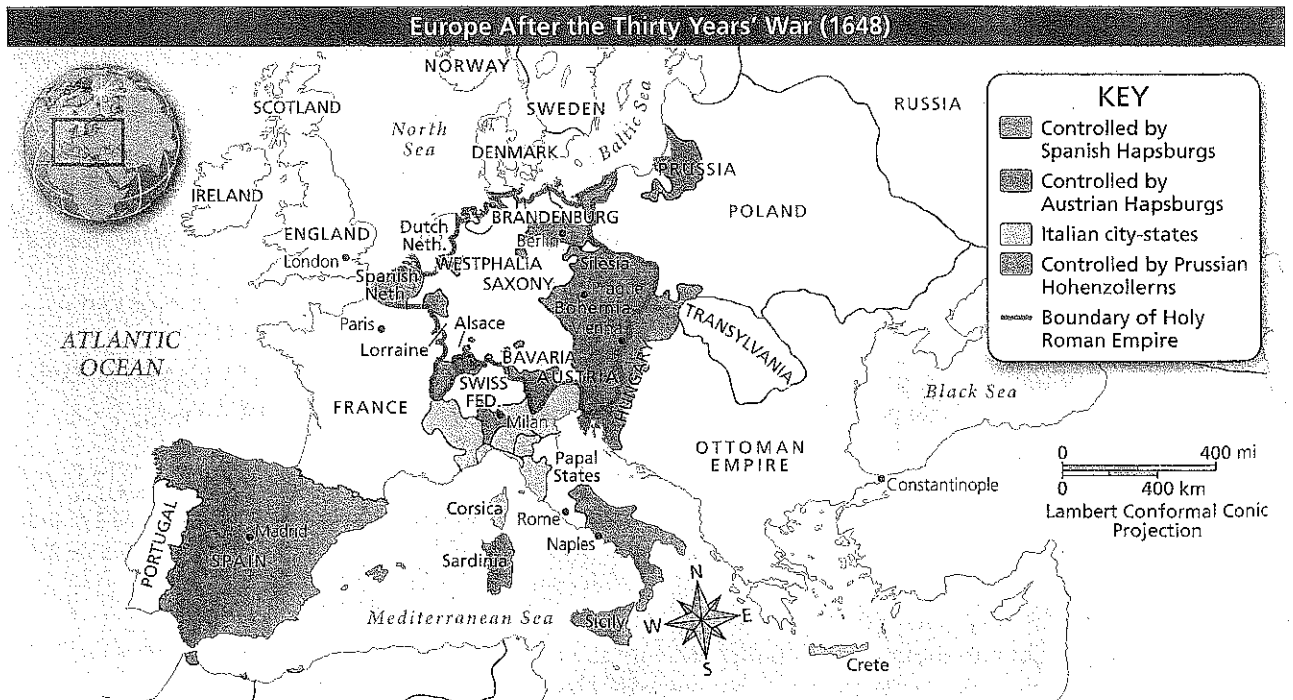
The war led to a severe **depopulation**, or reduction in population. Exact statistics do not exist, but historians estimate that as many as one third of the people in the German states may have died as a result of the war.

Peace Is Restored Finally, in 1648, the exhausted combatants accepted a series of treaties, known as the **Peace of Westphalia**. Because so many powers had been involved in the conflict, the treaties ended with a general European peace and settled other international problems.

Among the combatants, France emerged a clear winner, gaining territory on both its Spanish and German frontiers. The Hapsburgs were not so fortunate. They had to accept the almost total independence of all the princes of the Holy Roman Empire. In addition, the Netherlands and the Swiss Federation (present-day Switzerland) won recognition as independent states.

The Thirty Years' War left German lands divided into more than 360 separate states—"one for every day of the year." These states still acknowledged the rule of the Holy Roman emperor. Yet each state had its own government, currency, church, armed forces, and foreign policy.

The German-speaking states, if united, had the potential to become the most powerful nation in Europe.



>> **Analyze Maps** After the Thirty Years' War, the Peace of Westphalia redrew the map of Europe. Who controlled Bohemia after 1648?



They remained fragmented, however, and would not be joined into a single nation for another 223 years.

2 IDENTIFY CAUSE AND EFFECT What were some effects of the Peace of Westphalia?

ELPS 4.C.1 Demonstrate your understanding of root words to decode the meanings of vocabulary words used in this section.

Hapsburg Austria Expands

The Thirty Years' War took a terrible toll on the people of the German states. Out of the ashes, however, rose two great German-speaking powers: Austria and Prussia. Like Louis XIV in France, their rulers tried to centralize power and rule as absolute monarchs.

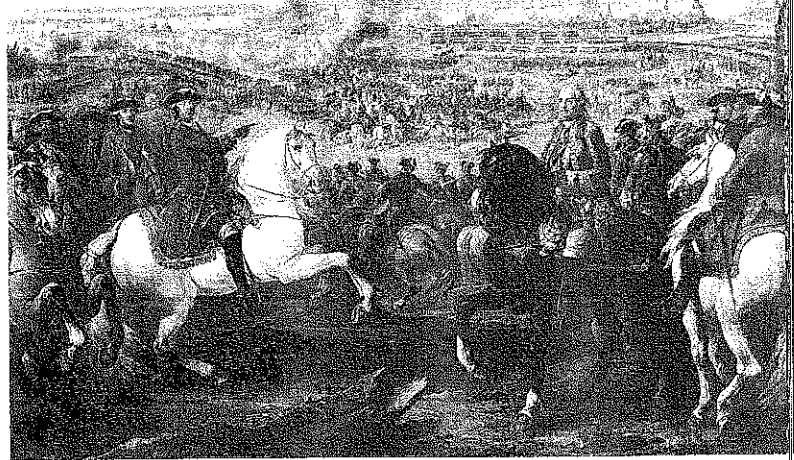
A Diverse Empire Though weakened by war, the Hapsburgs still wanted to create a strong united state. They kept the title "Holy Roman emperor" but focused their attention on expanding their own lands. To Austria, their base of power, they added Bohemia, Hungary, and, later, parts of Poland and some Italian states.

Uniting these lands proved difficult. Not only were they divided by geography, they included a number of diverse peoples and cultures as well. By the 1700s, the Hapsburg Empire included Germans, Magyars, Slavs, and others. In many parts of the empire, people had their own languages, laws, political assemblies, and customs.

The Hapsburgs did exert some control over these diverse peoples. They sent German-speaking officials to Bohemia and Hungary and settled Austrians on lands they had seized in these provinces. They also put down revolts in Bohemia and Hungary. Still, the Hapsburgs never developed a fully centralized governmental system like that of France.

Empress Maria Theresa In the early 1700s, a new challenge threatened Hapsburg Austria. Emperor Charles VI had no male heir. His daughter, **Maria Theresa**, was intelligent and capable, but no woman had yet ruled Hapsburg lands in her own name. Charles persuaded other European rulers to recognize his daughter's right to succeed him. When he died, however, many ignored their pledge.

Shortly after Charles's death in 1740, Frederick II of Prussia seized the rich Hapsburg province of Silesia. This action sparked the eight-year **War of the Austrian Succession**.



>> The War of the Austrian Succession challenged Maria Theresa's right to rule the Holy Roman Empire. In 1745, French forces defeated British and Austrian troops at the Battle of Fontenoy, shown here.

Maria Theresa set off for Hungary to appeal for military help from her Hungarian subjects. The Hungarians were ordinarily unfriendly to the Hapsburgs. But she made a dramatic plea before an assembly of Hungarian nobles. According to one account, the nobles rose to their feet and shouted, "Our lives and blood for your Majesty!" She eventually got further help from Britain and Russia.

Reforms of an Absolute Monarch Maria Theresa never succeeded in forcing Frederick out of Silesia. Still, she did preserve her empire and win the support of most of her people. Equally important, she strengthened Hapsburg power by reorganizing the bureaucracy and improving tax collection. She forced nobles and clergy to pay taxes and tried to ease the burden of taxes and labor services on peasants.

Maria Theresa was an absolute monarch who believed that her decisions were for the good of her subjects. Like other rulers at the time, she strengthened royal authority by limiting the power of nobles and the Church.

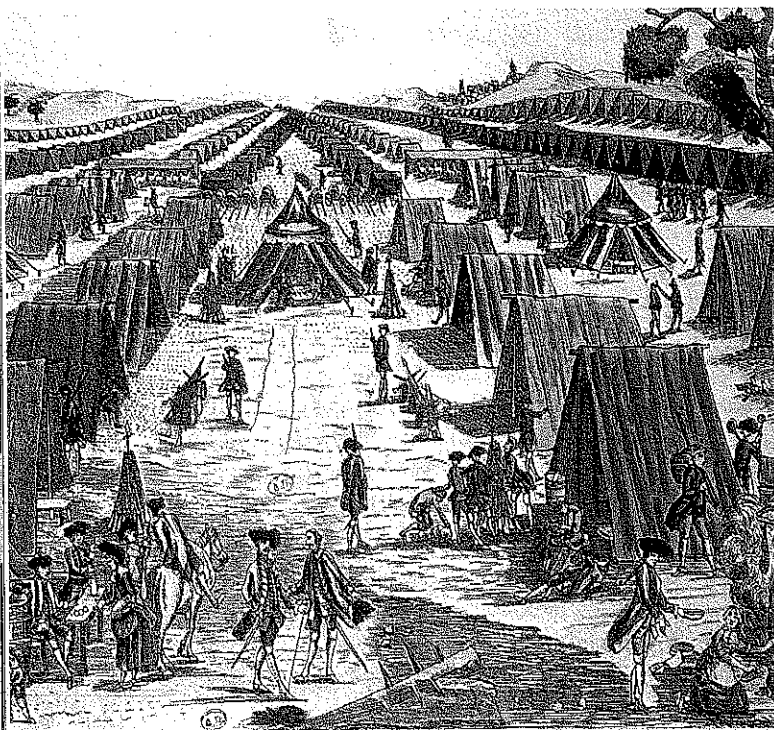
2 IDENTIFY CAUSE AND EFFECT What caused the War of the Austrian Succession?

Prussia Emerges

While Austria was molding a strong Catholic state, **Prussia** emerged as a new Protestant German-speaking power in the north. In the 1600s, the Hohenzollern (HOH un tshahl urn) family ruled scattered lands across north Germany. After the Peace of Westphalia, ambitious Hohenzollern rulers united their holdings by taking over states between them. Like absolute rulers elsewhere, they imposed royal power on all their subjects and reduced the independence of their nobles, called Junkers (YOON kerz).

Creating an Efficient Bureaucracy To achieve their goals, Hohenzollern rulers set up an efficient central bureaucracy and forged one of the best-trained armies in Europe. One Prussian military leader boasted, "Prussia is not a state which possesses an army, but an army which possesses a state."

Emperor **Frederick William I**, who came to power in 1713, gained the loyalty of the Junkers by giving them positions in the army and government. His tactic reduced the nobles' independence and increased his own control. By 1740, Prussia was strong enough to challenge its rival Austria.



>> Hohenzollern rulers united their lands to create a Prussian empire. This 18th-century print shows a Prussian army camp in Pomerania, territory that lay between East Prussia and West Prussia.

Frederick the Great That year, young **Frederick II** inherited the throne. From an early age, Frederick was trained in the art of war, as his father insisted.

His tutor must take the greatest pains to imbue my son with a sincere love for the soldier's profession and to impress upon him that nothing else in the world can confer upon a prince such fame and honor as the sword.

—Frederick William I

However, Frederick preferred playing the flute and writing poetry. His father despised these pursuits and treated the young prince so badly that he tried to flee the country. Discovering these plans, Frederick William put his son in solitary confinement. Then he forced the 18-year-old prince to watch as the friend who had helped him was beheaded.

Frederick's harsh military training had an effect. After becoming king in 1740, Frederick II lost no time in using his army. He boldly seized Silesia from Austria, sparking the War of the Austrian Succession.

In several later wars, Frederick continued to brilliantly use his disciplined army, forcing all to recognize Prussia as a great power. His exploits and his power as an absolute monarch earned him the name Frederick the Great.

2 SUMMARIZE How did Frederick William increase his power?

Peter the Great Modernizes Russia

From 1604 to 1613, Russia was in a period of disorder, plagued by foreign invasions and internal rebellion. The rise of the first Romanov tsar restored a measure of order. Still, Russia remained a medieval state, untouched by the Renaissance or Reformation and largely isolated from Western Europe.

At the end of the century, a tsar emerged who was strong enough to regain the absolute power of earlier tsars. Just 10 years old when he took the throne in 1682, Peter I took control of the government seven years later. **Peter the Great**, as he came to be called, used his power to put Russia on the road to becoming a great modern power.

Peter Visits the West The young tsar was a striking figure, nearly seven feet tall, with a booming laugh and a furious temper. Although he was not well educated, he was immensely curious. He spent hours in the Moscow neighborhood where many Dutch, Scottish, English, and other foreigners lived. There, he heard

of the new technology that was helping Western European monarchs forge powerful empires.

In 1697, Peter set out to learn about Western technology and ways for himself. He spent hours walking the streets of European cities, noting the manners and homes of the people. He visited factories and art galleries, learned anatomy from a doctor, and even had a dentist teach him how to pull teeth.

In England, Peter was impressed by Parliament. "It is good," he said, "to hear subjects speaking truthfully and openly to their king."

The Westernization of Russia Returning to Russia, Peter brought a group of technical experts, teachers, and soldiers he had recruited in Europe. He then embarked on a policy of **westernization**, the adoption of Western ideas, technology, and culture.

Some changes had a symbolic meaning. He forced the **boyars**, or landowning nobles, to shave their traditional beards and wear Western-style clothes. To end the practice of secluding upper-class women in separate quarters, he held grand parties at which women and men were expected to dance together. Russian nobles opposed this radical mixing of the sexes in public, but they had to comply.

To impose his will, Peter became the most **autocratic** of Europe's absolute monarchs, meaning that he ruled with unlimited authority. Determined to centralize royal power, he brought the Russian Orthodox Church under his control. He forced the haughty boyars to serve the state in civilian or military jobs.

Extending Serfdom Peter knew that nobles would serve the state only if their own interests were protected. Therefore, he passed laws ensuring that nobles retained control over their lands. This included the serfs who were tied to those lands.

Under Peter's rule, serfdom spread in Russia at a time when it was dying out in Western Europe. Further, he forced some serfs to become soldiers or to work as laborers on roads, canals, and other government projects.

A Harsh, Effective Ruler Peter showed no mercy to any who resisted his new order. When elite palace guards revolted, he had more than 1,000 of the rebels tortured and executed. Then, as an example of his power, he left their rotting corpses outside the palace walls for months.

Peter was known not only for cruelty but also for remaking Russia. He imported Western technology, simplified the Russian alphabet, and set up academies for the study of mathematics, science, and engineering. To pay for his reforms, Peter adopted mercantilist

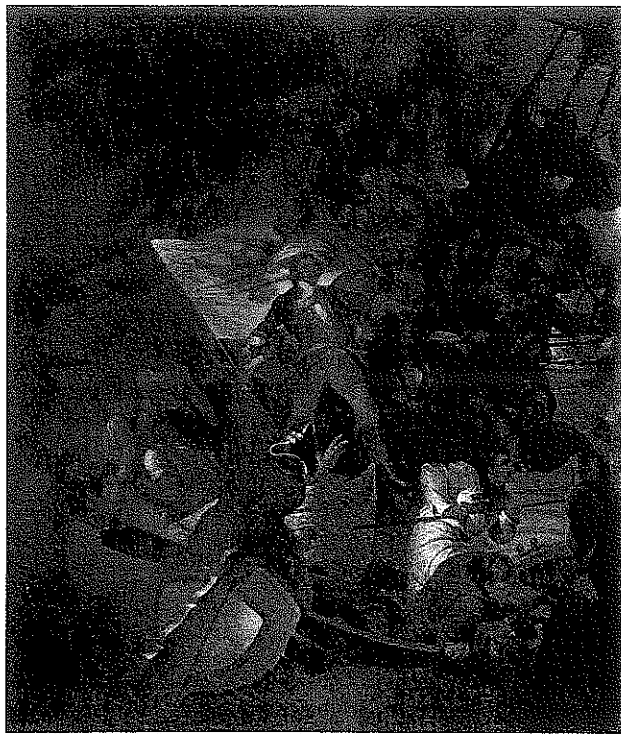


>> In this image, Peter the Great is studying the building plans for St. Petersburg. The establishment of the city was one of his most important and long-lasting achievements.

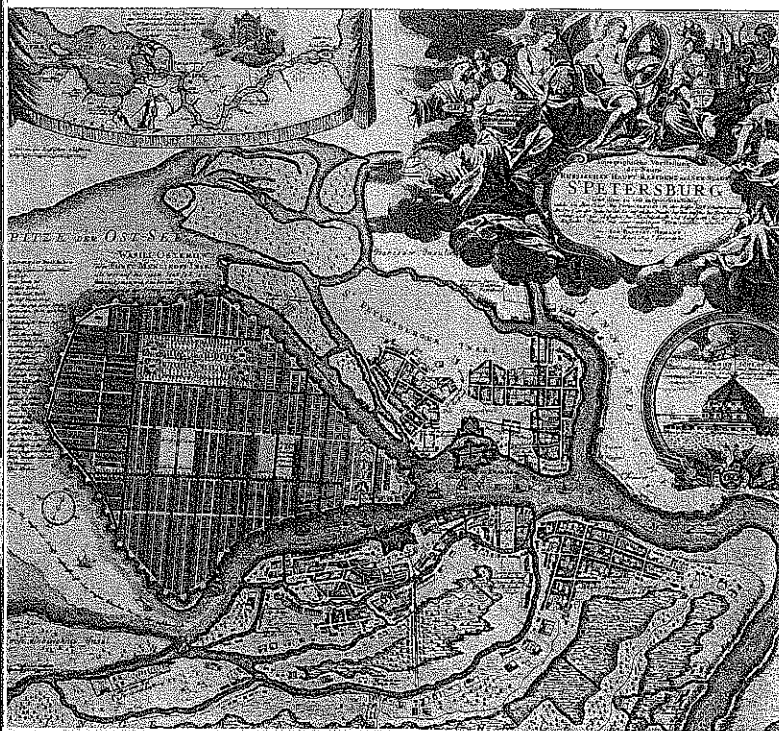
 [Interactive Gallery](#)



>> While visiting the Netherlands, Peter the Great disguised himself as a ship carpenter's apprentice to study shipbuilding. **Draw Conclusions** Why might Peter disguise himself like this?



>> Peter wanted to gain access to a warm-water port and the open sea. His first step toward this goal was to capture Azov, a town in what is now southwestern Russia, from the Turks. This painting shows the successful capture of Azov in 1696.



>> **Analyze Maps** This historical map shows the city of St. Petersburg, built by Peter the Great. What are the benefits of St. Petersburg's location? What are the challenges?

policies, such as encouraging exports. He improved waterways and canals, developed mining and textile manufacturing, and backed new trading companies. Peter succeeded in refashioning Russia from a medieval backwater into a rising European—and Asian—power.

CATEGORIZE What policies did Peter use to solidify his control over the nobles?

Expanding Russia's Borders

From his earliest days as tsar, Peter worked to build Russia's military power. He created the largest standing army in Europe, built a world-class navy from scratch, and set out to extend Russian borders to the west and south. To achieve these goals meant fighting Russia's neighbors.

Seeking a Warm-Water Seaport Peter's chief goal was to win a **warm-water port**, a port that was not frozen in winter. Russian seaports, located along the Arctic Ocean, were covered in ice most of the year. A warm-water port would increase Russia's ability to trade with the West.

The nearest warm-water coast was located along the Black Sea. To gain control of this territory, Peter had to push through the powerful Ottoman Empire. In the end, Peter was unable to defeat the Ottomans and gain his warm-water port. The drive to achieve this goal motivated future Russian tsars, and by the late 1700s, Catherine the Great would succeed.

The Great Northern War In 1700, Peter began a long war against the kingdom of Sweden, which at the time dominated the Baltic region. Early on, Russia suffered humiliating defeats. A Swedish force of only 8,000 men defeated a Russian army five times its size. Undaunted, Peter rebuilt his army, modeling it after European armies.

Finally, in 1709, he defeated the Swedes and won territory along the Baltic Sea. On this land, Peter would build a magnificent new capital city, **St. Petersburg**.

A "Window on the West" St. Petersburg became the great symbol of Peter's desire to forge a modern, Western-oriented Russia nation. Seeking to open a "window on the West," he located the city along the swampy shores of the Neva River, near the Baltic coast. He forced tens of thousands of serfs to drain the swamps. Many thousands died, but Peter's plan for the city succeeded.

On his journey to the West, Peter had visited Louis XIV's splendid new palace of Versailles. Like the Sun King, Peter invited the best European architects and artisans to design and build the palaces for his new city. Peter even planned the city's parks and boulevards himself, modeling them on those he had seen at Versailles.

Expanding to the East Peter also expanded the Russian empire eastward toward the Pacific. Russian traders and raiders also crossed the plains and rivers of Siberia. Under Peter, Russia signed a treaty with China that recognized Russia's claim to lands north of China and defined the common border of the two empires.

In the early 1700s, Peter hired the Danish navigator Vitus Bering to explore what became known as the Bering Strait between Siberia and Alaska. After Peter's death, Russian traders built outposts in Alaska and northern California. Few Russians moved east of the Ural Mountains at this time, but the expansion made Russia the largest country in the world. It still is today, nearly 300 years later.

A Mixed Legacy When Peter died in 1725, he left a mixed legacy. He had expanded Russian territory, gained ports on the Baltic Sea, and created a mighty army. He had also ended Russia's long period of isolation. From the 1700s on, Russia would be increasingly involved in the affairs of Western Europe. Yet many of Peter's ambitious reforms died with him. Nobles, for example, soon ignored his policy of service to the state.

Like earlier tsars, Peter the Great had used terror to enforce his absolute power. His policies contributed to the growth of serfdom, which served only to widen the gap between Russia and the West that Peter had sought to narrow.

IDENTIFY CAUSE AND EFFECT What impact did Peter's defeat of Sweden have on Russia's expansion?

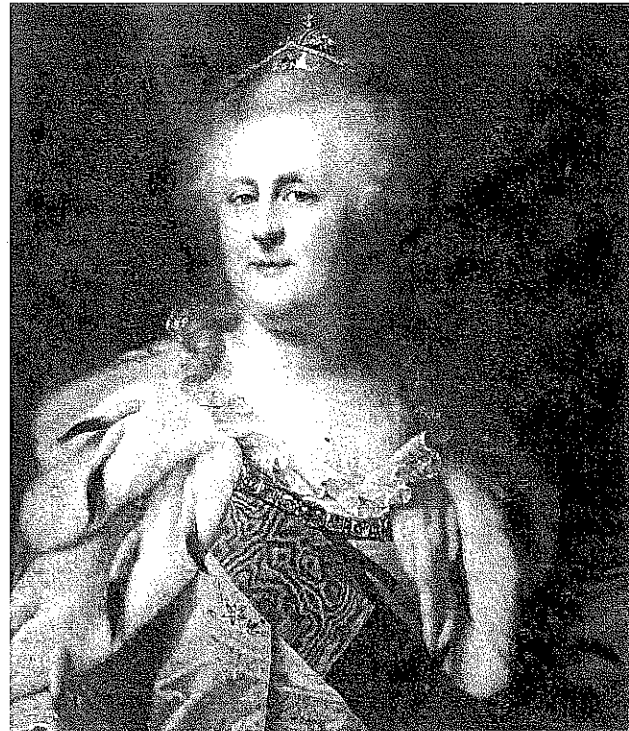
Catherine the Great

Peter's successors in the Romanov dynasty were ineffective rulers. Russian nobles quickly reasserted their independence. Then a new monarch took the reins of power firmly in hand. She became known to history as **Catherine the Great**.

A German Princess Becomes Tsar A German princess by birth, Catherine came to Russia at the age of 15 to wed the heir to the Russian throne. She learned Russian, embraced the Russian Orthodox faith, and won the loyalty of the people.



>> The Bering expedition brought the Russians to the west coast of North America.



>> Catherine the Great, shown here in a 1794 portrait, took over the rule of Russia after the assassination of her husband, Tsar Peter III.

In 1762, a group of Russian army officers loyal to her deposed and murdered her mentally unstable husband, Tsar Peter III. Whether or not Catherine was involved in the assassination is uncertain. In any case, with the support of the military, she ascended the Russian throne.

Catherine Embraces Reform Catherine proved to be an efficient, energetic empress. She reorganized the provincial government, codified laws, and began state-sponsored education for both boys and girls.

Like Peter the Great, Catherine embraced Western ideas and worked to bring Russia fully into European cultural and political life. At court, she encouraged French language and customs, wrote histories and plays, and organized performances. She was also a serious student of the French thinkers who led the intellectual movement known as the Enlightenment.

An Absolute Monarch Like rulers in France and Spain, Catherine was an absolute monarch. Like them, she could be ruthless. She granted a charter to the boyars outlining important rights, such as exemption from taxes. She also allowed them to increase their stranglehold on the peasants. When peasants rebelled against the harsh burdens of serfdom, Catherine harshly suppressed the uprisings. Under Catherine,

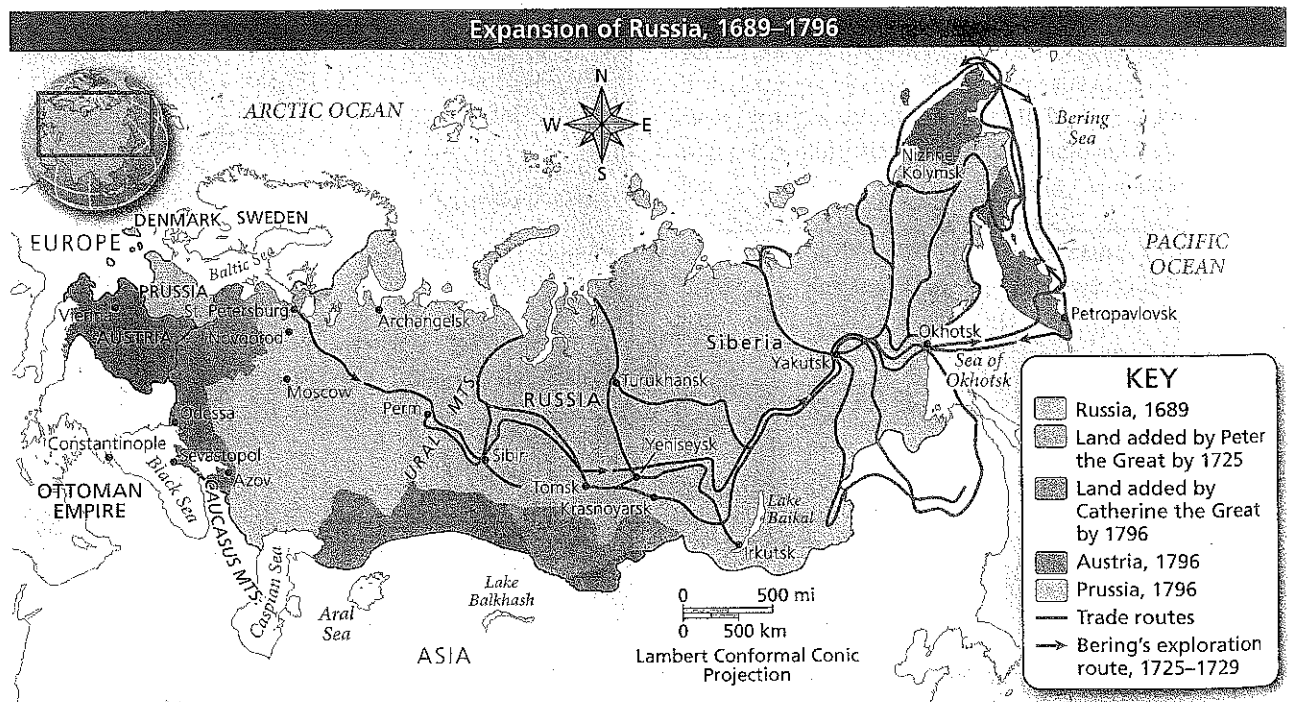
conditions grew even worse for Russian peasants and serfdom continued to spread.

Like Peter the Great, Catherine was determined to expand Russia's borders. After a war against the Ottoman Empire, she achieved the Russian dream of a warm-water port on the Black Sea. She also took steps to seize territory from neighboring Poland.

The Partitions of Poland Poland-Lithuania had once been a great European power. However, its rulers were unable to centralize their power or diminish the influence of the Polish nobility. In the 1770s, three powerful neighboring monarchs—Catherine of Russia, Frederick II of Prussia, and Joseph II of Austria—hungrily eyed Poland.

To avoid fighting one another, the three monarchs agreed in 1772 to **partition**, or divide up, Poland. Poland was partitioned three times between the 1770s and 1790s. Russia took the eastern part, where many Russians and Ukrainians lived. Austria and Prussia divided up the rest. By 1795, the independent kingdom of Poland had vanished from the map. Not until 1919 would a free Polish state reappear.

COMPARE How were Catherine's goals similar to those of Peter?



>> Analyze Maps Russia expanded its borders from 1689 to 1796. Which five cities could probably serve as warm-water ports?

ELPS **ELPS 3.G.2** Read, or listen to your teacher read *Catherine the Great* and discuss the positive and negative outcomes of her reign.

Five Great European Powers

By 1750, five European powers had come to dominate European affairs. They were Austria, Prussia, France, Britain, and Russia. All five had strong centralized governments. Although Spain and the Ottoman Empire ruled parts of Europe, these once powerful empires were in decline.

Struggles for Power As these five nation-states competed with one another, they formed various alliances to maintain the balance of power. Though nations sometimes switched partners, two basic rivalries persisted. Prussia battled Austria for control of the German-speaking states. At the same time, Britain and France competed for power and influence both in Europe and in their growing overseas empires.

On occasion, these rivalries resulted in worldwide conflict. The Seven Years' War, which lasted from 1756 until 1763, was fought on four continents.

In Europe, Prussia and Britain battled Austria, France, Russia, and Sweden. Britain and France also battled for power in India, Africa, and North America, where the conflict became known as the French and Indian War.

Absolutism at Its Peak Absolutism reached its peak in the mid-1700s. Four of the five great European powers were ruled by absolute monarchs. Britain, with its strong Parliament, was the only exception.

At the same time, new ideas were circulating about natural rights and the role of government. In time, demands for change and reform would topple French absolutism, revolutionize European societies, and transform the balance of power in Europe.

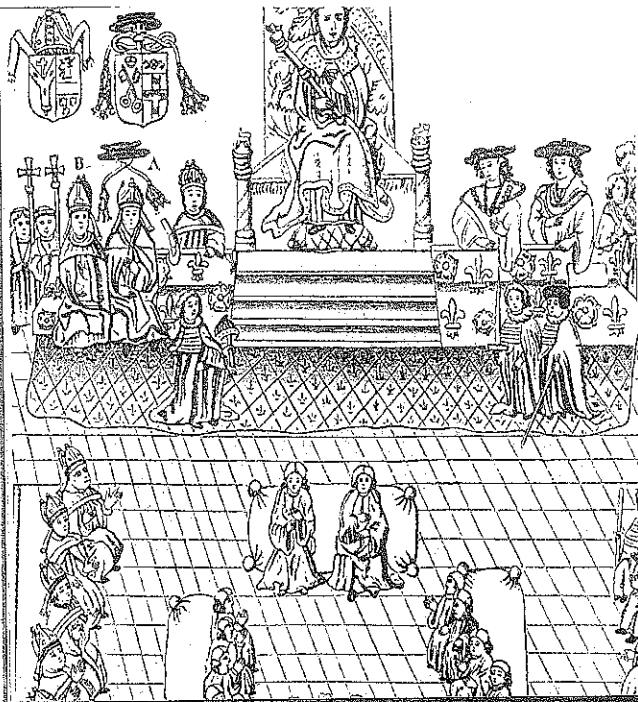
DESCRIBE How did European nations maintain a balance of power?



>> The Seven Years' War in Europe pitted Europe, Prussia, and Britain against Austria, France, Russia, and Sweden. This painting shows a December 1757 battle in which the Prussians defeated the Austrians.

ASSESSMENT

1. **Identify Cause and Effect** What were the causes and results of the Thirty Years' War?
2. **Identify** How were the goals of Austria and Prussia similar?
3. **Describe** How did European nations try to maintain a balance of power?
4. **List** What steps did Peter the Great take to modernize Russia?
5. **Describe** How did Russia grow under Peter the Great and Catherine the Great?



>> Henry VIII consulted with Parliament frequently. Here, he presides as chairman over the House of Lords.

 Interactive Flipped Video

TEKS
19.B, 20.A, 20.B

>> **Objectives**

Describe the relationship between Parliament and the monarchy under the Tudors and Stuarts.

Explain how English government developed after the English Civil War.

Identify the causes of the Glorious Revolution and the ideas contained in the English Bill of Rights.

Identify the characteristics of limited monarchy and constitutional government in England.

>> **Key Terms**

- James I
- dissenter
- Puritan
- Charles I
- Oliver Cromwell
- English Bill of Rights
- limited monarchy
- constitutional government
- cabinet
- prime minister
- oligarchy

12.3

During the age of absolutism, English monarchs, like rulers on the continent, tried to increase royal power and claim the divine right to rule. Their efforts, however, ran into the obstacle of Parliament, which during the Middle Ages had acquired the power of the purse. Only Parliament could grant monarchs the funds they needed to pursue their ambitions. And Parliament at times stood firm against royal absolutism.

Triumph of Parliament in England

Tudor Monarchs Work with Parliament

Henry VIII From 1485 to 1603, England was ruled by Tudor monarchs. Although the Tudors believed in divine right, they shrewdly recognized the value of good relations with Parliament. When Henry VIII broke with the Roman Catholic Church, he turned to Parliament to legalize his actions. Parliament approved the Act of Supremacy, making the monarch head of the Church of England.

A constant need for money led Henry to consult Parliament frequently. Although he had inherited a bulging treasury, he quickly used up his funds fighting overseas wars. To levy new taxes, the king had to seek the approval of Parliament. Members of Parliament tended to vote as Henry's agents instructed. Still, they became accustomed to being consulted on important matters.

Elizabeth I When Henry's daughter Elizabeth I gained the throne, she too both consulted and controlled Parliament. In theory, the monarch called Parliament for advice. In practice, Elizabeth rarely asked for its view. During her 45-year reign, she summoned Parliament only 13 times. All but one time, she asked for money.

When Parliament met, the queen's advisers conveyed her wishes. Certain subjects, such as foreign policy or the queen's marriage, were forbidden. Her skill in handling Parliament helped make "Good Queen Bess" a popular and successful ruler.

CHECK UNDERSTANDING Why did Henry VIII work with Parliament?

Stuart Monarchs Clash with Parliament

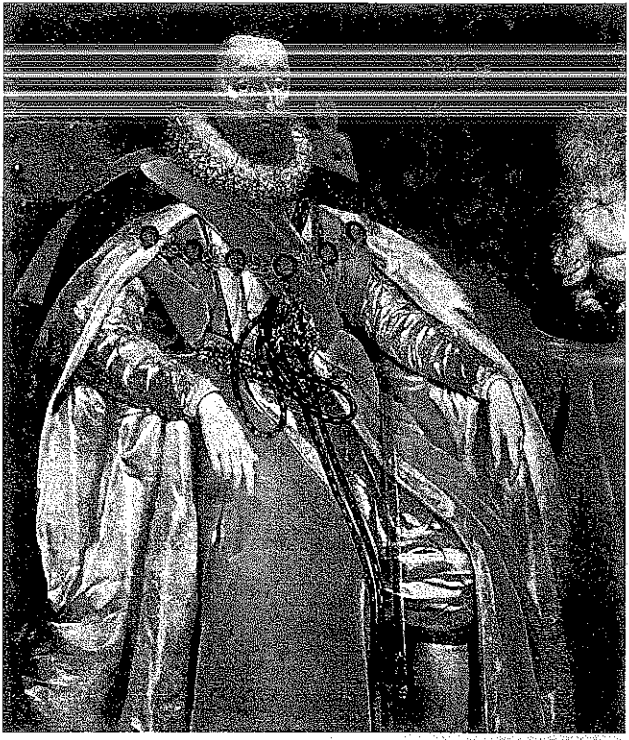
Elizabeth died childless in 1603. The throne passed to her relatives the Stuarts, the ruling family of Scotland. The Stuarts were neither as popular as the Tudors nor as skillful in dealing with Parliament. They also inherited problems that Henry and Elizabeth had long suppressed. The result was a "century of revolution" that pitted the Stuart monarchs against Parliament.

James I Asserts Divine Right When the first Stuart monarch, **James I**, took the throne, he agreed to rule according to English laws and customs. Soon, however, he was lecturing Parliament about divine right. In 1610, the king made a speech in Parliament.

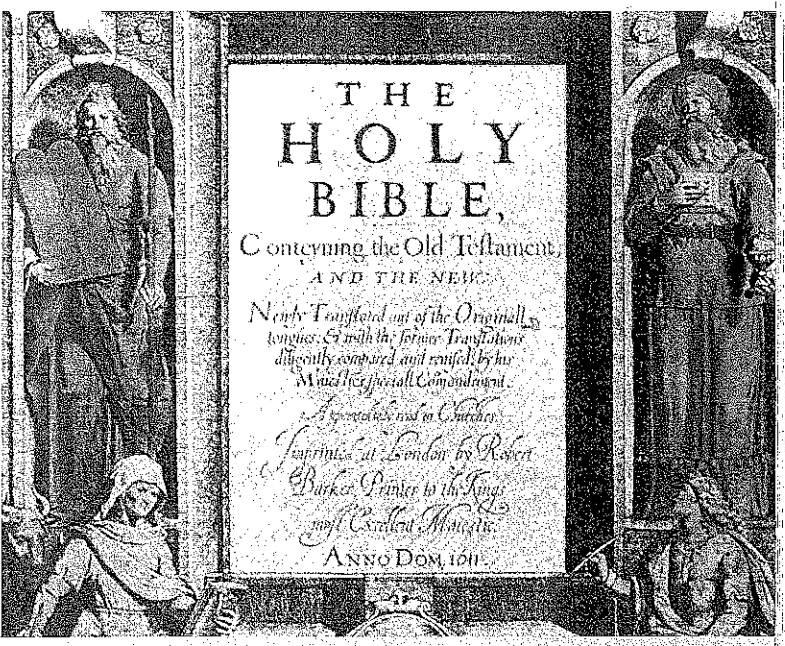
The state of Monarchy is the supremest thing upon earth; for kings are not only God's lieutenants upon earth and sit upon God's throne, but even by God himself they are called gods. . . . Kings are justly called gods for that they exercise a manner or resemblance of Divine power on earth. . . . And to the King is due both the affection of the soul and the service of the body of his subjects....

—King James I

Parliament was not impressed with the king's claim to rule by divine right. Instead, James faced repeated clashes with Parliament, mostly over money and foreign policy that involved the king's wars in Europe. James



>> James I, the first Stuart king of England, ruled England from 1603 to 1625.



>> King James gave Greek and Hebrew scholars specific instructions for translating the Christian Bible into English. The King James Bible is considered a literary masterpiece.

lived extravagantly and had to ask Parliament for funds to finance his lavish court.

More than once, when members wanted to discuss foreign policy before voting funds, James dissolved Parliament and raised money without their consent. These actions poisoned relations between the king and Parliament.

James also found himself embroiled in religious disputes. He clashed with **dissenters**, Protestants who differed with the Church of England. One group were called **Puritans** because they sought to "purify" the English church of Catholic practices. Puritans called for simpler services and a more democratic church without bishops. James rejected their demands, vowing to "harry them out of this land or else do worse."

Charles I Clashes with Parliament In 1625, **Charles I** inherited the throne. Like his father, Charles behaved like an absolute monarch. He imprisoned his foes without trial and squeezed the nation for money. By 1628, however, his need to raise taxes forced Charles to summon Parliament. Before voting any funds, Parliament insisted that Charles sign the Petition of Right.

This document prohibited the king from raising taxes without Parliament's consent or from jailing anyone without legal justification.

Charles did sign the Petition, but he then dissolved Parliament in 1629. For 11 years, he ignored the Petition and ruled without Parliament. During that time, he created bitter enemies, especially among Puritans. His Archbishop of Canterbury, William Laud, tried to force all clergy to follow strict Anglican rules, dismissing or imprisoning dissenters. Many people felt that the archbishop was trying to revive Catholic practices.

In 1637, Charles and Laud tried to impose the Anglican prayer book on Scotland. The Calvinist Scots revolted. To get funds to suppress the Scottish rebellion, Charles once again had to summon Parliament in 1640. When it met, however, Parliament launched its own revolt.

The Long Parliament Begins The 1640 Parliament became known as the Long Parliament because it lasted on and off until 1653.

Its actions triggered the greatest political revolution in English history. In a mounting struggle with Charles I, Parliament tried and executed his chief ministers, including Archbishop Laud. It called for the abolition of bishops and declared that the Parliament could not be dissolved without its own consent.

Charles lashed back. In 1642, he led troops into the House of Commons to arrest its most radical leaders. They escaped through a back door and soon raised their own army. The clash now moved to the battlefield.

DESCRIBE What was the Petition of Right?

The English Civil War

The civil war that followed lasted from 1642 to 1651. Like the Fronde that occurred about the same time in France, the English Civil War posed a major challenge to absolutism. But while the forces of royal power won in France, in England the forces of revolution triumphed.

Cavaliers and Roundheads At first, the odds seemed to favor the supporters of Charles I, called Cavaliers. Many Cavaliers were wealthy nobles, proud of their plumed hats and fashionably long hair. Well trained in dueling and warfare, the Cavaliers expected a quick victory. But their foes proved to be tough fighters with the courage of their convictions.

The forces of Parliament were composed of country gentry, town-dwelling manufacturers, and Puritan clergy. They were called Roundheads because their hair was cut close around their heads. The Roundheads found a leader of genius in **Oliver Cromwell**. A Puritan member of the lesser gentry, Cromwell proved himself to be a skilled general.



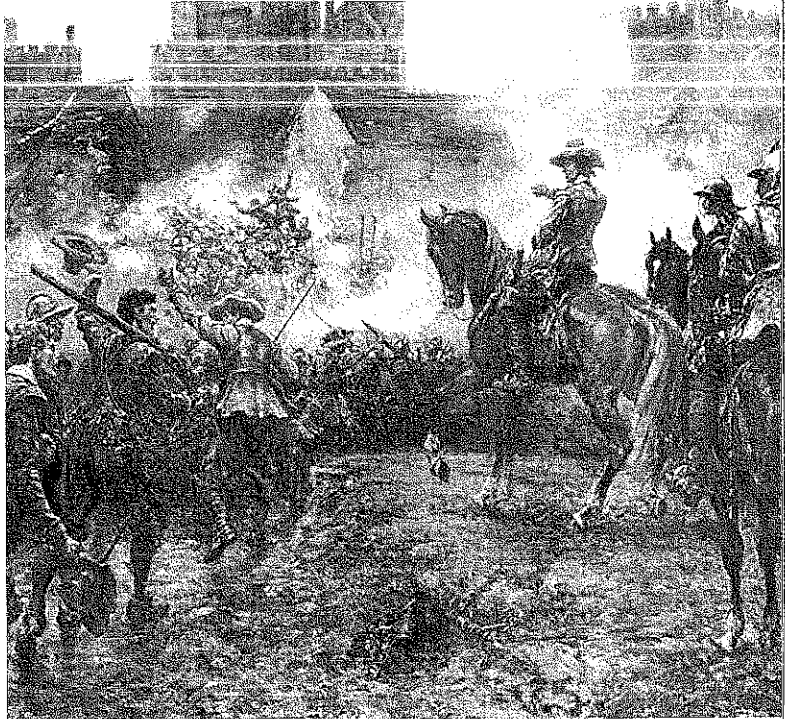
>> Charles I and his troops stormed into the House of Commons to arrest radicals.

Interactive Timeline

He organized the "New Model Army" for Parliament into a disciplined fighting force. Cromwell's army defeated the Cavaliers in a series of decisive battles. By 1647, the king was in the hands of parliamentary forces.

Execution of the King Eventually, Parliament set up a court to put the king on trial. It condemned him to death as "a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy." On a cold January day in 1649, Charles I stood on a scaffold surrounded by his foes. "I am a martyr of the people," he declared. Showing no fear, the king told the executioner that he himself would give the signal for him to strike. After a brief prayer, Charles knelt and placed his neck on the block. On the agreed signal, the executioner severed the king's neck with a single stroke.

The execution sent shock waves throughout Europe. In the past, a king had occasionally been assassinated or killed in battle. But for the first time, a ruling monarch had been tried and executed by his own people. The parliamentary forces had sent a clear message that, in England, no ruler could claim absolute power and ignore the rule of law.



>> Oliver Cromwell led parliamentary forces in the English Civil War.

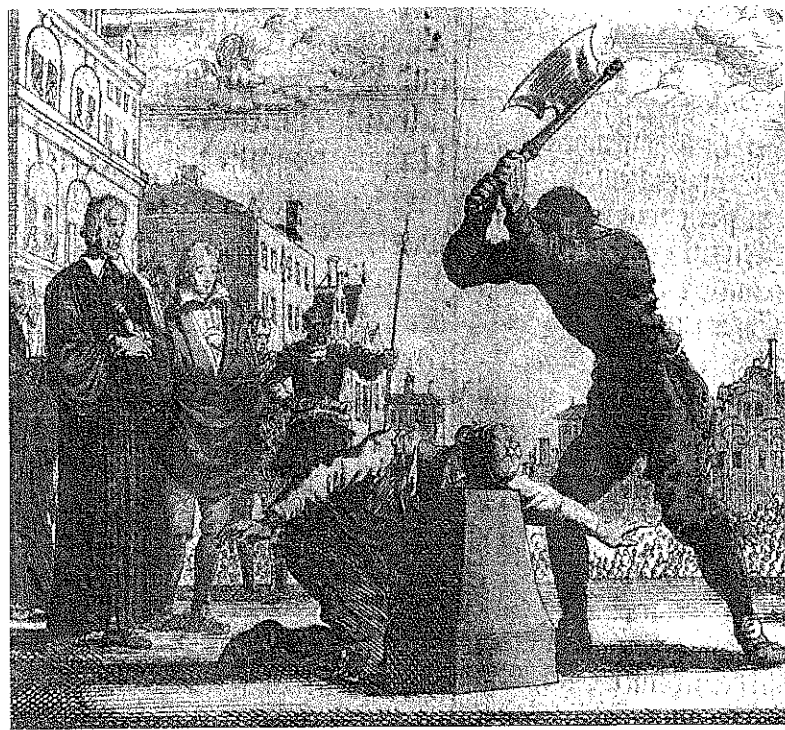
IDENTIFY CAUSE AND EFFECT What was the result of the English Civil War?

Cromwell and the Commonwealth

After the execution of Charles I, the House of Commons abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords, and established the Church of England. It declared England a republic, known as the Commonwealth, under the leadership of Oliver Cromwell.

Challenges to the Commonwealth The new government faced many threats. Supporters of Charles I, the uncrowned heir to the throne, attacked England by way of Ireland and Scotland. Cromwell led forces into Ireland and brutally crushed the uprising. He then took harsh measures against the Irish Catholic majority that are still vividly remembered in that nation today. In 1652, Parliament passed a law exiling most Catholics to barren land in the west of Ireland. Any Catholic found disobeying this order could be killed on sight.

Squabbles also splintered forces within the Commonwealth. One group, called Levellers, thought that poor men should have as much say in government as the gentry, lawyers, and other leading citizens. "The poorest he that is in England hath a life to live as the greatest he," wrote one Leveller. In addition, woman



>> Charles I was beheaded in January 1649. It was the first time a ruling monarch had been tried and executed by his own people.

Levellers asserted their right to petition Parliament. These ideas horrified the gentry, who dominated Parliament.

Cromwell suppressed the Levellers, as well as more radical groups who threatened ownership of private property. In 1653, as the challenges to order grew, Cromwell took the title Lord Protector. From then on, he ruled as a virtual dictator, using the army to back up his orders.

England Under the Puritans Under the Commonwealth, Puritan preachers tried to root out godlessness and impose a "rule of saints." The English Civil War thus ushered in a social revolution as well as a political one.

Parliament enacted a series of laws designed to make sure that Sunday was set aside for religious observance.

Anyone over the age of 14 who was caught "profaning the Lord's Day" could be fined. To the Puritans, theaters were frivolous. So, like John Calvin in Geneva, Cromwell closed all theaters. Puritans also frowned on taverns, gambling, and dancing.

Puritans felt that every Christian, rich and poor, must be able to read the Bible. To spread religious knowledge, they encouraged education for all people. By mid-century, families from all classes were sending their children to school, girls as well as boys.

Puritans pushed for changes in marriage to ensure fidelity. In addition to marriages based on business interests, they encouraged marriages based on love. Still, as in the past, women were seen mainly as subordinate to men.

Although Cromwell did not tolerate open worship by Roman Catholics, he believed in religious freedom for other Protestant groups. He even welcomed Jews back to England after more than 350 years of exile.


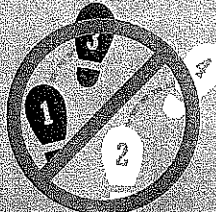

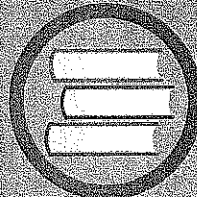

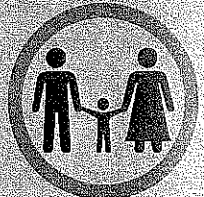
Puritan Rule Ends Oliver Cromwell died in 1658. Soon after, the Puritans lost their grip on England. Many people were tired of military rule and strict Puritan ways. In 1660, a newly elected Parliament invited Charles II to return to England from exile.

England's "kingless decade" ended with the Restoration, or return of the monarchy. Yet Puritan ideas about morality, equality, government, and education endured. These ideas were already shaping England's colonies in North America, where many Puritans had settled.

DESCRIBE What was the Commonwealth?

THE PURITAN INFLUENCE

After the execution of Charles I, Puritans and reformers controlled Parliament. They believed that it was time to encourage seriousness of purpose. Puritans did dance and sing, but they did so only in private gatherings. Their objection was not so much to the music and dancing as to the "public disorder" to which those frivolities contributed.

 NO PUBLIC MUSIC	 NO PUBLIC DANCING	 PUBLIC THEATERS CLOSED
 EDUCATION FOR ALL	 MODEST CLOTHING	 STRONG FAMILIES

>> Analyze Information The Puritans sought societal and moral reforms. How did Puritans feel about education?

From Restoration to Glorious Revolution

In late May 1660, cheering crowds welcomed Charles II back to London. An observer described the celebration as a triumph.

This day came in his Majesties Charles the Second to London after a sad, and long Exile . . . with a Triumph of above 20,000 horse and [soldiers], brandishing their swords, and shouting with inexpressible joy; the [ways strewn] with flowers, the bells ringing, the streets hung with [tapestry].

—John Evelyn, Diary

A Popular King With his charm and flashing wit, young Charles II was a popular ruler. He reopened theaters and taverns and presided over a lively court in the manner of Louis XIV.

Charles restored the official Church of England but encouraged toleration of other Protestants such as Presbyterians, Quakers, and Baptists. Although Charles accepted the Petition of Right, he shared his father's belief in absolute monarchy and secretly had Catholic sympathies. Still, he shrewdly avoided his father's mistakes in dealing with Parliament.

Charles was a strong supporter of science and the arts. He helped found the Royal Society, a group formed to advance scientific knowledge. Its early members, such as Isaac Newton, Robert Hooke, and Robert Boyle, advanced the study of mathematics, biology, physics, and chemistry. Charles was equally supportive of the arts, especially architecture. After the Great Fire of 1666 destroyed much of London, Charles appointed the great architect, Sir Christopher Wren, to rebuild the city.

The Glorious Revolution Charles's brother, James II, inherited the throne in 1685. Unlike Charles, James practiced his Catholic faith openly. He angered his subjects by suspending laws on a whim and appointing Catholics to high office. Many English Protestants feared that James would restore the Roman Catholic Church.

In 1688, alarmed parliamentary leaders invited James's Protestant daughter, Mary, and her Dutch Protestant husband, William III of Orange, to become rulers of England. When William and Mary landed with their army, James II fled to France. This bloodless



>> Crowds welcomed Charles II back after the monarchy was restored.

overthrow of the king became known as the Glorious Revolution.

The English Bill of Rights Before they could be crowned, William and Mary had to accept several acts passed by Parliament in 1689 that became known as the **English Bill of Rights**. The Bill of Rights ensured the superiority of Parliament over the monarchy. It required the monarch to summon Parliament regularly and ensured that the House of Commons kept control over spending. A king or queen could no longer interfere in parliamentary debates or suspend laws. The Bill of Rights also barred any Roman Catholic from sitting on the throne.

The Bill of Rights also restated the traditional legal rights of English citizens, such as trial by jury. It abolished excessive fines and cruel or unjust punishment. It affirmed the principle of habeas corpus. That is, no person could be held in prison without first being charged with a specific crime. The legal ideas contained in the English Bill of Rights would later have a strong influence on the United States.

Soon after, the separate Toleration Act of 1689 granted limited religious freedom to Puritans, Quakers, and other Protestant dissenters. Still, only members of the Church of England could hold public office. And Catholics were allowed no religious freedom.

A Limited Monarchy The Glorious Revolution turned England into a **limited monarchy**, a type of

government in which a constitution or legislative body limits the monarch's powers. English rulers still had much power, but they had to obey the law and govern in partnership with Parliament. In an age of absolute monarchy elsewhere in Europe, the limited monarchy in England was quite radical.

Among the people who lived at the time of the Glorious Revolution was the political thinker, John Locke. Events in England helped shape his philosophy. Much later, Locke's ideas about government and natural rights would influence the Americans who drew up the Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution.

2 DEFINE What was the Glorious Revolution?

England's Constitutional Government Evolves

In the century following the Glorious Revolution, three new political institutions arose in Britain: political parties, the cabinet, and the office of prime minister. The appearance of these institutions was part of the evolution of Britain's **constitutional government**—that is, a government whose power is defined and limited by law.

Political Parties In the late 1600s, political parties emerged in England as a powerful force in politics. At first, there were just two political parties—Tories and Whigs.

Tories were generally aristocrats who sought to preserve older traditions. They supported broad royal powers and a dominant Anglican Church.

Whigs backed the ideas embodied in the Glorious Revolution. They were more likely to reflect urban business interests, support religious toleration, and favor Parliament over the crown. For much of the 1700s Whigs dominated Parliament.

The Cabinet System The cabinet, another new feature of government, evolved in the 1700s after the British throne passed to a German prince. George I spoke no English and relied on the leaders in Parliament to help him rule. Under George I and his German-born son George II, a handful of parliamentary advisors set policy. They came to be referred to as the **cabinet** because of the small room, or "cabinet," where they met.

In time, the cabinet gained official status. It was made up of leaders of the majority party in the House of Commons. The cabinet remained in power so long as it enjoyed the support of the Commons.

If the Commons voted against a cabinet decision, the cabinet resigned. The cabinet system (also called

Influence of the Glorious Revolution

	English Bill of Rights	Writings of John Locke	Constitutional Government
OUTCOME IN ENGLAND	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People elect representatives to Parliament, which is supreme over the monarch. • All citizens have natural rights. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • People have natural rights such as life, liberty, and property. • There is a social contract between people and government. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government is limited and defined by law. • Political parties, the cabinet, and the office of prime minister arise.
IMPACT ON THE UNITED STATES	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Colonists believed that they too had rights, including the right to elect people to represent them. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Locke's ideas shaped the American Revolution and the writing of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government is limited and defined by law. • The new nation formed a constitutional government with two parties and even stronger provisions for the separation of powers.

>> **Analyze Charts** A common protest during the American Revolution was "no taxation without representation." Which outcome in England influenced that idea?

 **Interactive Gallery**

a parliamentary system) was later adopted by other countries in Europe and elsewhere around the globe.

The Prime Minister Over time, the head of the cabinet came to be known as the **prime minister**. This person was always the leader of the majority party in the House of Commons.

Eventually, the prime minister became the chief official of the British government and the prime minister's power would exceed that of the monarch. From 1721 to 1742, the able Whig leader Robert Walpole molded the cabinet into a unified body by requiring all members to agree on major issues. Although the title was not yet in use, Walpole is often called Britain's first prime minister.

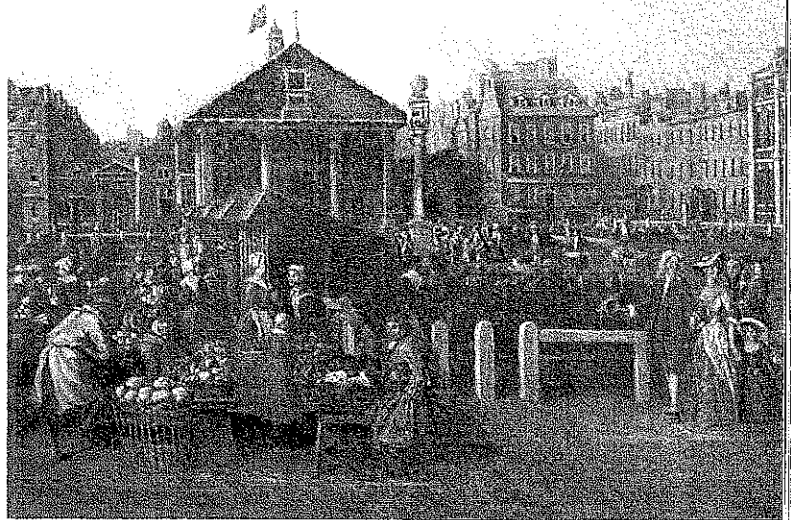
Rule by an Oligarchy Even as Parliament and the cabinet assumed new powers, British government was far from democratic. Rather, it was an **oligarchy**—a government in which the ruling power belongs to a few people.

Landowning aristocrats were believed to be the "natural" ruling class. The highest nobles held seats in the House of Lords. Other wealthy landowners and rich business leaders in the cities controlled elections to the House of Commons. The right to vote was limited to a relatively few male property owners, whose votes were often openly bought.

The lives of most people contrasted sharply with those of the ruling elite. The majority made a meager living from the land.

In the 1700s, even that poor existence was threatened. Wealthy landowners, attempting to increase agricultural production, bought up farms and took over common lands, evicting tenant farmers and small landowners. Because they controlled Parliament, they easily passed laws ensuring that their actions were legal. A small but growing middle class included successful merchants and manufacturers. These prosperous and often wealthy people controlled affairs in the towns and cities. Some improved their social standing by marrying into the landed gentry. The middle class also produced talented inventors and entrepreneurs who would soon help usher in the Industrial Revolution.

2 CHECK UNDERSTANDING What were the new political institutions that developed as a result of Britain's constitutional government?



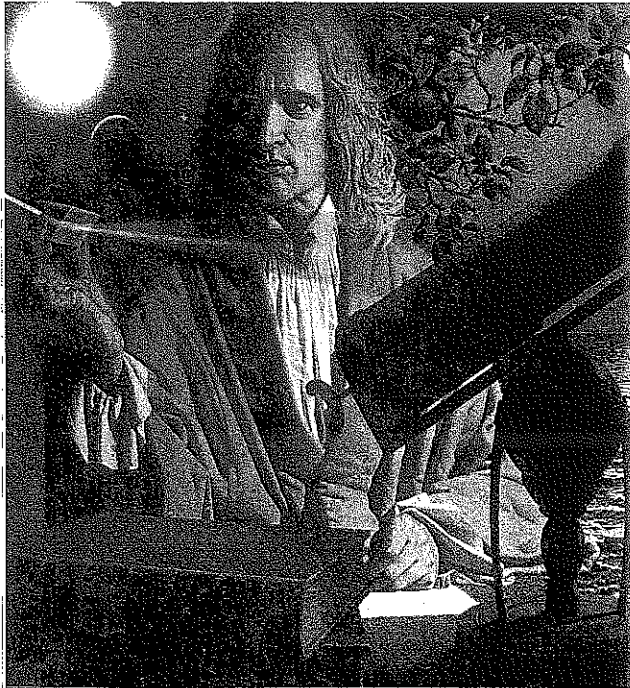
>> The marketplace brought different classes of people together, but the classes differed widely in terms of political power. Interpret In this painting, how can you tell the different classes apart?

LEAPS ELPS 4.C.2 Think of all the signs, billboards, labels, and business logos you see every day. Show your understanding of these types of printed materials by completing the activities given to you by your teacher.

ASSESSMENT

1. **Check Understanding** Why was James I resistant to working with Parliament?
2. **Define** What was the Long Parliament?
3. **Recall** Who was Oliver Cromwell?
4. **Describe** What did the English Bill of Rights mean to Parliament?
5. **Identify Central Ideas** What is the main feature of a constitutional government?

11
151



>> Sir Isaac Newton was a key figure in the Scientific Revolution. Among his many discoveries was gravity.

Interactive Flipped Video

TEKS
★ 1.E, 18.A, 20.A, 20.C, 21.C, 23.B, 25.C, 26.B, 26.C

>> **Objectives**

- Describe** how science led to the Enlightenment.
- Explain** the political philosophies of Hobbes, Locke, Voltaire, Montesquieu, and Rousseau.
- Summarize** the economic ideas of the physiocrats and Adam Smith.
- Describe** how Enlightenment ideas spread and influenced the arts.
- Understand** the role of enlightened despots.

>> **Key Terms**

- natural law
- Thomas Hobbes
- John Locke
- social contract
- natural rights
- philosophe
- Montesquieu
- Voltaire
- Jean-Jacques Rousseau
- laissez faire
- Adam Smith
- free market
- free enterprise system
- censorship
- salon
- baroque
- rococo
- enlightened despot
- Joseph II

12.4

During the Scientific Revolution of the 1500s and 1600s, European scholars made advances in physics, chemistry, biology, and medicine. Like ancient scholars, the thinkers of the Scientific Revolution relied on reason, but they also developed a new “scientific method” to test their theories and observations. Using mathematics and the scientific method, they discovered a series of laws that governed the physical universe.

The Enlightenment

Scientific Revolution Leads to the Enlightenment

The Scientific Revolution, in turn, helped spark the Enlightenment in which thinkers emphasized the use of reason to uncover “natural” laws that governed human life. During the Enlightenment of the 1600s and 1700s, thinkers developed new ideas about government and basic human rights.

While scientists and mathematicians developed laws about natural phenomena like the law of gravity, European thinkers searched for similar laws that governed human life. Like scientists, they emphasized the power of reason, rather than religious beliefs. During the 1600s and 1700s, these thinkers developed new ideas about **natural laws**—unchanging principles, discovered through reason, that govern all human conduct.

Using the methods of the Scientific Revolution, European thinkers and reformers set out to study human behavior and solve the problems of society. The German philosopher Immanuel Kant used the word *enlightenment* to describe this new approach. During the Enlightenment, also called the Age of Reason, philosophers emphasized the power of human reason to uncover general laws of nature that shape all of human experience.

The Enlightenment continued a trend that began during the Renaissance. During the Middle Ages, Europe had been dominated by the Church. Feudal monarchs, like later absolute rulers, looked to the Church to justify their royal authority. The Renaissance placed a new emphasis on secularism and individual achievement.

The Scientific Revolution and Enlightenment also stressed science and natural law rather than religious authority. Enlightenment thinkers turned away from absolutism and divine right toward democracy and individual rights. Their ideas would encourage revolutionary leaders in Europe and the Americas. Though Christianity would remain a strong force in western culture, most governments became increasingly secular. The French Revolution in particular would see a radical decline in Church influence on government.

EXPLAIN How was the Scientific Revolution directly related to the development of the concept of natural law?

Hobbes and Locke on the Role of Government

During the 1600s, two English thinkers, **Thomas Hobbes** and **John Locke**, set forth ideas that were to become key to the Enlightenment. Both men lived through the upheavals of the English Civil War. Yet they reached different conclusions about human nature and the purpose and proper role of government.

Hobbes Argues for Powerful Government In 1651, Thomas Hobbes outlined his ideas in a work titled *Leviathan*. In it, he argued that people were naturally cruel, greedy, and selfish. If not strictly controlled, they would fight, rob, and oppress one another. Life in the state of nature—without laws or other control—would be “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short.”

To escape that “brutish” life, said Hobbes, people entered into a **social contract**, an agreement by which they gave up their freedom for an organized society. Hobbes believed that only a powerful government could ensure an orderly society. For him, such a government was an absolute monarchy, which could impose order and compel obedience. Not surprisingly, Hobbes had supported the Stuart kings in their struggle against Parliament.

Locke Focuses on Natural Rights John Locke had a more optimistic view of human nature. He thought people were basically reasonable and moral.

Further, they had certain **natural rights**, or rights that belonged to all humans from birth. These included the right to life, liberty, and property.

In *Two Treatises of Government*, Locke argued that people formed governments to protect their natural rights. The best kind of government, he said, had limited power and was accepted by all citizens. Thus, unlike Hobbes, Locke rejected absolute monarchy.

Locke proposed a radical idea about this time. A government, he said, has an obligation to the people it governs. If a government fails its obligations or violates people's natural rights, the people have the right to overthrow that government. Given these ideas, Locke supported the overthrow of James II in the Glorious Revolution of 1688. In Locke's view, the king deserved to lose his throne because he had violated the rights of the English people.

Locke's idea would one day influence leaders of the American Revolution, such as Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, and James Madison. Locke's idea of the right of revolution would also echo across Europe and Latin America in the centuries that followed.

CONTRAST How did Hobbes and Locke differ in their views on the role of government?



>> This illustration from Thomas Hobbes's book *Leviathan* reflects his belief in a powerful ruler. The monarch rises above all society, just as the mythological Leviathan, or sea monster, rises above all the seas.

 **Interactive Chart**

ELPS 4.C.3 Many terms are used frequently in certain academic subjects. In history, some of those words include government, laws, revolution, society, and political. Read *Hobbes and Locke on the Role of Government* and complete the activity to gain a better understanding of the context of these terms at the beginning of the Enlightenment.

The Philosophes

In the 1700s, France saw a flowering of Enlightenment thought. French **philosophes** (fee loh ZOHFS), or philosophers, felt that nothing was beyond the reach of human reason. As they examined ideas about government, law and society, they called for reforms to protect people's natural rights. Their ideas, like those of Locke, would shift political thought and strongly influence the development of democratic-republican government.

Montesquieu Calls for Separation of Powers

An early and influential *philosophe* was Baron de **Montesquieu** (MAHN tus kyoo). Montesquieu studied the governments of Europe, from Italy to England. He read about ancient and medieval Europe, and learned about Chinese and Native American cultures. He sharply criticized absolute monarchy.

In 1748, Montesquieu published *The Spirit of the Laws*, in which he discussed governments throughout

history. Montesquieu felt that the best way to protect liberty was to divide the various functions and powers of government among three branches: the legislative, executive, and judicial.

He also felt that each branch of government should be able to serve as a check on the other two, an idea that we call checks and balances. Montesquieu's beliefs would influence the Framers of the United States Constitution.

Voltaire Supports Freedom of Thought

Probably the most famous of the *philosophes* was François-Marie Arouet, who took the name **Voltaire**. "My trade," said Voltaire, "is to say what I think." He used biting wit as a weapon to expose the abuses of his day. He targeted corrupt officials and idle aristocrats. With his pen, he battled inequality, injustice, and superstition. He detested the slave trade and deplored religious prejudice.

Voltaire's outspoken attacks offended both the French government and the Catholic Church. He was imprisoned and forced into exile. Even as he saw his books outlawed and sometimes even burned, he continued to defend the principle of freedom of speech.

Diderot Edits the *Encyclopedia*

Denis Diderot (DEE duh roh) worked for years to produce a 28-volume set of books called the *Encyclopedia*. As the editor, Diderot

Montesquieu: Separation of Powers

	FUNCTION	EXAMPLES IN U.S. GOVERNMENT	EXAMPLES IN BRITISH GOVERNMENT
LEGISLATIVE	Creates law	Congress	Parliament
EXECUTIVE	Enforces law	President	Prime minister
JUDICIAL	Applies law	Supreme Court	U.K. Supreme Court

>> Analyze Charts Montesquieu believed in the separation of the powers of government into branches. Who currently heads the executive branch of government in the United States?

did more than just compile articles. His purpose was "to change the general way of thinking" by explaining ideas on topics such as government, philosophy, and religion.

Diderot's *Encyclopedia* included articles by leading thinkers of the day, including Montesquieu and Voltaire. In these articles, the *philosophes* denounced slavery, praised freedom of expression, and urged education for all. They attacked divine-right theory and traditional religions.

The French government viewed the *Encyclopedia* as an attack on public morals, and the pope threatened to excommunicate Roman Catholics who bought or read the volumes. Despite these and other efforts to ban the *Encyclopedia*, more than 4,000 copies were printed between 1751 and 1789.

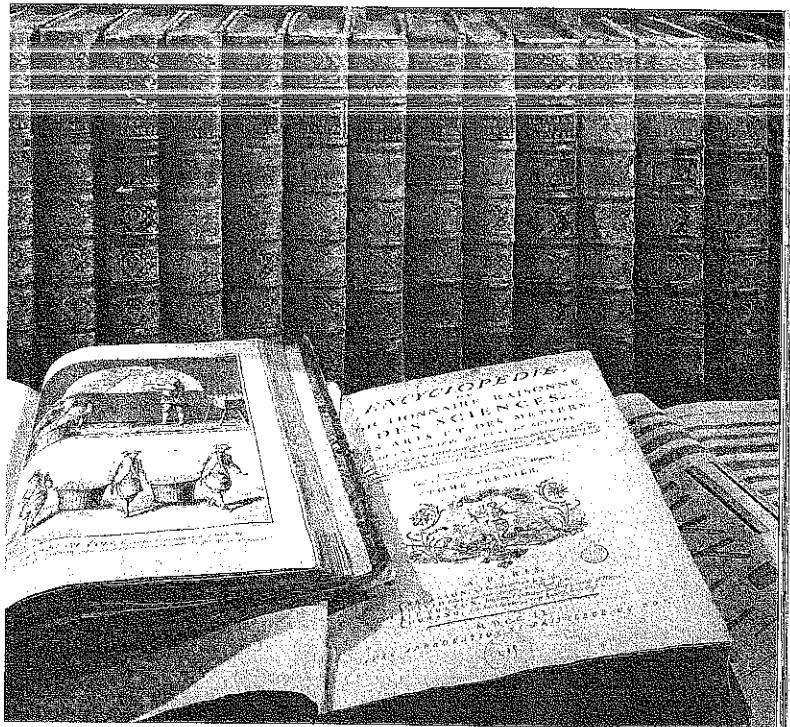
Rousseau Promotes the Social Contract The most controversial *philosophe* was **Jean-Jacques Rousseau** (roo SOH). Rousseau believed that people in their natural state were basically good. This natural innocence, he felt, was corrupted by the evils of society, especially the unequal distribution of property.

In 1762, Rousseau set forth his ideas about government and society in *The Social Contract*. Rousseau felt that society placed too many limitations on people's behavior. He believed that some controls were necessary, but that they should be minimal. Additionally, only governments that had been freely elected should impose these controls. Rousseau put his faith in the "general will," or the best conscience of the people. The good of the community as a whole, he said, should be placed above individual interests. Woven through Rousseau's work is a hatred of all forms of political and economic oppression.

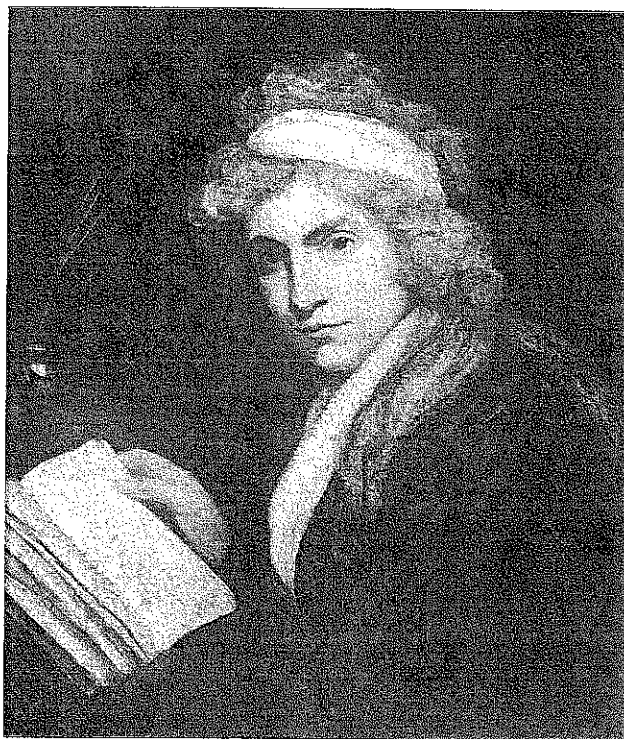
Women and the Enlightenment The Enlightenment slogan "free and equal" did not apply to women. Though the *philosophes* said women had natural rights, their rights were limited to the areas of home and family.

By the late 1700s, a small but growing number of women protested this view. Germaine de Staël in France and Mary Wollstonecraft in Britain argued that women were being excluded from the social contract itself. Their arguments, however, were ridiculed and often sharply condemned.

Wollstonecraft was a British writer and thinker. She accepted that a woman's first duty was to be a good mother but felt that a woman should be able to decide what was in her own interest without depending on her husband. In her book *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman*, Wollstonecraft called for equal education for girls and boys. Only education, she argued, could give women the tools they needed to participate equally



>> Diderot's *Encyclopedia* was a collection of articles written by famous Enlightenment thinkers. It represented the rational approach of Enlightenment thinkers.



>> Writer Mary Wollstonecraft was a passionate advocate for social and educational equality for women.

with men in public life. Her ideas would influence the women's rights movement that emerged in the next century.

2 IDENTIFY SUPPORTING DETAILS What political philosophies did Jean-Jacques Rousseau set forth in *The Social Contract*?

New Economic Ideas

French thinkers known as physiocrats focused on economic reforms. Like the *philosophes*, physiocrats based their thinking on natural laws. The physiocrats claimed that their rational economic system was based on the natural laws of economics.

Laissez-Faire Economics Physiocrats rejected mercantilism, which required government regulation of the economy to achieve a favorable balance of trade. Instead, they urged a policy of **laissez faire** (les ay FEHR), allowing business to operate with little or no government interference. Physiocrats supported free trade and opposed tariffs.

Adam Smith and *The Wealth of Nations* Scottish economist **Adam Smith** greatly admired the physiocrats. In his influential work *The Wealth of*

Nations, he argued that the **free market**, the natural forces of supply and demand, should be allowed to operate and regulate business. Smith favored a **free enterprise system** in which commerce and business compete for profit with little or no government interference.

Smith tried to show how manufacturing, trade, wages, profits, and economic growth were all linked to the market forces of supply and demand. Wherever there was a demand for goods or services, he said, suppliers would seek to meet that demand in order to gain profits.

Smith was a strong supporter of *laissez faire*. However, he felt that government had a duty to protect society, administer justice, and provide public works. Adam Smith's ideas about free enterprise would help to shape productive economies in the 1800s and 1900s.

2 COMPARE AND CONTRAST How is *laissez-faire* policy different from mercantilism?

Spread of Enlightenment Ideas

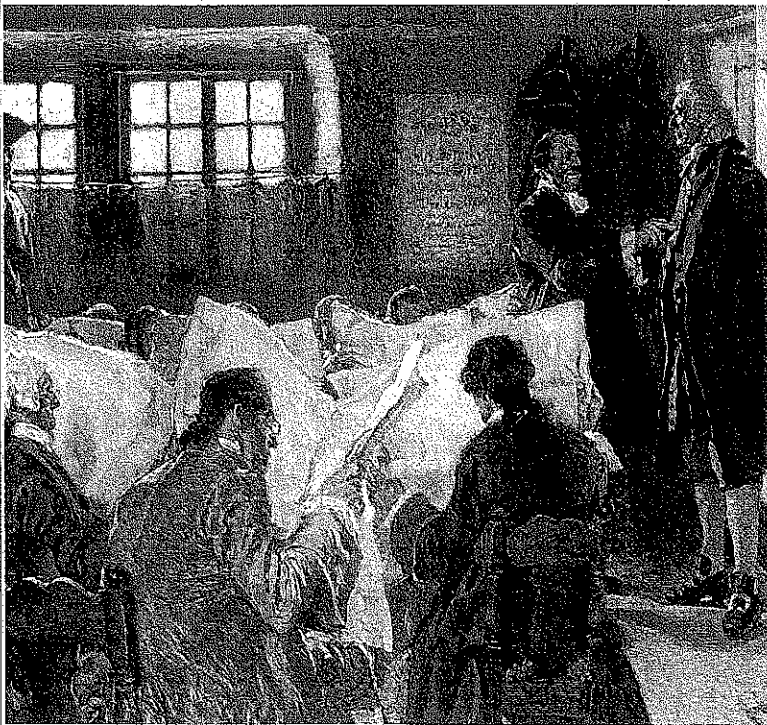
From France, Enlightenment ideas flowed across Europe and beyond. Everywhere, thinkers examined traditional beliefs and customs in the light of reason and found them flawed. Literate people eagerly read Diderot's *Encyclopedia* as well as small pamphlets turned out by printers that discussed a broad range of issues. More and more people came to believe that reform was necessary in order to achieve a just society.

During the Middle Ages, most Europeans had accepted without question a society based on divine-right rule, a strict class system, and a belief in heavenly reward for earthly suffering. In the Age of Reason, such ideas seemed unscientific and irrational. A just society, Enlightenment thinkers taught, should ensure social justice and happiness in this world. While many people embraced these new ideas, other groups rejected calls for change.

Writers Confront Censorship Most, but not all, government and church authorities felt they had a sacred duty to defend the old order. They believed that God had set up the old order.

To protect against the attacks of the Enlightenment, they waged a war of **censorship**, or restricting access to ideas and information. They banned and burned books and imprisoned writers.

To avoid censorship, writers like Montesquieu and Voltaire sometimes disguised their ideas in works of fiction. In the *Persian Letters*, Montesquieu used two



>> Enlightenment ideas spread through the printing of pamphlets and newspapers available to citizens.

fictional Persian travelers, named Usbek and Rica, to mock French society. The hero of Voltaire's satirical novel *Candide*, published in 1759, travels across Europe and even to the Americas and the Middle East in search of "the best of all possible worlds." Voltaire slyly uses the tale to expose the corruption and hypocrisy of European society.

In England, Jonathan Swift published *Gulliver's Travels* in 1726. The story uses fantasy to satirize, or make fun of, English political life.

In a famous scene, Gulliver is bound by the Lilliputians, tiny six-inch-tall characters, and is unable to move. The harder Gulliver tries to break free, the more the Lilliputians attack him. Swift uses the story to comment on the pettiness of nations and their rulers.

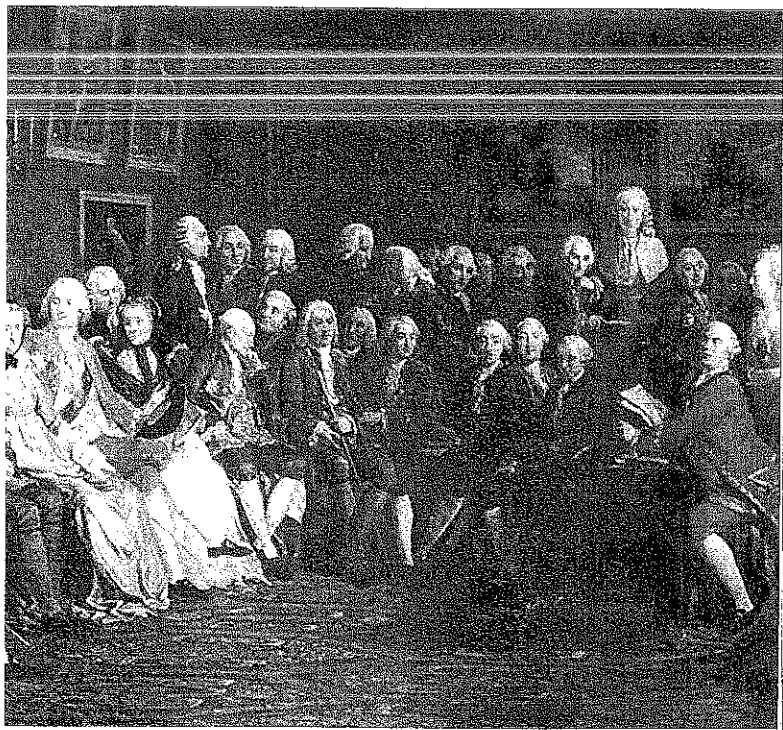
Salons Spread Ideas New literature, the arts, science, and philosophy were regular topics of discussion in **salons**, or informal social gatherings at which writers, artists, *philosophes*, and others exchanged ideas. The salon originated in the 1600s, when a group of noblewomen in Paris began inviting a few friends to their homes for poetry readings. By the 1700s, some middle-class women began holding salons. There, middle-class citizens met with nobles on an equal basis to discuss Enlightenment ideas.

Through the salons, Enlightenment ideas spread among the educated people of Europe. Madame Geoffrin (zhoh FRAN) ran one of the most respected salons. In her home on the Rue St. Honoré (roo sant ohn ur AY), she brought together the brightest and most talented people of her day.

The young musical genius Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart played for her guests, and Diderot was a regular at her weekly dinners for philosophers and poets.

Slow Change for the Majority At first, most Europeans were untouched by the spread of Enlightenment ideas. They remained what they had always been—peasants living in small rural villages. Echoes of serfdom still remained throughout Europe despite advances in Western Europe. Centuries-old traditions continued to shape European society, which only very slowly began to change.

By the late 1700s, ideas about equality and social justice had finally seeped into peasant villages across Europe. Some peasants welcomed ideas about equality and an end to the old order. Others did not. Upheavals in France and elsewhere quickened the pace of change. By the early 1800s, war and changing economic



>> During the Enlightenment, Madame Geoffrin's salons were popular gatherings for intellectual discussions.

conditions began to transform life for people across Europe.

2 IDENTIFY CENTRAL IDEAS How did those opposed to Enlightenment ideas try to stop the spread of information?

Arts and Literature of the Enlightenment

In the 1600s and 1700s, the arts evolved to meet changing tastes. As in earlier periods, artists and composers had to please their patrons, the men and women who commissioned works from them or gave them jobs.

Changing Styles in Art and Architecture In the age of Louis XIV, courtly art and architecture were either in the Greek and Roman tradition or in a grand, ornate style known as **baroque**. Baroque paintings were huge, colorful, and full of excitement. They glorified historic battles or the lives of saints. Such works matched the grandeur of European courts at that time.

By the mid-1700s, architects and designers developed a new style that reflected changing tastes. Unlike the heavy splendor of the baroque, **rococo** art

was lighter, more personal, elegant and charming. Rococo furniture and tapestries featured delicate shells and flowers, and more pastel colors were used. Portrait painters showed noble subjects in charming rural settings, surrounded by happy servants and pets. Although this style was criticized by the *philosophes* for its superficiality, it was popular with the upper and middle classes.

New Trends in Music During the Enlightenment, composers and musicians developed new forms of music. Their music followed ordered structured forms well suited to the Age of Reason. At the same time, their work transcended, or rose above, the culture of the Enlightenment and remains popular all over the world today.

Ballets and opera—plays set to music—were performed at royal courts, and opera houses sprang up from Italy to England. In the past, only the highest people in society could afford to commission new works of music. By the mid-1700s, wealthy middle class people commissioned works and hired musicians to perform them. Among the towering musical figures of the era was Johann Sebastian Bach.

A devout German Lutheran, Bach wrote beautiful religious works for organ and choirs. His skills playing the organ and harpsichord were recognized during

his lifetime, but he is now generally regarded as one of the greatest composers in history. Bach was a master of counterpoint, a technique that weaves two or more independent melodies together to create a new harmony.

Another German-born composer, George Frideric Handel, spent much of his life in England, where his music was extremely popular with the general public. There, he wrote *Water Music* and other pieces for King George I, as well as more than 30 operas. His most celebrated choral work, the *Messiah*, is often performed at Christmas and Easter. The stirring “Hallelujah Chorus” from the *Messiah* conveys universal themes of joy and celebration.

In 1761, a six-year-old prodigy, Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, burst onto the European scene. He gained instant celebrity as a composer and performer.

During his brief life, the young man from Salzburg in Austria composed an amazing variety of music with remarkable speed. His operas reflected Enlightenment criticism of a class-ridden world full of hypocrisy and lies. At age 35, Mozart died in poverty, leaving a musical legacy that thrives today.

The Novel Takes Shape By the 1700s, literature developed new forms and a wider audience. Middle-class readers, for example, liked stories about their own times told in straightforward prose. One result was an outpouring of novels, or long works of prose fiction.

English novelists wrote many popular stories. Daniel Defoe wrote *Robinson Crusoe*, an exciting tale about a sailor shipwrecked on a tropical island. In a novel called *Pamela*, Samuel Richardson used a series of letters to tell a story about a servant girl. This technique was adopted by other authors of the period.

2 DRAW CONCLUSIONS How did literature change as Enlightenment ideas spread?

The Enlightened Despots

Discussions of Enlightenment theories enlivened the courts of Europe. *Philosophes* hoped to convince European rulers to adopt their ideas and introduce reforms. Some monarchs did accept Enlightenment ideas. They became **enlightened despots**, or absolute rulers who used their power to bring about political and social change.

Frederick the Great As king of Prussia from 1740 to 1786, Frederick II exerted extremely tight control over his subjects. Still, he saw himself as the “first servant of the state,” with a duty to work for the common good.



>> Johann Sebastian Bach plays the piano with his family in a 1870 painting. Many of Bach's children became important musicians.

 **Interactive Gallery**

Frederick openly praised Voltaire's work and invited him to Berlin. He asked French scientists to help him set up a Prussian academy of science. As king, he tried to reduce the use of torture and allowed a free press. He also tolerated religious differences, welcoming victims of religious persecution. "In my kingdom," he said, "everyone can go to heaven in his own fashion."

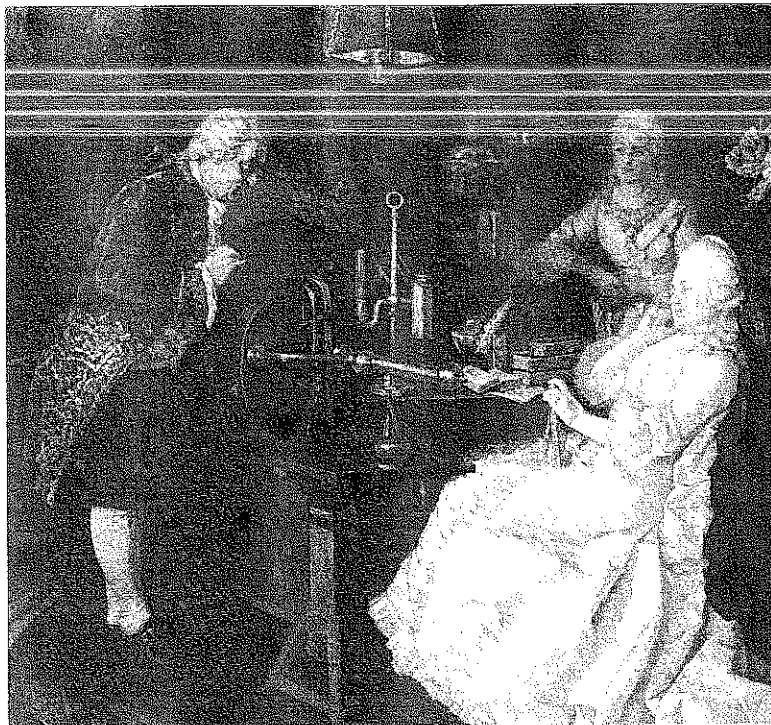
Most of Frederick's reforms were directed at making the Prussian government more efficient. To do this, he reorganized the government's civil service and simplified laws. Although Frederick did believe in enlightened reform, his efforts to improve government meant more power for himself.

Catherine the Great Catherine II, empress of Russia, read the works of the *philosophes* and exchanged letters with Voltaire and Diderot. She praised Voltaire as someone who had "fought the united enemies of humankind: superstition, fanaticism, ignorance, trickery." Catherine admired the Enlightenment ideas of equality and liberty.

Catherine experimented with implementing Enlightenment ideas. Early in her reign, she made some limited reforms in law and government. Catherine abolished torture and granted some religious tolerance for Christians and Muslims in her lands. However, she increased restrictions and taxes on Jews. She granted nobles a charter of rights and spoke out against serfdom. Still, like Frederick in Prussia, Catherine did not intend to give up power. Her main political contribution to Russia was an expanded empire.

Joseph II The most radical of the enlightened despots was **Joseph II** of Austria, the son and successor of Maria Theresa. Joseph was an eager student of the Enlightenment, and he traveled in disguise among his subjects to learn of their problems.

Like his mother, Joseph worked to modernize Austria's government. He chose talented middle-class officials rather than nobles to head departments and imposed a range of political and legal reforms. Despite opposition, Joseph granted more rights to and eased some restrictions on Protestants and Jews in his Catholic empire. He ended censorship by allowing a free press and attempted to bring the Catholic Church under royal control. He sold the property of many monasteries that were not involved in education or care of the sick and used the proceeds to build hospitals. Joseph even abolished serfdom. Like many of his other



>> Catherine the Great expressed an interest in many Enlightenment ideas. She often met with scholars to learn more. **Interpret** What type of scholar do you think she is meeting in this painting? Explain.

reforms, however, this measure was canceled after his death.

ANALYZE INFORMATION What did Frederick the Great mean by, "In my kingdom, everyone can go to heaven in his own fashion"?

ASSESSMENT

1. **Explain** Explain the influence of scientific ideas on the progression of thought from the Scientific Revolution to the Enlightenment.
2. **Identify Central Ideas** What are some ways in which Enlightenment ideas spread?
3. **Identify Central Ideas** Explain the components of the free-enterprise system.
4. **Draw Conclusions** Why might some absolute monarchs have been willing to consider Enlightenment ideas, while others were not?
5. **Identify Central Ideas** In what way were the ideas of John Locke and Jean-Jacques Rousseau similar?