Crisis and Absolutism in Europe
1550–1715

Key Events
As you read this chapter, look for these key events in the history of Europe during the sixteenth, seventeenth, and early eighteenth centuries.
• The French religious wars of the sixteenth century pitted Protestant Calvinists against Catholics.
• From 1560 to 1650, wars, including the devastating Thirty Years’ War, and economic and social crises plagued Europe.
• European monarchs sought economic and political stability through absolutism and the divine right of kings.
• Concern with order and power was reflected in the writings of Thomas Hobbes and John Locke.

The Impact Today
The events that occurred during this time period still impact our lives today.
• The ideas of John Locke are imbedded in the Constitution of the United States.
• The works of William Shakespeare continue to be read and dramatized all over the world.

World History—Modern Times Video The Chapter 7 video, “Louis XIV: The Sun King,” chronicles the practice of absolutism in France during the 1600s.
Versailles was the center of court life during the reign of Louis XIV.
The Majesty of Louis XIV

Louis XIV has been regarded by some as the perfect embodiment of an absolute monarch. Duc de Saint-Simon, who had firsthand experience of French court life, said in his memoirs that Louis was “the very figure of a hero, so imbued with a natural majesty that it appeared even in his most insignificant gestures and movements.”

The king’s natural grace gave him a special charm: “He was as dignified and majestic in his dressing gown as when dressed in robes of state, or on horseback at the head of his troops.” He excelled at exercise and was never affected by the weather: “Drenched with rain or snow, pierced with cold, bathed in sweat or covered with dust, he was always the same.”

He spoke well and learned quickly. He was naturally kind, and “he loved truth, justice, order, and reason.” His life was orderly: “Nothing could be regulated with greater exactitude than were his days and hours.” His self-control was evident: “He did not lose control of himself ten times in his whole life, and then only with inferior persons.”

Even absolute monarchs had imperfections, however, and Saint-Simon had the courage to point them out: “Louis XIV’s vanity was without limit or restraint.” This trait led to his “dislike for all merit, intelligence, education, and most of all, for all independence of character and sentiment in others.” It led as well as “to mistakes of judgment in matters of importance.”

Why It Matters

The religious upheavals of the sixteenth century left Europeans sorely divided. Wars, revolutions, and economic and social crises haunted Europe, making the 90 years from 1560 to 1650 an age of crisis in European life. One response to these crises was a search for order. Many states satisfied this search by extending monarchical power. Other states, such as England, created systems where monarchs were limited by the power of a parliament.

History and You As you read through this chapter, you will learn about a number of monarchs. Create either a paper or electronic chart listing the following information: name of the ruler; country; religion; challenges; accomplishments. Using outside sources, add another category to your chart to reflect what you learn about the personal life and family of each king.
In August of 1572, during the French Wars of Religion, the Catholic party decided to kill Protestant leaders gathered in Paris. One Protestant described the scene:

"In an instant, the whole city was filled with dead bodies of every sex and age, and indeed amid such confusion and disorder that everyone was allowed to kill whoever he pleased. . . . Nevertheless, the main fury fell on our people [the Protestants]. . . . The continuous shooting of pistols, the frightful cries of those they slaughtered, the bodies thrown from windows . . . the breaking down of doors and windows, the stones thrown against them, and the looting of more than 600 homes over a long period can only bring before the eyes of the reader an unforgettable picture of the calamity appalling in every way."

— The Huguenot Wars, Julian Coudy, 1969

Conflict between Catholics and Protestants was at the heart of the French Wars of Religion.

The French Wars of Religion

By 1560, Calvinism and Catholicism had become highly militant (combative) religions. They were aggressive in trying to win converts and in eliminating each other’s authority. Their struggle for the minds and hearts of Europeans was the chief cause of the religious wars that plagued Europe in the sixteenth century.
However, economic, social, and political forces also played an important role in these conflicts.

Of the sixteenth-century religious wars, none was more shattering than the French civil wars known as the French Wars of Religion (1562–1598). Religion was at the center of these wars. The French kings persecuted Protestants, but the persecution did little to stop the spread of Protestantism. Huguenots (HYOO•guh•NAWTS) were French Protestants influenced by John Calvin. They made up only about 7 percent of the total French population, but 40 to 50 percent of the nobility became Huguenots. Included in this group of nobles was the house of Bourbon, which ruled the southern French kingdom of Navarre and stood next to the Valois dynasty in the royal line of succession. The conversion of so many nobles made the Huguenots a powerful political threat to the Crown.

Still, the Catholic majority greatly outnumbered the Huguenot minority, and the Valois monarchy was strongly Catholic. In addition, an extreme Catholic party—known as the ultra-Catholics—strongly opposed the Huguenots. Possessing the loyalty of sections of northern and northwestern France, the ultra-Catholics could recruit and pay for large armies.

Although the religious issue was the most important issue, other factors played a role in the French civil wars. Towns and provinces, which had long resisted the growing power of the French monarchy, were willing to assist nobles in weakening the monarchy. The fact that so many nobles were Huguenots created an important base of opposition to the king.

For 30 years, battles raged in France between the Catholic and Huguenot sides. Finally, in 1589, Henry of Navarre, the political leader of the Huguenots and a member of the Bourbon dynasty, succeeded to the throne as Henry IV. He realized that as a Protestant he would never be accepted by Catholic France, so he converted to Catholicism. When he was crowned king in 1594, the fighting in France finally came to an end.

To solve the religious problem, the king issued the Edict of Nantes in 1598. The edict recognized Catholicism as the official religion of France, but it also gave the Huguenots the right to worship and to enjoy all political privileges, such as holding public offices.

**Reading Check** Identifying List the sequence of events that led to the Edict of Nantes.

**Philip II and Militant Catholicism**

The greatest supporter of militant Catholicism in the second half of the sixteenth century was King Philip II of Spain, the son and heir of Charles V. The reign of King Philip II, which extended from 1556 to 1598, ushered in an age of Spanish greatness, both politically and culturally.

The first major goal of Philip II was to consolidate the lands he had inherited from his father. These included Spain, the Netherlands, and possessions in Italy and the Americas. To strengthen his control, Philip insisted on strict conformity to Catholicism and strong monarchical authority.

The Catholic faith was important to both Philip II and the Spanish people. During the late Middle Ages, Catholic kingdoms in Spain had reconquered Muslim areas within Spain and expelled the Spanish Jews. Driven by this crusading heritage, Spain saw itself as a nation of people chosen by God to save Catholic Christianity from the Protestant heretics.

Philip II, the “Most Catholic King,” became a champion of Catholic causes, a role that led to spectacular victories and equally spectacular defeats. Spain’s leadership of a Holy League against the Turks, for example, resulted in a stunning victory over the Turkish fleet in the Battle of Lepanto in 1571. Philip was not so fortunate in his conflicts with England (discussed in the following section) and the Netherlands.

The Spanish Netherlands, which consisted of 17 provinces (modern Netherlands and Belgium), was one of the richest parts of Philip’s empire. Philip attempted to strengthen his control in this important region. The nobles of the Netherlands, who resented the loss of their privileges, strongly opposed Philip’s efforts. To make matters worse, Philip tried to crush Calvinism in the Netherlands. Violence erupted in 1566 when Calvinists—especially nobles—began to destroy statues in Catholic churches. Philip sent ten thousand troops to crush the rebellion.

In the northern provinces, the Dutch, under the leadership of William the Silent, the prince of
The England of Elizabeth

In this section, you will learn how the defeat of the Spanish Armada guaranteed that England would remain a Protestant country and signaled the beginning of Spain’s decline as a sea power.

When Elizabeth Tudor ascended the throne in 1558, England had fewer than four million people. During her reign, the small island kingdom became the leader of the Protestant nations of Europe and laid the foundations for a world empire.

Intelligent, careful, and self-confident, Elizabeth moved quickly to solve the difficult religious problem she inherited from her Catholic half-sister, Queen Mary Tudor. She repealed the laws favoring Catholics. A new Act of Supremacy named Elizabeth as “the only supreme governor” of both church and state. The Church of England under Elizabeth was basically Protestant, but it followed a moderate Protestantism that kept most people satisfied.

Elizabeth was also moderate in her foreign policy. The queen feared that war would be disastrous for England and for her own rule. She tried to keep Spain and France from becoming too powerful by supporting whichever was the weaker nation. Still, she allowed Francis Drake, an English navigator, to seize and plunder Spanish ships sailing the Caribbean.
Philip II of Spain had toyed for years with the idea of invading England. His advisers assured him that the people of England would rise against their queen when the Spaniards arrived. In any case, a successful invasion of England would mean the overthrow of Protestantism and a return to Catholicism.

In 1588, Philip ordered preparations for an armada—a fleet of warships—to invade England. The fleet that set sail had neither the ships nor the manpower that Philip had planned to send. An officer of the Spanish fleet reveals the basic flaw: “It is well known that we fight in God’s cause. . . . But unless God helps us by a miracle, the English, who have faster and handier ships than ours, and many more long-range guns . . . will . . . stand aloof and knock us to pieces with their guns, without our being able to do them any serious hurt.”

The hoped-for miracle never came. The Spanish fleet, battered by a number of encounters with the English, sailed back to Spain by a northward route around Scotland and Ireland, where it was pounded by storms. Many of the Spanish ships sank.

_Reading Check_ Explaining Why was Philip II confident that the Spanish could successfully invade England?

### Checking for Understanding

1. Define militant, armada.
2. Identify Huguenots, Henry of Navarre, Edict of Nantes, King Philip II, William the Silent, Elizabeth Tudor.
3. Locate Netherlands, Scotland, Ireland.
4. Describe how the Edict of Nantes appeased both Catholics and Huguenots.
5. List the ways Elizabeth demonstrated moderation in her religious policy.

### Critical Thinking

6. Making Generalizations Why did Philip II send out his fleet knowing he did not have enough ships or manpower?
7. Compare and Contrast Use a Venn diagram like the one below to compare and contrast the reigns of Henry of Navarre, Philip II, and Elizabeth Tudor.

### Analyzing Visuals

8. Examine the painting of the Saint Bartholomew’s Day massacre shown on page 211 of your text. Is the work an objective depiction of the event, or can you find evidence of artistic bias in the painting?

### Writing About History

9. Persuasive Writing Write a persuasive essay arguing whether or not it was a good idea for Philip II to sail against England. Identify the main reason the king of Spain decided to launch the invasion.
IN 1601, NEAR THE END OF her life, Queen Elizabeth made a speech to Parliament, giving voice to the feeling that existed between the queen and her subjects.

“I do assure you there is no prince that loves his subjects better, or whose love can contradict our love. There is no jewel, be it of never so rich a price, which I set before this jewel; I mean your love. For I do esteem it more than any treasure or riches.

And, though God has raised me high, yet this I count the glory of my crown, that I have reigned with your love. This makes me that I do not so much rejoice that God has made me to be a Queen, as to be a Queen over so thankful a people.

Of myself I must say this: I never was any greedy, scraping grasper, nor a strait, fast-holding Prince, nor yet a waster. My heart was never set on any worldly goods, but only for my subjects’ good. What you bestow on me, I will not hoard it up, but receive it to bestow on you again. Yea, mine own properties I account yours, to be expended for your good. . . .

I have ever used to set the Last-Judgement Day before mine eyes, and so to rule as I shall be judged to answer before a higher Judge, to whose judgment seat I do appeal, that never thought was cherished in my heart that tended not unto my people’s good. . . .

There will never Queen sit in my seat with more zeal to my country, care for my subjects, and that will sooner with willingness venture her life for your good and safety, than myself. For it is my desire to live nor reign no longer than my life and reign should be for your good. And though you have had and may have many princes more mighty and wise sitting in this seat, you never had nor shall have any that will be more careful and loving.”

—Queen Elizabeth I, *The Golden Speech*

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. Identify phrases that convey Queen Elizabeth’s feeling for her subjects.
2. To whom does Elizabeth feel accountable?
3. Which is more important: how subjects and rulers feel about each other or the policies and laws that rulers develop?
The Thirty Years’ War (1618–1648) was a devastating religious war. A resident of Magdeburg, Germany, a city sacked ten times during the war, reported:

“...nothing but beating and burning, plundering, torture, and murder. Most especially was every one of the enemy bent on securing [riches]. ... In this frenzied rage, the great and splendid city was now given over to the flames, and thousands of innocent men, women and children, in the midst of heartrending shrieks and cries, were tortured and put to death in so cruel and shameful a manner that no words would suffice to describe. Thus in a single day this noble and famous city, the pride of the whole country, went up in fire and smoke.”

—Readings in European History, James Harvey Robinson, 1934

This destruction of Magdeburg was one of the disasters besetting Europe during this time.

Economic and Social Crises

From 1560 to 1650, Europe witnessed severe economic and social crises. One major economic problem was inflation, or rising prices. What caused this rise in prices? The great influx of gold and silver from the Americas was one factor. Then, too, a growing population in the sixteenth century increased the demand for land and food and drove up prices for both.
By 1600, an economic slowdown had begun in parts of Europe. Spain’s economy, grown dependent on imported silver, was seriously failing by the 1640s. The mines were producing less silver, fleets were subject to pirate attacks, and the loss of Muslim and Jewish artisans and merchants hurt the economy. Italy, the financial center of Europe in the Renaissance, was also declining economically.

Population figures in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries reveal Europe’s worsening conditions. Population grew in the sixteenth century. The number of people probably increased from 60 million in 1500 to 85 million by 1600. By 1620, population had leveled off. It had begun to decline by 1650, especially in central and southern Europe. Warfare, plague, and famine all contributed to the population decline and to the creation of social tensions.

Reading Check Explaining Explain the causes for inflation in Europe in the 1600s.

The Witchcraft Trials

A belief in witchcraft, or magic, had been part of traditional village culture for centuries. The religious zeal that led to the Inquisition and the hunt for heretics was extended to concern about witchcraft. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries an intense hysteria affected the lives of many Europeans. Perhaps more than a hundred thousand people were charged with witchcraft. As more and more people were brought to trial, the fear of witches grew, as did the fear of being accused of witchcraft.

Common people—usually the poor and those without property—were the ones most often accused of witchcraft. More than 75 percent of those accused were women. Most of them were single or widowed and over 50 years old.

Under intense torture, accused witches usually confessed to a number of practices. Many said that they had sworn allegiance to the devil and attended sabbats, nightly gatherings where they feasted and danced. Others admitted using evil spells and special ointments to harm their neighbors.

By 1650, the witchcraft hysteria had begun to lessen. As governments grew stronger, fewer officials were willing to disrupt their societies with trials of witches. In addition, attitudes were changing. People found it unreasonable to believe in the old view of a world haunted by evil spirits.

Reading Check Describing What were the characteristics of the majority of those accused of witchcraft?

The Thirty Years’ War

Religious disputes continued in Germany after the Peace of Augsburg in 1555. One reason for the disputes was that Calvinism had not been recognized by the peace settlement. By the 1600s, Calvinism had spread to many parts of Europe. Religion played an important role in the outbreak of the Thirty Years’ War, called the “last of the religious wars,” but political and territorial motives were evident as well. The war began in 1618 in the lands of the Holy Roman Empire. At first, it was a struggle between Catholic forces, led by the Hapsburg Holy Roman emperors, and Protestant (primarily Calvinist) nobles in Bohemia who rebelled against Hapsburg authority. Soon, however, the conflict became a political one. Cardinal Richelieu of France, Louis XIII’s chief minister (see Section 3), helped cause this change. Richelieu had Catholic France join Protestant Sweden in fighting the Catholic Hapsburgs.

Geography Skills

The Thirty Years’ War was fought primarily in the German states within the Holy Roman Empire.

1. Interpreting Maps List the towns that were sacked or plundered during the war.
2. Applying Geography Skills Research one of the battles on the map and describe its impact on the course of the war.
The Thirty Years’ War was the most destructive conflict that Europeans had yet experienced. Although most of the battles of the war were fought on German soil, all major European powers except England became involved. For 30 years Germany was plundered and destroyed. Rival armies destroyed the German countryside as well as entire towns. Local people had little protection from the armies. The Peace of Westphalia officially ended the war in Germany in 1648. The major contenders gained new territories, and one of them—France—emerged as the dominant nation in Europe.

The Peace of Westphalia stated that all German states, including the Calvinist ones, could determine their own religion. The more than three hundred states that had made up the Holy Roman Empire were virtually recognized as independent states, since each received the power to conduct its own foreign policy. This brought an end to the Holy Roman Empire as a political entity. Germany would not be united for another two hundred years.

**Reading Check** Summarizing How did the Peace of Westphalia impact the Holy Roman Empire?

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The Changing Face of War

Gunpowder was first invented by the Chinese in the eleventh century and made its appearance in Europe by the fourteenth century. During the seventeenth century, firearms developed rapidly and increasingly changed the face of war.

By 1600, the flintlock musket had made firearms more deadly on the battlefield. Muskets were loaded from the front with powder and ball. In the flintlock musket, the powder that propelled the ball was ignited by a spark caused by a flint striking on metal. This mechanism made it easier to fire and more reliable than other muskets. Reloading techniques also improved, making it possible to make one to two shots per minute. The addition of the bayonet to the front of the musket made the musket even more deadly as a weapon. The bayonet was a steel blade used in hand-to-hand combat.

A military leader who made effective use of firearms during the Thirty Years’ War was Gustavus Adolphus, the king of Sweden. The infantry brigades of Gustavus’s army, six men deep, were composed of equal numbers of musketeers and pikemen. The musketeers employed the salvo, in which all rows of the infantry fired at once instead of row by row. These salvos of fire, which cut up the massed ranks of the opposing infantry squadrons, were followed by pike charges. Pikes were heavy spears 18 feet (about 5.5 m) long, held by pikemen massed together in square formations. Gustavus also used the cavalry in a more mobile fashion. After shooting a pistol volley, the cavalry charged the enemy with swords.

The increased use of firearms, combined with greater mobility on the battlefield, demanded armies that were better disciplined and trained. Governments began to fund regularly paid standing armies. By 1700, France had a standing army of four hundred thousand.

**Analyzing** How did the invention of gunpowder change the way wars were fought?
Revolutions in England

As you read this section, you will discover that Parliament held the real authority in the English system of constitutional monarchy.

In addition to the Thirty Years’ War, a series of rebellions and civil wars rocked Europe in the seventeenth century. By far the most famous struggle was the civil war in England known as the English Revolution. At its core was a struggle between king and Parliament to determine what role each should play in governing England. It would take another revolution later in the century to finally resolve this struggle.

The Stuarts and Divine Right

With the death of Queen Elizabeth I in 1603, the Tudor dynasty came to an end. The Stuart line of rulers began with the accession to the throne of Elizabeth’s cousin, the king of Scotland, who became James I of England.

James believed in the divine right of kings—that is, that kings receive their power from God and are responsible only to God. Parliament did not think much of the divine right of kings. It had come to assume that the king or queen and Parliament ruled England together.

Religion was an issue as well. The Puritans (Protestants in England inspired by Calvinist ideas) did not like the king’s strong defense of the Church of England. The Puritans were members of the Church of England but wished to make the church more Protestant. Many of England’s gentry, mostly well-to-do landowners, had become Puritans. The Puritan gentry formed an important part of the House of Commons, the lower house of Parliament. It was not wise to alienate them.

The conflict that began during the reign of James came to a head during the reign of his son, Charles I. Charles also believed in the divine right of kings. In 1628, Parliament passed a petition that prohibited the passing of any taxes without Parliament’s consent. Although Charles I initially accepted this petition, he later changed his mind, realizing that it put limits on the king’s power.

Charles also tried to impose more ritual on the Church of England. To the Puritans, this was a return to Catholic practices. When Charles tried to force the Puritans to accept his religious policies, thousands of them chose to go to America instead.

Civil War and the Commonwealth

Complaints grew until England slipped into a civil war in 1642 between the supporters of the king (the Cavaliers or Royalists) and the parliamentary forces (called the Roundheads because of their short hair). Parliament proved victorious, due largely to the New Model Army of Oliver Cromwell, a military genius. The New Model Army was made up chiefly of more extreme Puritans, known as the Independents. These
Natural Disasters in History

The religious wars in Europe, which led to many deaths, were manmade disasters that created economic, social, and political crises. Between 1500 and 1800, natural disasters around the world also took many lives and led to economic and social crises.

One of the worst disasters occurred in China in 1556. A powerful earthquake in northern China buried alive hundreds of thousands of peasants who had made their homes in cave dwellings carved out of soft clay hills.

In later years, earthquakes shattered other places around the world. On the last day of 1703, a massive earthquake struck the city of Tokyo. At the same time, enormous tidal waves caused by earthquakes flooded the Japanese coastline, sweeping entire villages out to sea. An earthquake that struck Persia in 1780 killed 100,000 people in the city of Tabriz.

Europe, too, had its share of natural disasters. A massive earthquake leveled the city of Lisbon, Portugal, in 1755, killing over 50,000 people and destroying more than 80 percent of the buildings in the city. The massive eruption of Mount Etna on the island of Sicily in 1669 devastated Catania, a nearby port city.

1. How do natural disasters lead to economic and social crises?
2. What natural disasters can occur where you live?
However, in 1688, a son was born to James and his second wife, a Catholic. Now, the possibility of a Catholic monarchy loomed large.

**A Glorious Revolution** A group of English noblemen invited the Dutch leader, William of Orange, husband of James’s daughter Mary, to invade England. William and Mary raised an army and in 1688 “invaded” England, while James, his wife, and his infant son fled to France. With almost no bloodshed, England had undergone a “Glorious Revolution.” The issue was not if there would be a monarchy but who would be monarch.

In January 1689, Parliament offered the throne to William and Mary. They accepted it, along with a Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights set forth Parliament’s right to make laws and levy taxes. It also stated that standing armies could be raised only with Parliament’s consent, thus making it impossible for kings to oppose or to do without Parliament. The rights of citizens to keep arms and have a jury trial were also confirmed. The Bill of Rights helped create a system of government based on the rule of law and a freely elected Parliament. This bill laid the foundation for a limited, or constitutional, monarchy.

Another important action of Parliament was the Toleration Act of 1689. This act granted Puritans, but not Catholics, the right of free public worship. Few English citizens, however, would ever again be persecuted for religion.

By deposing one king and establishing another, Parliament had destroyed the divine-right theory of kingship. William was, after all, king by the grace of Parliament, not the grace of God. Parliament had asserted its right to be part of the government.

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**SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT**

### Checking for Understanding

1. Define inflation, witchcraft, divine right of kings, commonwealth.
2. Identify James I, Puritans, Charles I, Cavaliers, Roundheads, Oliver Cromwell, James II.
3. Locate Holy Roman Empire, Bohemia.
4. Explain why Oliver Cromwell first purged Parliament and then declared a military dictatorship.
5. List the countries involved in the Thirty Years’ War.

### Critical Thinking

6. **Drawing Conclusions** Which nation emerged stronger after the Thirty Years’ War? Did thirty years of fighting accomplish any of the original motives for waging the war?

7. **Cause and Effect** Use a graphic organizer like the one below to illustrate the causes and effects of the Thirty Years’ War.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thirty Years’ War</th>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Analyzing Visuals

8. Examine the cameo of William and Mary shown above. How does this painting compare to portraits of other rulers, such as the one of Louis XIV on page 226? How is the purpose of this painting different from the purpose of other royal portraits?

### Writing About History

9. **Expository Writing** Write an essay analyzing the population figures in sixteenth- and seventeenth-century England. What accounts for the increases and decreases? Include a graph showing population.
Making Generalizations

Why Learn This Skill?

Generalizations are broad statements or principles derived from specific facts. Here are some facts about Michigan and Florida:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>January</th>
<th>April</th>
<th>July</th>
<th>October</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grand Rapids, Michigan</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vero Beach, Florida</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>71.7</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>75.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One generalization that can be made from these facts is that Florida is warmer than Michigan. Generalizations are useful when you want to summarize large amounts of information and when detailed information is not required.

Learning the Skill

To make a valid generalization, follow these steps:

- **Identify the subject matter.** The example above compares Michigan to Florida.
- **Gather related facts and examples.** Each fact is about the climate of Michigan or Florida.
- **Identify similarities among these facts.** In each of the examples, the climate of Florida is more moderate than the climate of Michigan.
- **Use these similarities to form a general statement about the subject.** You can state either that Florida is warmer than Michigan or that Michigan is colder than Florida.

Practicing the Skill

Europe experienced economic crises and political upheaval from 1560 to 1650. Read the following excerpt from the text, then identify valid and invalid generalizations about what you have read.

Identify each following generalization as valid or invalid based on the information presented:

1. Multiple factors can contribute to inflation.
2. If the government had taken measures to control an increase in population, inflation would have been prevented.
3. Nations should refrain from importing goods from other countries.
4. Less dependency on the importing of silver would have helped Spain’s economy.

Applying the Skill

Over the next three weeks, read the editorials in your local newspaper. Write a list of generalizations about the newspaper’s position on issues that have been discussed, either national or local.

Glencoe’s *Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook, Level 2*, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
Jacques Bossuet, a seventeenth-century French bishop, explained a popular viewpoint:

"It is God who establishes kings. They thus act as ministers of God and His lieutenants on earth. It is through them that he rules. This is why we have seen that the royal throne is not the throne of a man, but the throne of God himself. It appears from this that the person of kings is sacred, and to move against them is a crime. Since their power comes from on high, kings... should exercise it with fear and restraint as a thing which has come to them from God, and for which God will demand an account."

— Western Civilization, Margaret L. King, 2000

Bossuet’s ideas about kings became reality during the reign of King Louis XIV.

France under Louis XIV

One response to the crises of the seventeenth century was to seek more stability by increasing the power of the monarch. The result was what historians have called absolutism.

Absolutism is a system in which a ruler holds total power. In seventeenth-century Europe, absolutism was tied to the idea of the divine right of kings. It was thought that rulers received their power from God and were responsible to no one except God. Absolute monarchs had tremendous powers. They had the ability to...
make laws, levy taxes, administer justice, control the
state’s officials, and determine foreign policy.

The reign of Louis XIV has long been regarded as
the best example of the practice of absolutism in the
seventeenth century. French culture, language, and
manners reached into all levels of European society.
French diplomacy and wars dominated the political
affairs of western and central Europe. The court of
Louis XIV was imitated throughout Europe.

Richelieu and Mazarin French history for the 50
years before Louis was a period of struggle as gov-
ernments fought to avoid the breakdown of the state.
The situation was made more difficult by the fact that
both Louis XIII and Louis XIV were only boys when
they came to the throne. The government was left in
the hands of royal ministers. In France, two ministers
played important roles in preserving the authority of
the monarchy.

Cardinal Richelieu (RIH•shuh•LOO), Louis
XIII’s chief minister, strengthened the power of the
monarchy. Because the Huguenots were seen as a
threat to the king’s power, Richelieu took away their
political and military rights while preserving their
religious rights. Richelieu also tamed the nobles by
setting up a network of spies to uncover plots by
nobles against the government. He then crushed the
conspiracies and executed the conspirators.

Louis XIV came to the throne in 1643 at the age of
four. Due to the king’s young age, Cardinal Mazarin,
the chief minister, took control of the government.
During Mazarin’s rule, a revolt led by nobles
unhappy with the growing power of the monarchy
broke out. This revolt was crushed. With its end,
many French people concluded that the best hope for
stability in France lay with a strong monarch.

Louis Comes to Power When Mazarin died in
1661, Louis XIV took over supreme power. The day
after Cardinal Mazarin’s death, the new king, at the
age of 23, stated his desire to be a real king and the
sole ruler of France:

Why did the nobles take part in these
ceremonies? Louis had made it clear that
anyone who hoped to obtain an office,
title, or pension from the king had to par-
ticipate. This was Louis XIV’s way of con-
trolling their behavior.

Court etiquette became very complex.
Nobles and royal princes were expected to
follow certain rules. Who could sit where

At the Court of Versailles

In 1660, Louis XIV of France decided to
build a palace at Versailles, near Paris.
Untold sums of money were spent and
tens of thousands of workers labored
incessantly to complete the work. The
enormous palace housed thousands of
people.

Life at Versailles became a court cere-
mony, with Louis XIV at the center of it all.
The king had little privacy. Only when he
visited his wife, mother, or mistress or met
with ministers was he free of the nobles
who swarmed about the palace.

Most daily ceremonies were carefully
staged, such as the king’s rising from bed,
dining, praying, attending mass, and going
to bed. A mob of nobles competed to
assist the king in carrying out these solemn
activities. It was considered a great honor,
for example, for a noble to be chosen to
hand the king his shirt while dressing.

View of the vast grounds
and palace of Versailles

CONTENTS

View of the vast grounds
and palace of Versailles

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1. **Summarizing** How did Louis XIV attempt to control the behavior of his nobles?

2. **Explaining** Why did Louis like the gambling that went on at Versailles?

3. **Writing about History** In what way was the system of court etiquette another way in which Louis controlled his nobles?

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The king’s mother, who was well aware of her son’s love of fun and games and his affairs with the maids in the royal palace, laughed aloud at these words. Louis was serious, however. He established a strict routine from which he seldom deviated. He also fostered the myth of himself as the Sun King—the source of light for all of his people.

**Government and Religion** One of the keys to Louis’s power was his control of the central policy-making machinery of government. The royal court at meals with the king was carefully regulated. Once, at a dinner, the wife of a minister sat closer to the king than did a duchess. Louis XIV became so angry that he did not eat for the rest of the evening.

Daily life at Versailles included many forms of entertainment. Louis and his nobles hunted once a week. Walks through the Versailles gardens, boating trips, plays, ballets, and concerts were all sources of pleasure.

One form of entertainment—gambling—became an obsession at Versailles. Many nobles gambled regularly and lost enormous sums of money. One princess described the scene: “Here in France as soon as people get together they do nothing but play cards; they play for frightful sums, and the players seem bereft of their senses. One shouts at the top of his voice, another strikes the table with his fist. It is horrible to watch them.” However, Louis did not think so. He was pleased by an activity that kept the Versailles nobles busy and out of politics.

"Up to this moment I have been pleased to entrust the government of my affairs to the late Cardinal. It is now time that I govern them myself. You [secretaries and ministers of state] will assist me with your counsels when I ask for them. I request and order you to seal no orders except by my command; I order you not to sign anything, not even a passport without my command; to render account to me personally each day and to favor no one."

The bedroom of Louis XIV at Versailles served three purposes. It was the personal household of the king. In addition, the chief offices of the state were located there, so Louis could watch over them. Finally, Versailles was the place where powerful subjects came to find favors and offices for themselves.

The greatest danger to Louis’s rule came from very high nobles and royal princes. They believed they should play a role in the government of France. Louis got rid of this threat by removing them from the royal council. This council was the chief administrative body of the king, and it supervised the government. At the same time, Louis enticed the nobles and royal princes to come to his court, where he could keep them busy with court life and keep them out of politics.

Louis’s government ministers were expected to obey his every wish. Said Louis, “I had no intention of sharing my authority with them.” As a result, Louis had complete authority over the traditional areas of royal power: foreign policy, the Church, and taxes.
Although Louis had absolute power over France’s nationwide policy making, his power was limited at the local level. The traditional groups of French society—the nobles, local officials, and town councils—had more influence than the king in the day-to-day operation of the local governments. As a result, the king bribed important people in the provinces to see that his policies were carried out.

Maintaining religious harmony had long been a part of monarchical power in France. The desire to keep this power led Louis to pursue an anti-Protestant policy aimed at converting the Huguenots to Catholicism. Early in his reign, Louis ordered the destruction of Huguenot churches and the closing of their schools. Perhaps as many as two hundred thousand Huguenots fled to England, the United Provinces, and the German states.

**The Economy and War** The cost of building palaces, maintaining his court, and pursuing his wars made finances a crucial issue for Louis XIV. He was most fortunate in having the services of Jean-Baptiste Colbert (kohl•BEHR) as controller-general of finances.

Colbert sought to increase the wealth and power of France by following the ideas of mercantilism. To decrease imports and increase exports, he granted subsidies to new industries. To improve communications and the transportation of goods within France, he built roads and canals. To decrease imports directly, Colbert raised tariffs on foreign goods and created a merchant marine to carry French goods.

The increase in royal power that Louis pursued led the king to develop a standing army numbering four hundred thousand in time of war. He wished to achieve the military glory befitting the Sun King. He also wished to ensure the domination of his Bourbon dynasty over European affairs.

To achieve his goals, Louis waged four wars between 1667 and 1713. His ambitions caused many nations to form coalitions to prevent him from dominating Europe. Through his wars, Louis added some territory to France’s northeastern frontier and set up a member of his own dynasty on the throne of Spain.

**Legacy of Louis XIV** In 1715, the Sun King died. He left France with great debts and surrounded by enemies. On his deathbed, the 76-year-old monarch seemed remorseful when he told his successor (his great-grandson), “Soon you will be King of a great kingdom. . . . Try to remain at peace with your neighbors. I loved war too much. Do not follow me in that or in overspending. . . . Lighten your people’s burden as soon as possible, and do what I have had the misfortune not to do myself.”

Did Louis mean it? We do not know. In any event, the advice to his successor was probably not remembered; his great-grandson was only five years old.

**Absolutism in Central and Eastern Europe**

After the Thirty Years’ War, there was no German state, but over three hundred “Germanies.” Of these states, two—**Prussia** and **Austria**—emerged in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries as great European powers.

**The Emergence of Prussia** Frederick William the Great Elector laid the foundation for the Prussian state. Realizing that Prussia was a small, open territory with no natural frontiers for defense, Frederick William built a large and efficient standing army. He had a force of forty thousand men, which made the Prussian army the fourth-largest in Europe.
To maintain the army and his own power, Frederick William set up the General War Commissariat to levy taxes for the army and oversee its growth. The Commissariat soon became an agency for civil government as well. The new bureaucratic machine became the elector’s chief instrument to govern the state. Many of its officials were members of the Prussian landed aristocracy, known as the Junkers, who also served as officers in the army.

In 1701, Frederick William’s son Frederick officially gained the title of king. Elector Frederick III became King Frederick I.

The New Austrian Empire The Austrian Hapsburgs had long played a significant role in European politics as Holy Roman emperors. By the end of the Thirty Years’ War, their hopes of creating an empire in Germany had been dashed. The Hapsburgs made a difficult transition in the seventeenth century. They had lost the German Empire, but now they created a new empire in eastern and southeastern Europe.

The core of the new Austrian Empire was the traditional Austrian lands in present-day Austria, the Czech Republic, and Hungary. After the defeat of the Turks in 1687 (see Chapter 8), Austria took control of all of Hungary, Transylvania, Croatia, and Slavonia as well. By the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Austrian Hapsburgs had gained a new empire of considerable size.

The Austrian monarchy, however, never became a highly centralized, absolutist state, chiefly because it was made up of so many different national groups. The Austrian Empire remained a collection of territories held together by the Hapsburg emperor, who was archduke of Austria, king of Bohemia, and king of Hungary. Each of these areas had its own laws and political life. No common sentiment tied the regions together other than the ideal of service to the Hapsburgs, held by military officers and government officials.

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Prussia and Austria emerged as great powers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

1. Interpreting Maps What did Austria gain by expanding south?
2. Applying Geography Skills What destructive war happened during the time period covered by these maps?

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Reading Check Examining Why was the Austrian monarchy unable to create a highly centralized, absolutist state?

Russia under Peter the Great

A new Russian state had emerged in the fifteenth century under the leadership of the principality of Muscovy and its grand dukes. In the sixteenth century, Ivan IV became the first ruler to take the title of czar, the Russian word for caesar.
Ivan expanded the territories of Russia eastward. He also crushed the power of the Russian nobility, known as the boyars. He was known as Ivan the Terrible because of his ruthless deeds, among them stabbing his own son to death in a heated argument.

When Ivan’s dynasty came to an end in 1598, a period of anarchy known as the Time of Troubles followed. This period did not end until the Zemsky Sobor, or national assembly, chose Michael Romanov as the new czar in 1613.

The Romanov dynasty lasted until 1917. One of its most prominent members was Peter the Great. Peter the Great became czar in 1689. Like the other Romanov czars who preceded him, Peter was an absolutist monarch who claimed the divine right to rule.

A few years after becoming czar, Peter made a trip to the West. When he returned to Russia, he was determined to westernize, or Europeanize, Russia. He was especially eager to borrow European technology. Only this kind of modernization could give him the army and navy he needed to make Russia a great power. Under Peter, Russia became a great military power. By his death in 1725, Russia was an important European state.

**Military and Governmental Changes**

One of Peter’s first goals was to reorganize the army. He employed both Russians and Europeans as officers. He drafted peasants for 25-year stints of service to build a standing army of 210,000 men. Peter has also been given credit for forming the first Russian navy, which was his overriding passion.

To impose the rule of the central government more effectively throughout the land, Peter divided Russia into provinces. He hoped to create a “police state,” by which he meant a well-ordered community governed by law. However, few of his bureaucrats shared his concept of honest service and duty to the state. Peter hoped for a sense of civic duty, but his own personality created an atmosphere of fear that prevented it.

He wrote to one administrator, “According to these orders act, act, act. I won’t write more, but you will pay with your head if you interpret orders again.” Peter wanted the impossible—that his administrators be slaves and free men at the same time.
Cultural Changes  
After his first trip to the West, Peter began to introduce Western customs, practices, and manners into Russia. He ordered the preparation of the first Russian book of etiquette to teach Western manners. Among other things, the book pointed out that it was not polite to spit on the floor or to scratch oneself at dinner.

Because Westerners did not wear beards or the traditional long-skirted coat, Russian beards had to be shaved and coats shortened. At the royal court, Peter shaved off his nobles’ beards and cut their coats at the knees with his own hands. Outside the court, barbers and tailors planted at town gates cut the beards and cloaks of those who entered.

One group of Russians—upper-class women—gained much from Peter’s cultural reforms. Having watched women mixing freely with men in Western courts, Peter insisted that Russian upper-class women remove the veils that had traditionally covered their faces and move out into society. Peter also held gatherings in which both sexes could mix for conversation and dancing, a practice he had learned in the West.

St. Petersburg  
The object of Peter’s domestic reforms was to make Russia into a great state and military power. An important part of this was to “open a window to the West,” meaning a port with ready access to Europe. This could be achieved only on the Baltic Sea. At that time, however, the Baltic coast was controlled by Sweden, the most important power in northern Europe.

A long and hard-fought war with Sweden enabled Peter to acquire the lands he sought. On a marshland on the Baltic in 1703, Peter began the construction of a new city, St. Petersburg, his window on the West. St. Petersburg was finished during Peter’s lifetime and remained the Russian capital until 1918.

Reading Check  
Evaluating  
Why was it so important that Peter the Great have a seaport on the Baltic?
In the play *Richard II*, William Shakespeare wrote the following lines about England:

```
This royal throne of kings, this sceptered isle,
This earth of majesty, this seat of Mars,
This other Eden, demi-Paradise,
This fortress built by Nature for herself
Against infection and the hand of war,
This happy breed of men, this little world,
This precious stone set in the silver sea,
Which serves it in the office of a wall
Or as a moat defensive to a house
Against the envy of less happier lands—
This blessed plot, this earth, this realm, this England.
```

--- *Richard II*, William Shakespeare

In this play, one of the greatest playwrights of the English world expressed his patriotic enthusiasm.

**Mannerism**

The artistic Renaissance came to an end when a new movement, called *Mannerism*, emerged in Italy in the 1520s and 1530s. The Reformation’s revival of religious values brought much political turmoil. Especially in Italy, the worldly
enthusiasm of the Renaissance declined as people grew anxious and uncertain and wished for spiritual experience.

Mannerism in art reflected this new environment by deliberately breaking down the High Renaissance principles of balance, harmony, and moderation. The rules of proportion were deliberately ignored as elongated figures were used to show suffering, heightened emotions, and religious ecstasy.

Mannerism spread from Italy to other parts of Europe and perhaps reached its high point in the work of El Greco (“the Greek”). El Greco was from the island of Crete. After studying in Venice and Rome, he moved to Spain.

In his paintings, El Greco used elongated and contorted figures, portraying them in unusual shades of yellow and green against an eerie background of stormy grays. The mood he depicts reflects well the tensions created by the religious upheavals of the Reformation.

Describing What did the mood of El Greco’s paintings reflect?

The Baroque Period

Mannerism was eventually replaced by a new movement—the baroque. This movement began in Italy in the last quarter of the sixteenth century and eventually spread to the rest of Europe and even Latin America. The Catholic reform movement most wholeheartedly adopted the baroque style. This can be seen in the buildings at Catholic courts, especially those of the Hapsburgs in Madrid, Prague, Vienna, and Brussels.

Baroque artists tried to bring together the classical ideals of Renaissance art with the spiritual feelings of the sixteenth-century religious revival. The baroque painting style was known for its use of dramatic effects to arouse the emotions. In large part, though, baroque art and architecture reflected the search for power that was such a part of the seventeenth century. Baroque churches and palaces were magnificent and richly detailed. Kings and princes wanted other kings and princes as well as their subjects to be in awe of their power.

Perhaps the greatest figure of the baroque period was the Italian architect and sculptor Gian Lorenzo Bernini, who completed Saint Peter’s Basilica in Rome. Action, exuberance, and dramatic effects mark the work of Bernini in the interior of Saint Peter’s.

Bernini’s Throne of Saint Peter is a highly decorated cover for the pope’s medieval wooden throne. The throne seems to hover in midair, held by the hands of the four great theologians of the early Catholic Church. Above the chair, rays of heavenly light drive a mass of clouds and angels toward the spectator.

Artemisia Gentileschi is less well-known than the male artists who dominated the seventeenth-century art world in Italy but prominent in her own right. Born in Rome, she studied painting with her father. In 1616, she moved to Florence and began a successful career as a painter. At the age of 23, she became the first woman to be elected to the Florentine Academy of Design. Although she was known internationally in her day as a portrait painter, her fame now rests on a series of pictures of heroines from the Old Testament. Most famous is her Judith Beheading Holofernes.

Identifying How did baroque art and architecture reflect the seventeenth-century search for power?

A Golden Age of Literature

In both England and Spain, writing for the theater reached new heights between 1580 and 1640. Other forms of literature flourished as well.
England’s Shakespeare

A cultural flowering took place in England in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. The period is often called the Elizabethan Era, because so much of it fell within the reign of Queen Elizabeth. Of all the forms of Elizabethan literature, none expressed the energy of the era better than drama. Of all the dramatists, none is more famous than William Shakespeare.

When Shakespeare appeared in London in 1592, Elizabethans already enjoyed the stage. Elizabethan theater was a very successful business. London theaters ranged from the Globe, which was a circular, unroofed structure holding three thousand people, to the Blackfriars, a roofed structure that held only five hundred.

The Globe’s admission charge of one or two pennies enabled even the lower classes to attend. The higher prices of the Blackfriars brought an audience of the well-to-do. Because Elizabethan audiences varied greatly, playwrights had to write works that pleased nobles, lawyers, merchants, and vagabonds alike.

William Shakespeare was a “complete man of the theater.” Although best known for writing plays, he was also an actor and shareholder in the chief theater company of the time, the Lord Chamberlain’s Men.

Shakespeare has long been viewed as a universal genius. He was a master of the English language and his language skills were matched by his insight into human psychology. Whether in his tragedies or his comedies, Shakespeare showed a remarkable understanding of the human condition.

Spanish Literature

The theater was one of the most creative forms of expression during Spain’s golden century as well. The first professional theaters, created in Seville and Madrid, were run by actors’ companies, as they were in England. Soon, every large town had a public playhouse, including Mexico City in the New World. Touring companies brought the latest Spanish plays to all parts of the Spanish Empire.

Beginning in the 1580s, the standard for playwrights was set by Lope de Vega. He wrote an extraordinary number of plays, perhaps 1,500 in all. Almost 500 of them survive. They have been characterized as witty, charming, action-packed, and realistic.

Lope de Vega made no apologies for the fact that he wrote his plays to please his audiences and satisfy public demand. He remarked once that if anyone thought he had written his plays for fame, “undeceive him and tell him that I wrote them for money.”

One of the crowning achievements of the golden age of Spanish literature was the work of Miguel de Cervantes (suv•VAN•teez). His novel Don Quixote has been hailed as one of the greatest literary works of all time.

In the two main characters of this famous work, Cervantes presented the dual nature of the Spanish character. The knight, Don Quixote from La Mancha, is the visionary so involved in his lofty ideals that he does not see the hard realities around him. To him, for example, windmills appear to be four-armed giants. In contrast, the knight’s fat and earthy squire, Sancho Panza, is a realist. Each of these characters finally comes to see the value of the other’s perspective. We are left with the conviction that both visionary dreams and the hard work of reality are necessary to the human condition.

Reading Check

Describing When was the “golden age” of Spanish literature? Who set the standard for playwrights?
Political Thought

The seventeenth-century concerns with order and power were reflected in the political thought of the time. The English revolutions of the seventeenth century prompted very different responses from two English political thinkers, Thomas Hobbes and John Locke.

Hobbes  Thomas Hobbes was alarmed by the revolutionary upheavals in England. He wrote *Leviathan*, a work on political thought, to try to deal with the problem of disorder. *Leviathan* was published in 1651.

Hobbes claimed that before society was organized, human life was “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short.” Humans were guided not by reason and moral ideals but by a ruthless struggle for self-preservation.

To save themselves from destroying one another, people made a social contract and agreed to form a state. Hobbes called the state “that great Leviathan to which we owe our peace and defense.” People in the state agreed to be governed by an absolute ruler who possessed unlimited power. Rebellion must be suppressed. To Hobbes, such absolute power was needed to preserve order in society.

Locke  John Locke, who wrote a political work called *Two Treatises of Government*, 1690, viewed the exercise of political power quite differently. He argued against the absolute rule of one person.

Unlike Hobbes, Locke believed that before society was organized, humans lived in a state of equality and freedom rather than a state of war. In this state of nature, humans had certain natural rights—rights with which they were born. These included rights to life, liberty, and property.

Like Hobbes, however, Locke believed that problems existed in the state of nature. People found it difficult to protect their natural rights. For that reason, they agreed to establish a government to ensure the protection of their rights.

The contract between people and government involved mutual obligations. Government would protect the rights of the people, and the people would act reasonably toward government. However, if a government broke the contract—if a monarch, for example, failed to live up to the obligation to protect subjects’ natural rights—the people might form a new government.

To Locke, people meant the landholding aristocracy, not landless masses. Locke was not an advocate of democracy, but his ideas proved important to both Americans and French in the eighteenth century. These ideas were used to support demands for constitutional government, the rule of law, and the protection of rights. Locke’s ideas can be found in the American Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution.

**Reading Check**

According to Hobbes, why was absolute power needed?

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**SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT**

**Checking for Understanding**

1. **Define** Mannerism, baroque, natural rights.


3. **Locate** Madrid, Prague, Vienna, Brussels.

4. **Describe** what *Don Quixote* reveals about the nature of Spanish character.

5. **Summarize** the mutual obligations between people and government as understood by Locke.

**Critical Thinking**

6. **Describe** How did the Elizabethan theater experience provide a full reflection of English society?

7. **Compare and Contrast** Using a Venn diagram, compare and contrast Mannerism and baroque art.

**Analyzing Visuals**

8. **Examine** the photograph of Bernini’s *Throne of Saint Peter* shown on page 231 of your text. How does Bernini’s artistic masterpiece reflect the political and social life of the period in which it was created?

**Writing About History**

9. **Persuasive Writing** In an essay, argue whether Shakespeare is stereotyping in this quote: “Frailty, thy name is woman.” Support your position with quotes from other authors who either corroborate or disagree with Shakespeare.
Using Key Terms
1. Philip II sent a fleet of warships called an ____ to invade England in 1588.
2. Parliament abolished the monarchy and declared England a republic or ____.
3. The ____ hysteria began to end in 1650.
4. The belief that the monarch receives power directly from God is called ____.
5. In ____, elongated figures show suffering and heightened emotions.
6. ____ refers to the political system in which ultimate authority rests with the monarch.
7. ____ artists paired ideals of Renaissance art with sixteenth-century spiritual feelings.
8. The Russian monarch was called a ____.
9. The ____ were Russian nobility defeated by Ivan the Terrible.
10. John Locke believed people had certain —to life, liberty, and property.

Reviewing Key Facts
11. Religion What is the name given to French Calvinists?
12. Government Why is the Edict of Nantes sometimes called the Edict of Tolerance?
13. History Whom did Spain defeat in the Battle of Lepanto in 1571?
14. Geography At the beginning of the seventeenth century, Spain controlled territory on which continents?
15. History When and where was the Thirty Years’ War fought?
16. History After the Thirty Years’ War, which country emerged as the most dominant in Europe?
17. Government On his deathbed, what advice did Louis XIV give to his great-grandson, the future king?
18. Culture What reason for writing did Lope de Vega give those who asked?
19. Culture What is the essential message of Don Quixote by Cervantes?
20. Philosophy According to John Locke, what was the purpose of government?

Critical Thinking
21. Analyzing Baroque art and architecture reflected a search for power. How can a particular style of art be more powerful than another? (Consider the palace at Versailles.)
22. Explaining “Repression breeds rebellion.” Explain how this quote relates to the history of the Netherlands during the reign of Philip II.
23. Compare and Contrast Compare the political thought of John Locke to the American form of government. What would Locke support? What would he not support?
Directions: Choose the best answer to the following question.

All of the following resulted from the English "Glorious Revolution" EXCEPT

F the idea of the divine right of kings.
G the addition of a Bill of Rights to the English constitution.
H the restoration of a monarch in England.
J increased religious freedom for Protestants.

Test-Taking Tip: Key words such as except or not dramatically change the test question. Always read carefully so you do not miss key words.