Crisis and Absolutism in Europe 1550–1715

Section 1 Europe in Crisis: The Wars of Religion
Section 2 Social Crises, War, and Revolution
Section 3 Response to Crisis: Absolutism
Section 4 The World of European Culture

MAKING CONNECTIONS

How does architecture reflect history?

The palace at Versailles, shown in this photo, was home to the kings of France from 1682 until 1790. In seventeenth century Europe, Versailles was a symbol of Louis XIV’s absolute rule. In this chapter, you will learn about crises throughout Europe and the rulers who sought stability through absolute rule.

- What are some famous government buildings that are tourist attractions in the United States? What do they symbolize?
- Compare the symbolism of the palace at Versailles with the symbolism of St. Peter’s Basilica in Rome shown on page 473.

1562 French Wars of Religion begin
1568 Oda Nobunaga seizes Kyōto, Japan
1588 England defeats the Spanish Armada
1605 Akbar expands Mogul rule in India
1618 Start of the Thirty Years’ War
1630 English found Massachusetts Bay Colony
Organizing Make a Three-Pocket Book to organize information about Europe in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and early eighteenth centuries. Store your notes in the appropriate pocket.
Europe in Crisis: The Wars of Religion

GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea

Competition Among Countries

Religious and political conflicts erupted between Protestants and Catholics in many European nations.

Content Vocabulary

- militant (p. 454)
- armada (p. 456)

Academic Vocabulary

- conflict (p. 454)
- policy (p. 455)

People, Places, and Events

- King Philip II (p. 454)
- Netherlands (p. 454)
- William the Silent (p. 455)
- Elizabeth Tudor (p. 455)
- Scotland (p. 456)

- Ireland (p. 456)
- Huguenots (p. 457)
- Henry of Navarre (p. 457)
- Edict of Nantes (p. 457)

Reading Strategy

Comparing and Contrasting

As you read, complete a chart like the one below comparing the characteristics of Spain, England, and France.

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During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, conflicts between Protestants and Catholics in many European nations resulted in wars for religious and political control.

Spain’s Conflicts

MAIN IDEA

King Philip II championed Catholic causes throughout his lands, while England became the leader of Protestant nations of Europe.

HISTORY & YOU

Suppose you won an arm-wrestling contest against someone who seemed much bigger and stronger? Learn how England defeated Spain at sea.

By 1560, Calvinism and Catholicism had become highly militant (combative) religions. They were aggressive in winning converts and in eliminating each other’s authority. Their struggle 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.

Spain’s 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. King Philip II, whose reign extended from 1556 to 1598, ushered in an age of Spanish greatness.

Philip’s first major goal was to consolidate the lands 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.

During the late Middle Ages, Catholic kingdoms in Spain had reconquered Muslim areas there and expelled the Spanish Jews. Driven by this heritage, Spain saw itself as a nation of people chosen by God to save Catholic Christianity from Protestant heretics. The “Most Catholic King,” Philip II championed Catholic causes. His actions led to spectacular victories and defeats. Spain’s leadership in 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 other conflicts.

Resistance from the Netherlands

One of the richest parts of Philip’s empire, the Spanish Netherlands, consisted of 17 provinces (modern Netherlands and Belgium). Philip’s attempts to strengthen his control in this region caused resentment and opposition from the nobles of the
Netherlands. Philip also tried to crush Calvinism in the Netherlands. Violence erupted in 1566. Philip sent ten thousand troops to crush the rebellion.

Philip faced growing resistance from the Dutch in the northern provinces led by William the Silent, the prince of Orange. The struggle dragged on until 1609 when a 12-year truce finally ended the war. The northern provinces began to call themselves the United Provinces of the Netherlands and became the core of the modern Dutch state. In fact, the seventeenth century has often been called the golden age of the Dutch Republic because the United Provinces held center stage as one of Europe’s great powers.

Protestantism in England

Elizabeth Tudor ascended the English throne in 1558. 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. Elizabeth 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 Queen Elizabeth followed a moderate Protestantism that kept most people satisfied.

Elizabeth was also moderate in her foreign policy. She tried to keep Spain and France from becoming too powerful by balancing power. If one nation seemed to be gaining in power, England would support the weaker nation. The queen feared that war would be disastrous for England and for her own rule; however, she could not escape a conflict with Spain.
Defeat of the Spanish Armada

In 1588, Philip II made preparations to send an armada—a fleet of warships—to invade England. A successful invasion of England would mean the overthrow of Protestantism. The fleet that set sail had neither the ships nor the manpower that Philip had planned to send.

The hoped-for victory never came. The armada was battered by the faster English ships and sailed back to Spain by a northern route around Scotland and Ireland where it was pounded by storms.

By the end of Philip’s reign in 1598, Spain was not the great power that it appeared to be. Spain was the most populous empire in the world, but it was bankrupt. Philip II had spent too much on war. His successor spent too much on his court. The armed forces were out of date, and the government was inefficient. Spain continued to play the role of a great power, but the real power in Europe had shifted to England and France.

✓ Reading Check

Explaining What did Philip II hope to accomplish by invading England?

In the mid-1500s, the English supported the Protestant side in religious wars between Protestants and Catholics within France and the Netherlands. Resenting this, Philip II of Spain decided to invade England to overthrow Protestantism and establish Catholic rule there.

The English fleet had clear superiority in gunnery and naval tactics. It dealt the Spanish Armada a terrible blow in the English Channel. The Spanish retreated on a northward route around Scotland without charts or a pilot. There the fleet was battered by storms. Half of the Spanish fleet and three-quarters of the men were lost. After defeating the Spanish Armada, England remained Protestant and began to create a world empire.

The defeat of the Spanish Armada:

- Guaranteed that England would remain a Protestant country
- Signaled a gradual shift in power from Spain to England and France

DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA

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Geography SKILLS

1. Location Use the map to estimate the distance covered by the Spanish retreat.
2. Region Why was the defeat of the Spanish Armada a turning point?
The French Wars of Religion

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

HISTORY & YOU What would you do if some classmates started a trend that you didn’t like? Learn how Catholic leaders in France protested the spread of Protestantism.

Of the sixteenth-century religious wars, none was more shattering than the French civil wars known as the French Wars of Religion (1562–1598). Religious conflict was at the center of these wars. The French kings persecuted Protestants, but the persecution did little to stop the spread of Protestantism.

Huguenots

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. This made the Huguenots a powerful political threat to the Crown.

An extreme Catholic party—known as the ultra-Catholics—strongly opposed the Huguenots. Having the loyalty of parts of northern and northwestern France, they could pay for and recruit large armies.

Religion was the most important issue, but other factors played a role in the French civil wars. Towns and provinces were willing to assist the nobles in weakening the growing power of the French monarchy.

Henry IV and the Edict of Nantes

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

To solve the religious problem, Henry IV issued the Edict of Nantes in 1598. The edict recognized Catholicism as the official religion of France. 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.
Severe economic and social crises plagued Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The Holy Roman Empire was devastated, and France emerged as the dominant nation in Europe. Conflicts between the kings of England and its parliament led to a civil war, an execution of a king, and a revolution. From such crises, constitutional monarchy emerged.

Crisis in Europe

Population decline in Europe and the hysteria of witchcraft trials contributed to economic and social problems in seventeenth-century Europe.

HISTORY & YOU

What if the number of students in your school declined by half this year? Learn how Europeans responded to economic and social problems.

From 1560 to 1650, Europe witnessed severe economic and social crises. One major economic problem was inflation, or rising prices. A growing population in the sixteenth century increased the demand for land and food and drove up prices for both.

Economic and Social Crises

By 1600, an economic slowdow had begun in parts of Europe. Spain’s economy, grown dependent on imported silver, was failing by the 1640s. The mines were producing less silver. Fleets were subject to pirate attacks. Also, 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, the 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.

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...
Witchcraft Hysteria

Witchcraft Hysteria 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. For instance, many said that they had sworn allegiance to the devil and attended sabbats, nightly gatherings where they feasted and danced. Then others admitted to casting evil spells.

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**

**Explaining** What caused a decline in witchcraft trials?

The *Malleus Maleficarum*, or the Hammer of the Witches, of 1486 was a guide for prosecuting witches during the Inquisition. It influenced witch trials in Europe for more than 200 years. Here are some excerpts:

*On the classification of witches:*

“The category in which women of this sort are to be ranked is called the category of Pythons, persons in or by whom the devil either speaks or performs some astonishing operation. . . .”

*On extracting a confession:*

“The method of beginning an examination by torture is as follows: The jailers . . . strip the prisoner. This stripping is lest some means of witchcraft may have been sewed into the clothing—such as often, taught by the Devil, they prepare from the bodies of unbaptized [murdered] infants . . . the judge . . . tries to persuade the prisoner to confess the truth freely; but, if [the witch] will not confess, he bids attendants make the prisoner fast to . . . some . . . implement of torture.”

This painting is entitled *Witches’ Sabbath: The Conjurers* by Goya (1746–1828).

1. **Describing** According to the excerpts, who do witches serve?  
2. **Comparing** Describe similarities between witchcraft trials and the Inquisition.

Giraudon/Bridgeman Art Library
The Thirty Years’ War

**MAIN IDEA**

Started over religious conflicts, the Thirty Years’ War was sustained by political conflicts.

**HISTORY & YOU**

What if fierce arguments destroyed your best friendship? Learn what caused thirty years of warfare.

Religious disputes continued in Germany after the Peace of Augsburg in 1555. One reason for the disputes was that the peace settlement had not recognized Calvinism. By the 1600s, Calvinism had spread through Europe.

**Causes of the War**

Religion played an important role in the outbreak of the Thirty Years’ War, called the “last of the religious wars.” However, political and territorial motives were also evident. Beginning in 1618 in the Holy Roman Empire, the war first involved the struggle between Catholic forces, led by the Hapsburg Holy Roman emperors, and Protestant (primarily Calvinist) nobles in

Bohemia. As Denmark, Sweden, France, and Spain entered the war, the conflict became more political. Especially important was the struggle between France and Spain and the Holy Roman Empire for European leadership.

**Effects of the War**

All major European powers except England became involved in the Thirty Years’ War. For 30 years Germany was plundered and destroyed. The Peace of Westphalia officially ended the war in Germany in 1648.

The Peace of Westphalia divided the more than three hundred states of the Holy Roman Empire into independent states and gave them power to determine their own religion and to conduct their 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: What three major powers struggled for European leadership during the Thirty Years’ War?
Revolutions in England

**Main Idea**
Civil war raged over what roles the king and Parliament should have in governing England.

**History & You**
What if your class had to decide who should be the leader of an important school project? Learn how the struggle for power in England was resolved.

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 that he received his power from God and was responsible only to God. This is called the divine right of Kings. 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. While members of the Church of England, the Puritans 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. Charles realized that the petition would put limits on the king’s power.

Charles also tried to impose more ritual on the Church of England. When he tried to force Puritans to accept this policy, thousands chose to go to America. Thus the religious struggles of the Reformation in England influenced American history.

**Civil War and 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 men believed they were doing battle for God. As Cromwell wrote, “This is none other but the hand of God; and to Him alone belongs the glory.” Some credit is due to Cromwell. His soldiers were well disciplined and trained in the new military tactics of the seventeenth century.

The victorious New Model Army lost no time in taking control. Cromwell purged Parliament of any members who had not supported him. What was left—the so-called Rump Parliament—had Charles I executed on January 30, 1649. The execution of the king horrified much of Europe. Parliament next abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords and declared England a republic, or commonwealth.

Cromwell found it difficult to work with the Rump Parliament and finally dispersed it by force. As the members of Parliament departed, he shouted, “It is you that have forced me to do this, for I have sought the Lord night and day that He would slay me rather than put upon me the doing of this work.” After destroying the roles of both king and Parliament, Cromwell set up a military dictatorship.
The Restoration

Cromwell ruled until his death in 1658. George Monk, one of Cromwell’s leading generals, realized that under any of Cromwell’s successors the country would be torn apart. With his army, Monk created a situation favorable to restoring the monarchy in the person of Charles II, the son of Charles I. Charles II had lived years of exile during Cromwell’s rule. With the return of the monarchy in 1660, England’s time of troubles seemed at an end.

After the restoration of the Stuart monarchy, known as the Restoration period, Parliament kept much of the power it had gained earlier and continued to play an important role. One of its actions was to pass laws restoring the Church of England as the state religion and restricting some rights of Catholics and Puritans.

Resisting attempts by his mother and sister to convert to Catholicism, Charles II remained openly loyal to the Protestant faith. He was, however, sympathetic to Catholicism. Parliament was suspicious about his Catholic leanings, especially when Charles suspended the laws that Parliament had passed against Catholics and Puritans. Parliament forced the king to back down on his action.

Charles’s brother James did not hide the fact that he was a Catholic. Complying with his brother’s wishes, James agreed to raise his two daughters in the Protestant faith. Rather than take an anti-Catholic oath, James resigned from all of his offices. His second marriage to a Catholic gave Parliament even more concern.

When Charles died, leaving no heirs to the throne, James II became king in 1685. James was an open and devout Catholic. Religion was once more a cause of conflict between king and Parliament. James named Catholics to high positions in the government, army, navy, and universities.

Parliament objected to James’s policies but stopped short of rebellion. Members knew that James was an old man. His Protestant daughters Mary and Anne, born to his first wife, would succeed him.

People in History

Charles I
1600–1649 King of England

How did King Charles I want to be remembered after his death?

“Hurt not the ax, that may hurt me,” the condemned man on the scaffold told the executioner, pleading for a quick, painless death. The condemned man was Charles I, King of England. As he spoke the final words of his reign and his life, he asked those gathered to witness his beheading to remember him as “an honest man and a good king.” After a reign of 24 years, during which he frequently clashed with Parliament, his forces were defeated and he was condemned to death. With his death on January 30, 1649, Parliament sent the world a message about the “divine right” of kings.

Oliver Cromwell
1599–1658 English Revolutionary

After visiting the coffin of executed King Charles I, Oliver Cromwell called it a “cruel necessity.” More than any other individual, Cromwell was responsible for that “necessity.” As a member of Parliament with no military experience in 1640, he became the most capable commander in the civil war between the king and Parliament. As Lord Protector of England, Ireland, and Scotland following Charles’ execution, Cromwell quarreled with Parliament himself and ruled largely without it for eight years. History rates him an enigma, whose rule was both enlightened and cruel. Soon after the monarchy was restored in 1660, Cromwell’s body was exhumed and hung in London’s Tyburn Square.

What did Cromwell call the death of King Charles I?
However, in 1688, James and his second wife, a Catholic, had a son. Now, the possibility of a Catholic monarchy loomed large.

A Glorious Revolution

A group of English nobles invited the Dutch leader, William of Orange, to invade England. In their invitation, the nobles informed William that most people throughout the kingdom wanted a change. The invitation put William and his wife Mary, the daughter of James II, in a difficult position. Based on Mary’s relationship to James, it would be appalling to rise up against her father, the king of England. However, William, a foe of France’s Catholic king Louis XIV, welcomed this opportunity to fight France with England’s resources.

William began making preparations to invade England in early 1688. He made his plans as secretly as possible and thus kept them largely hidden from James. Not until early October did James realize William’s intentions. In November 1688, William’s forces landed at Torbay and began their march toward London. James responded by sending forward his army. Following the desertion of many of his soldiers and the defection of his daughter Anne and her husband, James retreated to London. There he made plans for his wife and son to flee to France where James later joined them.

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 to levy taxes. It also stated that standing armies could be raised only with Parliament’s consent. Under the Bill of Rights, it was 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 by the grace of God. Parliament had asserted its right to be part of the English government.

Reading Check  Describing  Trace the sequence of events that led to the English Bill of Rights.
GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea

Competition Among Countries

France became the greatest power of the seventeenth century. Prussia, Austria, and Russia also emerged as great European powers.

Content Vocabulary
• absolutism (p. 464)
• czar (p. 468)
• boyars (p. 468)

Academic Vocabulary
• stability (p. 464)
• authority (p. 464)

People and Places
• Louis XIV (p. 464)
• Cardinal Richelieu (p. 464)
• Prussia (p. 467)
• Austria (p. 467)
• Frederick William the Great Elector (p. 467)
• Ivan IV (p. 468)
• Michael Romanov (p. 468)
• Peter the Great (p. 469)
• St. Petersburg (p. 469)

Reading Strategy
Summarizing Information As you read, complete a chart like the one below summarizing the accomplishments of Peter the Great.

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<th>Reforms</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Wars</th>
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Response to Crisis: Absolutism

Absolute monarchs reigned in several European nations during the seventeenth century. Louis XIV, considered the best example of absolute monarchy, ruled France with an extravagant lifestyle and waged many military campaigns. Meanwhile, Prussia, Austria, and Russia emerged as great European powers under their monarchs’ leadership.

France under Louis XIV

Louis XIV was an absolute monarch whose rule was admired and imitated throughout Europe.

HISTORY & YOU What would happen if you used all the money in your family’s bank account to throw a party? Learn how King Louis XIV spent his country’s wealth.

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. This means that rulers received their power from God and were responsible to no one except God. They had the ability to make laws, levy taxes, administer justice, control officials, and determine foreign policy.

The reign of Louis XIV has long been regarded as the best example 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 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 governments fought to avoid the breakdown of the state. 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 monarchy’s power. Because the Huguenots were seen as a threat to the king, Richelieu took away their political and military rights. He did preserve their religious rights. Richelieu also set up a network of spies to uncover plots by nobles. He then crushed the conspiracies and executed the conspirators.
Louis XIV and Absolutism

In his Political Treatise, Jacques-Benigne Bossuet, popular orator during the time of Louis XIV, explained his perception of the divine right of kings:

“Rulers . . . act as the ministers of God and as his lieutenants on earth. It is through them that God exercises his empire.

But kings, although their power comes from on high . . . should not regard themselves as masters of that power to use it at their pleasure . . . they must employ it with fear and self-restraint, as a thing coming from God and of which God will demand an account.

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 hope to escape him, and, finally, the only protection of individuals against the public authority should be their innocence.”

The painting by Joseph Werner II (1637–1710) depicts Louis XIV as Apollo, the Greek god of light.

1. **Explaining** Why did Louis XIV wish to be viewed as the mythological god Apollo?

2. **Speculating** Based on his rule, how might Louis XIV’s views of absolutism have differed from those of Jacques-Benigne Bossuet?

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. Mazarin crushed a revolt led by nobles. Many French people concluded that the best hope for stability in the future 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:

**Primary Source**

“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.”
Well aware of her son’s love of fun and games and his affairs with the maids, Louis’s mother laughed at these words. Louis was serious, however. He established and kept to a strict routine. He also fostered the myth of himself as the Sun King—the source of light for all of his people.

**Government and Religion**

One key to Louis’s power was his control of the central policy-making machinery of government. The royal court that Louis established at Versailles (vuh•SY) served three purposes. It was the personal household of the king. In addition, the chief offices of the state were located there. 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. Instead, Louis removed them from the royal council. It was the king’s chief administrative body, which supervised the government. At the same time, Louis enticed the nobles and royal princes to come to his court, where he kept them busy with court life and out of politics.

Louis’s government ministers were to obey his every wish. Said Louis, “I had no intention of sharing my authority with them.” Thus, Louis had complete authority over the traditional areas of royal power: foreign policy, the church, and taxes.

Although Louis had absolute power over nationwide policy making, his power was limited at the local level. Nobles, local officials, and town councils had more influence than the king in the daily operation of local governments. As a result, the king bribed important people in the provinces to see that his policies were carried out.

Desiring to maintain religious harmony as part of the monarchical power in France, Louis pursued 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. As many as two hundred thousand Huguenots fled to England, the United Provinces, and the German states.

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**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 France’s wealth and power by following 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.

To increase his royal power, Louis developed a standing army numbering four hundred thousand in time of war. He wished to achieve the military glory befitting the Sun King and ensure that his Bourbon dynasty dominated Europe.

To achieve his goals, Louis waged four wars between 1667 and 1713. Many nations formed coalitions to prevent him from dominating Europe. Through his wars, Louis added some territory and set up a member of his own dynasty on the throne of Spain.

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**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, his successor probably did not remember this advice; Louis’s great-grandson was only five years old.

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**Reading Check**

Describing How did Louis XIV maintain absolute power?
Absolutism in Central and Eastern Europe

**MAIN IDEA** Prussia and Austria emerged as great European powers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

**HISTORY & YOU** What if your neighborhood had its own government? Learn about the emergence of two new states in Europe.

After the Thirty Years’ War, there were over three hundred German states. Of these, **Prussia** and **Austria** emerged in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries as two 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, or 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 emperors in the Holy Roman Empire. 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.

1. **Movement** What did Austria gain by expanding south?
2. **Location** What war took place that allowed some of the expansion shown on these maps?

**Maps in Motion** See StudentWorks™ Plus or glencoe.com.

**EXPANSION OF PRUSSIA AND AUSTRIA TO 1720**

**Expansion of Prussia to 1720**

- East Prussia and possessions, 1618
- Territorial growth, 1618-1688
- Territorial growth, 1688-1713

**Expansion of Austria to 1720**

- Austrian Hapsburg lands, 1525
- Territorial growth, 1526
- Territorial growth, 1648-1699
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 at Vienna in 1683 (see Chapter 15), 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.

**Reading Check**

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

**Peter The Great**

**MAIN IDEA** Russia emerged as a great power under Peter the Great.

**HISTORY & YOU** What if you discovered a great new way to save energy? Learn about the modernization of Russia.

A new Russian state emerged in the fifteenth century under 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, or 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 ended in 1598, a period of anarchy known as the Time of Troubles followed. This period ended when the zemsky sobor, or national assembly, chose Michael Romanov as the new czar in 1613.

**EXPANSION OF RUSSIA, 1505–1725**

**Two-Point Equidistant projection**

1. **Human-Environment Interaction** What did Russia gain by acquiring lands on the Baltic coast?

2. **Location** Why are most cities in eastern Russia located near or south of 60° N latitude?

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

After becoming czar, Peter visited the West. Determined to westernize, or Europeanize, Russia, he was especially eager to borrow European technology. Only this kind of modernization could turn the army and navy into what he needed to make Russia a great power. By Peter’s death in 1725, Russia was a great military power and 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 soldiers. Peter also formed the first Russian navy.

To impose the rule of the central government more effectively, Peter divided Russia into provinces. He hoped to create a “police state,” a well-ordered community governed by law. However, few bureaucrats shared his concept of honest service and duty to the state. Peter’s personality created an atmosphere of fear instead of a sense of civic duty. 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 persons at the same time.

**Cultural Changes and a New Capital**

After visiting 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. He insisted that Russian men shave their beards and shorten their coats. Upper-class women could remove their traditional face-covering veils and move out into society. Both sexes could mix for conversation and dancing at gatherings.

The object of Peter’s domestic reforms was to make Russia into a great state and military power and to “open a window to the West,” meaning a port with ready access to Europe. This could be achieved only on the Baltic Sea, which Sweden, the most important power in northern Europe, controlled. Peter acquired the lands he sought after a long war with Sweden. On the Baltic in 1703, Peter began construction of a new city, St. Petersburg, his window to the West. Finished during Peter’s lifetime, St. Petersburg remained the Russian capital until 1918.

**Reading Check** Evaluating Why was it so important that Peter the Great have a seaport on the Baltic?
A Palace Fit for the Sun King

Versailles was at the center of court life during the reign of Louis XIV. Versailles was transformed from a hunting lodge by the finest architects and artists of the seventeenth century. Its extensive grounds became a showcase of the French court’s splendor and wealth—with every detail in the immense and opulent palace a reflection of the Sun King’s absolute power.

A Day at Versailles

In their letters to friends, ladies of the court provided intimate details of daily life at Versailles. Elisabeth Charlotte of Bavaria described to the Duchess of Hanover a day she spent at Versailles in 1676: “... I have been to Versailles where we were busy the entire day. From morning until three o’clock in the afternoon we went hunting. On our return from the chase we changed our dresses and went upstairs to the gaming, where we stayed until seven o’clock in the evening. Then we went to the play, which did not end until half-past ten o’clock. After the play came supper, followed by a ball, which usually lasted until three o’clock in the morning, and only then could we go to bed.”
Hoping to obtain an office, title, or pension from Louis XIV, thousands of people—as many as 5,000 in winter—lived at Versailles. They took part in the strict daily routines of court life, all of which revolved around the king, from the time he woke in the morning to the time he went to bed at night. To leave Versailles, people had to ask the king’s permission, which he did not like to grant. For many, the expense of life at Versailles led to debt and ruin. People risked such ruin, however, to earn the king’s attention and favor. One of the highest honors anyone could hope for at Versailles was to hold the candle while the king’s hair was combed at night before bed.

**Analyzing Visuals**

1. **Comparing** How did people gain political influence in seventeenth-century France? How about today?
2. **Predicting** How do you think people today would respond to government spending of large sums of money on elaborate building projects or entertainments? Why?
The religious and political conflicts of seventeenth-century Europe were reflected in the art, literature, and political thought of the time. Art produced during the movements of Mannerism and the baroque aroused the emotions, and the literature spoke of the human condition. Political thinkers debated concerns about power and order in their works.

Art after the Renaissance

The artistic movements of Mannerism and the baroque began in Italy and reflected the spiritual perceptions of the time.

HISTORY & YOU  What art form would you use to create something that reflects the mood of the current decade? Learn how Mannerism depicted the tensions in society after the Renaissance.

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 more 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 studied the elements of Renaissance painting in Venice. He also wrote many works on painting. From Venice, El Greco moved to Rome. His career as a painter stalled there possibly because he had criticized Michelangelo’s abilities as a painter. When he moved to Spain, El Greco met with success.

In El Greco’s paintings, the figures are elongated or contorted and he sometimes used unusual shades of yellow and green against an eerie background of stormy grays. The mood of his works reflects well the tensions created by the religious upheavals of the Reformation.
The Baroque Period

Mannerism was eventually replaced by a new movement—the baroque. This movement began in Italy at the end of the sixteenth century and eventually spread to the rest of Europe and Latin America. It was eagerly adopted by the Catholic reform movement as shown in the richly detailed 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 and the spiritual feelings of the sixteenth-century religious revival. In large part, though, baroque art and architecture reflected a search for power. Baroque churches and palaces were magnificent and richly detailed. Kings and princes wanted others 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. It is considered by many to be Bernini’s crowning achievement in Saint Peter’s Basilica. 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 down and toward the spectator.

The baroque painting style was known for its use of dramatic effects to arouse the emotions as shown in the work of another important Italian artist of the baroque period, Caravaggio. Similar to other baroque painters, Caravaggio used dramatic lighting to heighten emotions, to focus details, and to isolate the figures in his paintings. His work placed an emphasis on everyday experience. He shocked some of his patrons by depicting religious figures as common people in everyday settings.

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. She was known internationally in her day as a portrait painter, but her fame now rests on a series of pictures of Old Testament heroines.

The baroque style of art did not just flourish in Italy. Peter Paul Rubens embodies the baroque movement in Flanders (the Spanish Netherlands), where he worked most of his life. A scholar and diplomat as well as an artist, Rubens used his classical education and connections with noble patrons in Italy, Spain, England, France, and Flanders to paint a variety of genres. He is best known for his depictions of the human form in action. These images are lavish and extravagant, much like the court life he experienced during the baroque period.

**Golden Age of Literature**

**Main Idea**

Shakespeare and Lope de Vega were prolific writers of dramas and comedies that reflected the human condition.

**HISTORY & YOU**

Are there any contemporary artists or entertainers who could compare to William Shakespeare? Learn about the great writers in England and Spain.

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, 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 wrote 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. A master of the English language, he also had a keen insight into human psychology. In his tragedies and his comedies, Shakespeare showed a remarkable understanding of the human condition.
Spain’s Cervantes and Vega

One of the crowning achievements of the golden age of Spanish literature was the work of **Miguel de Cervantes** (sühr•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. The readers of *Don Quixote* are left with the conviction that both visionary dreams and the hard work of reality are necessary to the human condition.

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 and most current 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 to this day. Vega’s plays are thought to be 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 the sake of fame, “undeceive him and tell him that I wrote them for money.”

✓ Reading Check  Describing When was the “golden age” of Spanish literature? Who set the standard for playwrights?

Political Thought

MAIN IDEA  Hobbs and Locke wrote very different books about political thought in response to the English revolutions.

HISTORY & YOU  What if you were asked to debate whether or not to wear school uniforms? Learn about England’s influential political thinkers.

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 viewed the exercise of political power quite differently. His *Two Treatises on Government*, written in 1679 and 1680 but too radical and too dangerous to be published then, first appeared in 1690. In his treatises, especially the second one, Locke argued against the absolute rule of one person. He described how governments are formed and what justifies them.

Unlike Hobbes, Locke believed that before society was organized, humans lived in a state of equality and freedom rather than in a state of war. In this state of nature, no one was necessarily sovereign over anyone else. Locke believed that all 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 and to judge those who violated them.

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—for example, if a monarch failed to protect citizens’ natural rights—the people would be within their rights to remove or alter the government since it betrayed their trust. If the people chose to remove the government, then they could form a new one.

To Locke, “people” meant the landholding aristocracy, not landless masses. Locke was not an advocate of democracy, but his ideas proved important to both the Americans and the 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 both the American Declaration of Independence and the United States Constitution.
**POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, AND SOCIAL CRISES in Europe**

- Civil war arose in England from power struggles between King Charles I and Parliament.
- English Protestant forces triumphed in the civil war and tried and executed King Charles I.
- Population growth, famine, and plague contributed to social tensions throughout Europe.
- The conflicts in seventeenth-century Europe were reflected in art, literature, and political works.

**RELIGIOUS CONFLICTS in Europe**

- Religious conflicts between Protestants and Catholics were widespread.
- French kings persecuted Protestants.
- Philip II of Spain tried to crush Calvinism.
- The Thirty Years’ War was triggered by religious and political conflicts.

**ABSOLUTISM as a Response to Crises**

- Frederick William of Prussia used the General War Commissariat to maintain his power.
- The Austrian monarchy tried but failed to achieve a centralized, absolutist state.
- The absolute rule of Louis XIV of France influenced monarchs throughout Europe.
- Russia emerged as a great power under the absolute rule of Peter the Great.
STANDARDIZED TEST PRACTICE

TEST-TAKING TIP
If you do not know the answer to a question, eliminate any answer choices that you know are incorrect. Then choose the best answer from the remaining choices.

Reviewing Vocabulary
Directions: Choose the word or words that best complete the sentence.

1. The Stuart rulers of England believed in the ______ right of kings.
   A social
   B divine
   C supreme
   D property

2. John Locke called the rights to life, liberty, and property ______ rights.
   A inalienable
   B universal
   C rational
   D natural

3. Philip II of Spain sent a fleet of warships, or ______, to invade England.
   A armada
   B brigade
   C regiment
   D battalion

4. The term ______ is another name for a republic.
   A nation
   B democracy
   C commonwealth
   D monarchy

Reviewing Main Ideas
Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

Section 1 (pp. 458–461)
5. Which monarch was called the “Most Catholic King?”
   A Louis XIV
   B Philip II
   C Elizabeth Tudor
   D James I

6. Who were the French Protestants influenced by John Calvin?
   A Philosophes
   B Methodists
   C Puritans
   D Huguenots

Section 2 (pp. 462–467)
7. Which act brought an end to the Holy Roman Empire as a political entity?
   A the Edict of Nantes
   B the Peace of Westphalia
   C the Treaty of Versailles
   D the Toleration Act

8. What did the struggle between King Charles I and Parliament to govern England result in?
   A the English Revolution
   B the American Revolution
   C the Thirty Years’ War
   D the Seven Years’ War

Need Extra Help?
If You Missed Questions . . .  1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8
Go to Page . . .       461  477  456  461  454  457  460  461
9. In 1689, what laid the foundation for a limited, or constitutional, monarchy in England?
   A the Edict of Nantes
   B the Toleration Act
   C the Bill of Rights
   D the Stamp Act

Section 3 (pp. 468–473)

10. In which system does a ruler hold total power?
   A absolutism
   B republicanism
   C enlightened absolutism
   D deism

11. Who was one of the most prominent Russian rulers in the Romanov dynasty?
   A Frederick William the Great Elector
   B Philip II
   C Ivan IV
   D Peter the Great

Section 4 (pp. 476–481)

12. Which movement replaced the artistic Renaissance?
   A baroque
   B Puritanism
   C Mannerism
   D rococo

13. Elizabethan playwrights such as William Shakespeare generally wrote their plays for what social group?
   A nobles
   B all classes
   C merchants
   D lower classes

Critical Thinking

Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

14. How did Louis XIV control the nobles and princes?
   A He kept them busy with court life.
   B He shared his power with them.
   C He imprisoned them.
   D He made them join his military.

Base your answer to questions 15 and 16 on the map below.

15. Which river flows nearest to Vienna?
   A Baltic
   B Elbe
   C Rhine
   D Danube

16. Which city is located closest to the White Mountain?
   A Prague
   B Augsburg
   C Stralsund
   D Magdeburg

Need Extra Help?

If You Missed Questions . . .

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16. What does the map tell you about the location of towns that were sacked or plundered?
   A. They were located near rivers.
   B. They were located in the northern and central parts of the Holy Roman Empire.
   C. They were located west of the Elbe River.
   D. They were located in the southern part of the Holy Roman Empire.

17. Which of the following was an important development in sixteenth-century European culture?
   A. Mannerism replaced the baroque movement.
   B. El Greco completed St. Peter’s Basilica.
   C. Miguel de Cervantes wrote Don Quixote.
   D. Lope de Vega wrote Leviathan.

18. What other cultural change should be added to the chart?
   A. commissioned a painting from El Greco
   B. insisted that men shave their beards
   C. prohibited Western customs
   D. allowed all women to remove their veils

19. To whom does Elizabeth feel accountable?

20. Explain how Louis XIV of France might have disagreed with Elizabeth about expending properties for the good of her subjects.

21. During their rule, monarchs can either strengthen or weaken their countries. Which monarch described in this chapter do you most and least admire for how he or she governed? Support your answer with examples of actions taken by each monarch.