Absolute Monarchs in Europe, 1500–1800

The end of the Middle Ages saw the development of more powerful European monarchies. As feudalism declined, stronger national kingdoms emerged under the control of absolute rulers.

The map at the right shows European states in the mid-17th century. Use the map to help you answer the questions below.

1. What two branches of Bourbon rule existed in 1650?
2. What lands did the Spanish Bourbons control?
3. Who were the rulers of Austria?
4. How can you tell that the Holy Roman Empire was in decline?

For more information about European monarchs . . .

In 1703, Peter the Great ordered the city of St. Petersburg to be built upon a swamp.

The Spanish painter Diego Velázquez painted this portrait of his enslaved servant, Juan de Pareja, in 1650. Velázquez taught Pareja to be a painter and granted him his freedom, also in 1650. The elegant lace collar shows that Pareja was of middle-class status.

1533 Ivan the Terrible assumes the throne of Russia.
1579 Netherlands declares independence from Spain.
You are the monarch of a European nation. After a long struggle—during which your life was in danger—you have come into power. Now that you have the throne, you want to be sure no one threatens you again. In addition, you want everyone to believe that you are the greatest ruler in Europe. You decide to build a palace that will impress both your subjects and visitors to your kingdom.

The workers in this painting are building a 2,000-room palace for Louis XIV of France. The royal court will live there.

Instead of defensive walls and moats, elegant gardens and lawns will surround the palace. This is to impress visitors, especially rival monarchs and statesmen.

In the foreground, workers move champagne-colored stones for the palace walls. The king chose these stones for their beauty.

EXAMINING the Issues

• What will be your palace’s main function: as a fortress, the seat of government, housing for the court, or a place to entertain visitors?

• What qualities do you want people to associate with your rule: military strength, wealth, political power, cultural brilliance?

• How can a palace demonstrate the qualities that you have decided are important? What features should the palace have?

As a class, discuss these questions. You may want to refer back to other royal building projects that you have studied. Some examples are the hanging gardens in Babylon, the castles in feudal Europe, and Great Zimbabwe in Africa.

As you read about absolute monarchs in Europe, notice their building projects. Especially note the projects of Philip II of Spain, Louis XIV of France, and Peter the Great of Russia.
From 1520 to 1566, Suleiman I exercised great power as sultan of the Ottoman Empire. A European monarch of the same period—Charles V—came close to matching Suleiman’s power. As the Hapsburg king, Charles inherited Spain, Spain’s American colonies, parts of Italy, and lands in Austria and the Netherlands. As the elected Holy Roman emperor, he ruled much of Germany. It was the first time since Charlemagne that a European ruler controlled so much territory.

Spain’s Powerful Empire

A devout Catholic, Charles not only fought Muslims but also opposed Lutherans. In 1555, he unwillingly agreed to the Peace of Augsburg. It allowed German princes to choose the religion for their territory. The following year, Charles V divided his immense empire and retired to a monastery. To his brother Ferdinand, he left Austria and the Holy Roman Empire. His son, Philip II, inherited Spain, the Spanish Netherlands, and the American colonies.

Philip II’s Empire

Philip was shy, serious, and—like his father—deeply religious. However, he could be aggressive for the sake of his empire. In 1580, the king of Portugal died without an heir. Because Philip was the king’s nephew, he seized the Portuguese kingdom. Counting Portuguese strongholds in Africa, India, and the East Indies, he now had an empire that circled the globe.

Philip’s empire provided him with incredible wealth. By 1600, American mines had supplied Spain with an estimated 339,000 pounds of gold. Between 1550 and 1650, roughly 16,000 tons of silver bullion were unloaded from Spanish galleons. The king of Spain claimed between a fourth and a fifth of every shipload of treasure as his royal share. With this wealth, Spain was able to support a large standing army of 50,000 soldiers.

Defender of Catholicism

When Philip took power, Europe was experiencing religious wars, caused by the Reformation. However, religious conflict was not new to Spain. The Reconquista—the campaign to drive Muslims from Spain—had been completed only 64 years before. In addition, Philip’s great-grandparents Isabella and Ferdinand had used the Inquisition to investigate suspected heretics.

Philip saw himself as part of this tradition. He believed it was his duty to defend Catholicism against the Muslims of the Ottoman Empire and the Protestants of Europe. In 1571 the pope called on all Catholic princes to take up arms against the mounting power of the Ottoman Empire. Philip responded like a true crusader. Two hundred and fifty Spanish and Venetian ships defeated a large Ottoman fleet in

Vocabulary

bullion: gold or silver in the form of solid bars.

TERMS & NAMES

- Philip II
- absolute monarch
- divine right

MAIN IDEA

During a time of religious and economic instability, Philip II ruled Spain with a strong hand.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW

When faced with crises, many heads of government take on additional economic or political powers.

HISTORYMAKERS

Philip II of Spain

1527–1598

The most powerful ruler in Europe, Philip was also the hardest working. He demanded reports, reports, and more reports from his advisers. Then, in his tiny office, he would agonize over decisions. Often he could not bring himself to choose one policy over another. Then the government of Spain would grind to a halt.

Yet Philip would not allow anyone to help him. When his father was still emperor, he told Philip not to trust his advisers completely. Perhaps Philip followed his father’s advice too closely. Deeply suspicious, he trusted no one for long. As his own court historian wrote, “His smile and his dagger were very close.”

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a fierce battle near Lepanto. In 1588, Philip launched the Spanish Armada in an attempt to punish Protestant England. However, his fleet was defeated.

Although this setback weakened Spain seriously, its wealth gave it the appearance of strength for a while longer. Philip's gray granite palace, the Escorial, had massive walls and huge gates that demonstrated his power. The Escorial also reflected Philip's faith. Within its walls stood a monastery as well as a palace.

Golden Age of Spanish Art Spain's great wealth did more than support navies and build palaces. It also allowed monarchs and nobles to become patrons of artists. During the 16th and 17th centuries, Spain experienced a golden age in the arts. The works of two great painters show both the faith and the pride of Spain during this period.

Born in Crete, El Greco (GREHK•oh) spent much of his adult life in Spain. His real name was Domenikos Theotokopoulos, but Spaniards called him El Greco, meaning "the Greek." El Greco's art often puzzled the people of his time. He chose brilliant, sometimes clashing colors, distorted the human figure, and expressed emotion symbolically in his paintings. Although unusual, El Greco's techniques showed the deep Catholic faith of Spain. He painted saints and martyrs as huge, long-limbed figures that have a supernatural air.

The paintings of Diego Velázquez (vuh•LAHS•kehs), on the other hand, showed the pride of Spain's monarchy. Velázquez, who painted 50 years after El Greco, was the court painter to Philip IV of Spain. He is best known for his portraits of the royal family and scenes of court life. Like El Greco, he was noted for using rich colors. (See his painting of Juan de Pareja on page 511.)

Don Quixote The publication of Don Quixote de la Mancha in 1605 is often called the birth of the modern European novel. In this book, Miguel de Cervantes (suhr•VAN•teez) wrote about a poor Spanish nobleman. This nobleman went a little crazy after reading too many books about heroic knights. Hoping to "right every manner of wrong," Don Quixote rode forth in a rusty suit of armor, mounted on a feeble nag. At one point he mistook some windmills for giants:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
He rushed with [his horse's] utmost speed upon the first windmill he could come at, and, running his lance into the sail, the wind whirled about with such swiftness, that the rapidity of such motion presently broke the lance into shivers, and hurled away both knight and horse along with it, till down he fell, rolling a good way off into the field.

MIGUEL DE CERVANTES, Don Quixote de la Mancha

Some critics believe that Cervantes was mocking chivalry, the knightly code of the Middle Ages. Others maintain that the book is about an idealistic person who longs for the romantic past because he is frustrated with his materialistic world.

Problems Weaken the Spanish Empire

Certainly, the age in which Cervantes wrote was a materialistic one. The gold and silver coming from the Americas made Spain temporarily wealthy. However, such treasure helped to cause long-term economic problems.
Inflation and Taxes  One of these problems was severe inflation, which had two causes. First, Spain’s population had been growing. As more people demanded food and other goods, merchants were able to raise prices. Second, as silver bullion flooded the market, its value dropped. It took increased amounts of silver to buy things.

Spain’s economic decline also had other causes. When Spain expelled the Jews and Moors (Muslims) around 1500, it lost many valuable artisans and businesspeople. In addition, Spain’s nobles did not have to pay taxes. The tax burden fell on the lower classes. That burden prevented them from accumulating enough wealth to start their own businesses. Therefore, Spain never developed a middle class.

Making Spain’s Enemies Rich  Guilds that had emerged in the Middle Ages still dominated business in Spain. Such guilds used old-fashioned methods. This made Spanish cloth and manufactured goods more expensive than those made elsewhere. As a result, Spaniards bought much of what they needed from France, England, and the Netherlands. Spain’s great wealth flowed into the pockets of foreigners, who were mostly Spain’s enemies.

To finance their wars, Spanish kings borrowed money from German and Italian bankers. When shiploads of silver came in, the money was sent abroad to repay debts. The economy was so feeble that Philip had to declare the Spanish state bankrupt three times.

The Dutch Revolt  In the Spanish Netherlands, Philip had to maintain an army to keep his subjects under control. The Dutch had little in common with their Spanish rulers. While Spain was Catholic, the Netherlands had many Calvinist congregations. Also, Spain had a sluggish economy, while the Dutch were involved in trade and had a prosperous middle class.

Philip raised taxes in the Netherlands and took steps to crush Protestantism. In response, in 1566, angry Protestant mobs swept through Catholic churches. They destroyed religious paintings and statues. Philip then sent an army under the Spanish duke of Alva to punish them. On a single day in 1568, the duke executed 1,500 Protestants and suspected rebels.

In the struggle against the Spanish, William of Orange emerged as a great leader. William’s motives for fighting the Spaniards were political, not religious. He wanted to free the Netherlands from Spain. At first, William lost battle after battle. Then, in 1574, when the Spaniards had the city of Leiden under siege, the Dutch took a desperate step. Their lands were called the Low Countries, because much of the land was actually below sea level. Only great dikes kept the seawater from flooding over the fields. The Dutch opened the floodgates, flooding the land with water. The floods drove the Spanish troops from their camp outside Leiden.

Finally, in 1579, the seven northern provinces of the Netherlands, which were largely Protestant, united and declared their independence from Spain. They became the United Provinces of the Netherlands. The ten southern provinces (present-day Belgium) were Catholic and remained under Spanish control.

The Independent Dutch Prosper  The United Provinces of the Netherlands was different from other European states of the time. For one thing, religious toleration was practiced there. In addition, the United Provinces was not a kingdom but a republic. Each province had an elected governor, whose power depended on the support of merchants and landholders.
Dutch Trading Empire  The stability of the government allowed the Dutch people to concentrate on economic growth. The merchants of Amsterdam bought surplus grain in Poland and crammed it into their warehouses. When they heard about poor harvests in southern Europe, they shipped the grain south while prices were highest. Western Europe was also short of timber, a fact that Dutch merchants were quick to use for their benefit. They shipped Scandinavian lumber to Spain, France, Italy, and England, all in ships owned by Dutch capitalists. The Dutch had the largest fleet of ships in the world—perhaps 4,800 ships in 1636. Gradually, the Dutch replaced the Italians as the bankers of Europe. One reason for this is that the trade routes of the Atlantic became more important than those of the Mediterranean.

Dutch Art  During the 1600s, the Netherlands became what Florence had been during the 1400s. It boasted not only the best banks but also many of the best artists in Europe. As in Florence, wealthy merchants sponsored many of these artists.

The greatest Dutch artist of the period was Rembrandt van Rijn (REHM-BRANT vahn RYN). Rembrandt painted portraits of wealthy middle-class merchants. He also produced group portraits. In The Syndics (shown above), he portrayed a group of city officials. Rembrandt showed the individuality of each man by capturing his distinctive facial expression and posture. Rembrandt also used sharp contrasts of light and shadow to draw attention to his focus.

Another artist fascinated with the effects of light was Jan Vermeer (YAHN-vehr-MEER). Like many other Dutch artists, he chose domestic, indoor settings for his portraits. He often painted women doing such familiar activities as pouring milk from a jug or reading a letter. Unlike Rembrandt, who was famous in his time, Vermeer did not become widely admired until the late 19th century. The work of both Rembrandt and Vermeer reveals how important merchants, civic leaders, and the middle class in general were in 17th-century Netherlands.

Absolutism in Europe  Even though Philip II lost his Dutch possessions, he was a forceful ruler in many ways. He tried to control every aspect of his empire’s affairs. During the next few centuries, many European monarchs would also claim the authority to rule without limits.
The Theory of Absolutism  These rulers wanted to be absolute monarchs, kings or queens who believed that all power within their state’s boundaries rested in their hands. Their goal was to control every aspect of society. Absolute monarchs believed in divine right, the idea that God created the monarchy and that the monarch acted as God’s representative on earth. An absolute monarch answered only to God, not to his or her subjects.

These ideas were not new to the 16th century. Absolute rulers from ancient times included Darius in Persia, Shi Huangdi in China, and the Roman Caesars. After the decline of the Roman Empire, however, European monarchs had been weak. The feudal nobility, the Church, and other rulers had limited the power that any one monarch could wield.

Growing Power of Europe’s Monarchs  As Europe emerged from the Middle Ages, monarchs grew increasingly powerful. The decline of feudalism, the rise of cities, and the growth of national kingdoms all helped to centralize authority. In addition, the growing middle class usually backed monarchs, because they promised a peaceful, supportive climate for business. Monarchs used the wealth of colonies to pay for their ambitions. Church authority also broke down during the late Middle Ages and the Reformation. That opened the way for monarchs to assume even greater control. In 1576, Jean Bodin, an influential French writer, defined absolute rule:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
The first characteristic of the sovereign prince is the power to make general and special laws, but—and this qualification is important—without the consent of superiors, equals, or inferiors. If the prince requires the consent of superiors, then he is a subject himself; if that of equals, he shares his authority with others; if that of his subjects, senate or people, he is not sovereign.

JEAN BODIN, Six Books on the State

Crises Lead to Absolutism  The 17th century was a period of great upheaval in Europe. Religious and territorial conflicts between states led to almost continuous warfare. This caused governments to build huge armies and to levy even heavier taxes on an already suffering population. These pressures in turn would bring on widespread unrest. Sometimes peasants revolted. In response to these crises, monarchs tried to impose order by increasing their own power. As absolute rulers, they regulated everything from religious worship to social gatherings. To seem more powerful, they increased the size of their courts. They created new government bureaucracies to control their countries’ economic life. Their goal was to free themselves from the limitations imposed by the nobility and by representative bodies such as Parliament. Only with such freedom could they rule absolutely, as did the most famous monarch of his time, Louis XIV of France.
**Setting the Stage** In 1559, King Henry II of France died, leaving four young sons. Three of them ruled, one after the other, but all proved incompetent. The real power behind the throne during this period was their mother, Catherine de Médicis. Catherine tried to preserve royal authority, but growing conflicts between Catholics and Huguenots—French Protestants—rocked the country.

**Religious Wars Create a Crisis**

Between 1562 and 1598, Huguenots and Catholics fought eight religious wars. Chaos spread through France. For example, in 1572 the St. Bartholomew’s Day Massacre in Paris sparked a six-week, nationwide slaughter of Huguenots.

**Henry of Navarre** The massacre occurred when many Huguenot nobles were in Paris. They were attending the marriage of Catherine’s daughter to a Huguenot prince, Henry of Navarre. Most of these nobles died, but Henry survived. Descended from the popular medieval king Louis IX, Henry was robust, athletic, and handsome. In 1589, when both Catherine and her last son died, Prince Henry inherited the throne. He became Henry IV, the first king of the Bourbon dynasty in France. As king, he showed himself to be decisive, fearless in battle, and a clever politician.

Many Catholics, including the people of Paris, opposed Henry. For the sake of his war-weary country, Henry chose to give up Protestantism and become a Catholic. Explaining his conversion, Henry declared, “Paris is well worth a Mass.”

In 1598, Henry took another step toward healing France’s wounds. He declared that the Huguenots could live in peace in France and set up their own houses of worship in some cities. This declaration of religious toleration was called the **Edict of Nantes**.

Aided by an adviser who enacted wise financial policies, Henry devoted his reign to rebuilding France and its prosperity. He restored the French monarchy to a strong position. After a generation of war, most French people welcomed peace. Some people, however, hated Henry for his religious compromises. In 1610, a fanatic leaped into the royal carriage and stabbed Henry to death.

**Louis XIII and Cardinal Richelieu**

After Henry IV’s death, his son Louis XIII reigned. Louis was a weak king, but in 1624 he appointed a strong minister who made up for all of Louis’s weaknesses. **Cardinal Richelieu** became, in effect, the ruler of France.
several years, he had been a hard-working leader of the Catholic church in France. Although he tried sincerely to lead according to moral principles, he was also ambitious and enjoyed exercising authority. As Louis XIII’s minister, he was able to pursue his ambitions in the political arena.

This lean-faced, hawk-nosed cardinal took two steps to increase the power of the Bourbon monarchy. First, he moved against Huguenots. He believed that Protestantism often served as an excuse for political conspiracies against the Catholic king. Although Richelieu did not end the Huguenots’ right to worship, he forbade Protestant cities from having walls. He did not want them to be able to defy the king and then withdraw behind strong defenses.

Second, he sought to weaken the nobles’ power. Richelieu ordered nobles to take down their fortified castles. He increased the power of government agents who came from the middle class. This action ended the need for the king to use noble officials.

Richelieu also wanted to make France the strongest state in Europe. The greatest obstacle to this, he believed, was the Hapsburg rulers whose lands surrounded France. Hapsburgs ruled Spain, Austria, the Netherlands, and parts of Germany. To limit Hapsburg power, Richelieu involved France in the Thirty Years’ War.

Writers Express Skepticism As France regained political power, a new French intellectual movement developed. French thinkers had witnessed the religious wars with horror. What they saw turned them toward skepticism, the idea that nothing can ever be known for certain. These thinkers expressed an attitude of doubt toward churches that claimed to have the only correct set of doctrines. To doubt old ideas, skeptics thought, was the first step toward finding truth.

Michel de Montaigne lived during the worst years of the French religious wars. After the death of a dear friend, Montaigne retired to his library and thought deeply about life’s meaning. To communicate his ideas, Montaigne developed a new form of literature, the essay. An essay is a brief work that expresses a person’s thoughts and opinions.

In one essay, Montaigne pointed out that whenever a new belief arose, it replaced an old belief that people once accepted as truth. In the same way, he went on, the new belief would also probably be replaced by some different idea in the future. For these reasons, Montaigne believed that humans could never have absolute knowledge of what is true. To remind himself of this, he had the beams of his study painted with the sentence “All that is certain is that nothing is certain.”

Another French writer of the time, René Descartes, was a brilliant thinker. In his Meditations of First Philosophy, Descartes examined the skeptical argument that one could never be certain of anything. Descartes used his observations and his reason to answer such arguments. In doing so, he created a philosophy that influenced modern thinkers and helped to develop the scientific method. Because of this, he became an important figure in the Enlightenment. (See Chapter 22.)

Louis XIV Rules Absolutely

The efforts of Henry IV and Richelieu to strengthen the French monarchy paved the way for the most powerful ruler in French history—Louis XIV. In Louis’s view, he and the state were one and the same. He reportedly boasted, “L’état, c’est moi,” meaning “I am the state.” Although Louis XIV became the strongest king of his time, when he began his reign he was only a five-year-old boy.

Louis, the Boy King When Louis became king in 1643, the true ruler of France was Richelieu’s successor, Cardinal Mazarin (MAH-zuhr-REN). Mazarin’s greatest triumph
came in 1648, with the ending of the Thirty Years’ War. The peace treaty made France the most powerful country in Europe.

Many people in France, particularly the nobles, hated Mazarin because he increased taxes and strengthened the central government. From 1648 to 1653, violent anti-Mazarin riots tore France apart. At times, the nobles who led the riots threatened the young king’s life. Even after the violence was over, Louis never forgot his fear or his anger at the nobility. He determined to become so strong that they could never threaten him again.

In the end, the rebellion failed for three reasons. Its leaders distrusted one another even more than they distrusted Mazarin. In addition, the government used violent repression. Finally, peasants and townspeople grew weary of disorder and fighting. For many years afterward, the people of France accepted the oppressive laws of an absolute king. They were convinced that the alternative—rebellion—was even worse.

**Louis Takes Control** When Cardinal Mazarin died in 1661, the 23-year-old Louis took control of the government himself. A courtier remembered coming into the king’s apartments that morning with the chancellor and hearing Louis announce, “The scene has changed. In the government of my realm . . . I shall have other principles than those of the late cardinal. You know my wishes, gentlemen; it now remains for you to execute them.”

Louis weakened the power of the nobles by excluding them from his councils. In contrast, he increased the power of the government agents called intendants, who collected taxes and administered justice. To keep power under central control, he made sure that local officials communicated regularly with him.

**Economic Growth** Louis devoted himself to helping France attain economic, political, and cultural brilliance. No one assisted him more in achieving these goals than his minister of finance, Jean Baptiste Colbert (kawl•BEHR). Colbert believed in the theory of mercantilism. To prevent wealth from leaving the country, Colbert tried to make France self-sufficient. He wanted it to be able to manufacture everything it needed instead of relying on imports.

To expand manufacturing, Colbert gave government funds and tax benefits to French companies. To protect France’s industries, he placed a high tariff on goods from other countries. Colbert also recognized the importance of colonies, which provided raw materials and a market for manufactured goods. The French government encouraged people to migrate to France’s colony in Canada. There the fur trade added to French commerce.

After Colbert’s death, Louis announced a policy that slowed France’s economic progress. In 1685 he cancelled the Edict of Nantes, which protected the religious freedom of Huguenots. In response, thousands of Huguenot artisans and business people fled the country. Louis’s policy thus robbed France of many skilled workers.

**Louis’s Grand Style**

In his personal finances, Louis spent a fortune to surround himself with luxury. For example, each meal was a feast. An observer claimed that the king once devoured four plates of soup, a whole pheasant, a partridge in garlic sauce, two slices of ham, a salad, a plate of pastries, fruit, and hard-boiled eggs in a single sitting! Nearly 500 cooks, waiters, and other servants worked to satisfy his tastes.
Louis Controls the Nobility

Every morning, the chief valet woke Louis at 7:30. Outside the curtains of Louis’s canopy bed stood at least 100 of the most privileged nobles at court. They were waiting to help the great king dress. Only four would be allowed the honor of handing Louis his slippers or holding his sleeves for him.

Meanwhile, outside the bedchamber, lesser nobles waited in the palace halls and hoped Louis would notice them. A kingly nod, a glance of approval, a kind word—these marks of royal attention determined whether a noble succeeded or failed. A duke recorded how Louis turned against nobles who did not come to court to flatter him:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST

He looked to the right and to the left, not only upon rising but upon going to bed, at his meals, in passing through his apartments, or his gardens. . . . He marked well all absentees from the Court, found out the reason of their absence, and never lost an opportunity of acting toward them as the occasion might seem to justify. . . . When their names were in any way mentioned, “I do not know them,” the King would reply haughtily.

DUKE OF SAINT-SIMON, Memoirs of Louis XIV and the Regency

Having the nobles at the palace increased royal authority in two ways. It made the nobility totally dependent on Louis. It also took them from their homes, thereby giving more power to the intendants. Louis required hundreds of nobles to live with him at the splendid palace he built at Versailles, 11 miles southwest of Paris.

The Splendor of Versailles

Everything about the Versailles palace was immense. It faced a huge royal courtyard dominated by a statue of Louis XIV. The palace itself stretched for a distance of about 500 yards.

The Palace at Versailles

- cost—an estimated $2 billion in 1994 dollars
- 36,000 laborers and 6,000 horses worked on the palace
- two wings—each 150 yards long
- main building—about 500 yards long
- about 2,000 rooms

This photograph shows the gardens of Versailles as they appear today. Versailles was built with
- 15,000 acres of gardens, lawns, and woods
- 1,400 fountains

It took so much water to run all the fountains at the same time that it was only done on special occasions. On other days, when the king walked in the garden, servants would turn on fountains just before he reached them. To conserve water, the servants would turn them off after he walked away.
In fact, the palace was so long that food from the kitchens was often cold by the time servants reached Louis's chambers.

Because of its great size, Versailles was like a small royal city. Its rich decoration and furnishings clearly showed Louis's wealth and power to everyone who came to the palace. The elaborate ceremonies there impressed the king's subjects and aroused the admiration and envy of all other European monarchs.

**Patronage of the Arts** Versailles was a center of the arts during Louis's reign. Louis made opera and ballet more popular. He even danced the title role in the ballet *The Sun King*. One of his favorite writers was Molière (mohl-YAIR), who wrote some of the funniest plays in French literature. Molière's comedies include *Tartuffe*, which mocks religious hypocrisy. *The Would-be Gentleman* mocks the newly rich, and *The Imaginary Invalid* mocks hypochondriacs.

Not since Augustus of Rome had there been a monarch who aided the arts as much as Louis. Under Louis, the chief purpose of art was no longer to glorify God, as it had been in the Middle Ages. Nor was its purpose to glorify human potential, as it had been in the Renaissance. Now the purpose of art was to glorify the king and promote values that supported Louis's absolute rule.

**Louis Fights Disastrous Wars**

Under Louis, France was the most powerful country in Europe. In 1660, France had about 20 million people. This was four times as many as England and 10 times as many as the Dutch republic. The French army, numbering 100,000 in peacetime and 400,000 in wartime, was far ahead of other states' armies in size, training, and weaponry.

**Attempts to Expand France's Boundaries** In 1667, just six years after Mazarin's death, Louis invaded the Spanish Netherlands. Through this campaign, he gained 12 towns. Encouraged by his success, he personally led an army into the Dutch Netherlands in 1672. The Dutch saved their country by opening the dikes and flooding the countryside. This was the same tactic they had used in their revolt against Spain a century earlier. The war ended in 1678 with the Treaty of Nijmegen. France gained several towns and a region called Franche-Comté.

Louis decided to fight additional wars, but his luck had run out. By the end of the 1680s, a European-wide alliance had formed to stop France. By joining together, weaker countries could match France's strength. This defensive strategy was meant to achieve a balance of power, in which no single country or group of countries could dominate others.

In 1689, the Dutch prince William of Orange became the king of England. He joined the League of Augsburg, which consisted of the Hapsburg emperor, the kings of Sweden and Spain, and the leaders of several smaller European states. Joined together, these countries equaled France's strength.
France at this time had been weakened by a series of poor harvests. That, added to the constant warfare, brought great suffering to the French people. So, too, did new taxes, which Louis imposed to finance his wars.

**War of the Spanish Succession** Tired of hardship, the French people longed for peace. What they got was another war. In 1700, the childless king of Spain, Charles II, died after promising his throne to Louis XIV’s 17-year-old grandson, Philip of Anjou. The two greatest powers in Europe, enemies for so long, were now both ruled by Bourbons.

Other countries felt threatened by this increase in the Bourbon dynasty’s power. In 1701, England, Austria, the Dutch republic, Portugal, and several German and Italian states joined together against France and Spain. The long struggle that followed is known as the **War of the Spanish Succession**.

The costly war dragged on until 1713. The Treaty of Utrecht was signed in that year. Under its terms, Louis’s grandson was allowed to remain king of Spain so long as the thrones of France and Spain were not united.

The big winner in the war was Great Britain. From Spain, Britain took Gibraltar, a fortress that controlled the entrance to the Mediterranean. Spain also granted a British company an *asiento*—permission to send enslaved Africans to Spain’s American colonies. This increased Britain’s involvement in trading enslaved Africans. In addition, France gave Britain the North American territories of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, and abandoned claims to the Hudson Bay region. The Austrian Hapsburgs took the Spanish Netherlands and other Spanish lands in Italy. Prussia and Savoy were recognized as kingdoms.

**Louis’s Death and Legacy** Louis’s last years were more sad than glorious. Realizing that his wars had ruined France, he regretted the suffering he had brought to his people. He died in bed in 1715. News of his death prompted rejoicing throughout France. The people had had enough of the Sun King.

Louis left a mixed legacy to his country. France was certainly a power to be reckoned with in Europe. But the staggering debts and resentment over the royal abuse of power would plague Louis XIV’s heirs. Eventually, this resentment led to revolution. In the meantime, Louis’s enemies in Prussia and Austria had been experimenting with their own forms of absolute monarchy, as you will learn in Section 3.

**Background**

Louis XIV lived so long that he outlived his son and two grandsons. His great-grandson succeeded him as Louis XV.

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**Section 2 Assessment**

1. **TERMS & NAMES**
   - Identify
     - Edict of Nantes
     - Cardinal Richelieu
     - skepticism
     - Louis XIV
     - intendant
     - Jean Baptiste Colbert
     - War of the Spanish Succession

2. **TAKING NOTES**
   - On a timeline like the one shown, list the major events of Louis XIV’s reign.

   ![Timeline of Louis XIV’s reign]

3. **SUPPORTING OPINIONS**
   - Many historians think of Louis XIV as the perfect example of an absolute monarch. Do you agree? Explain why or why not.

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - the description of an absolute monarch at the end of Section 1
   - the ways in which Louis XIV fits that description
   - any ways in which Louis XIV does not fit the description

4. **ANALYZING THEMES**
   - Economics How did the policies of Colbert and Louis XIV affect the French economy? Explain both positive and negative effects.

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - Colbert’s attempts to make France self-sufficient
   - what happened when Louis cancelled the Edict of Nantes
   - the cost of Versailles and wars

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**Debt of the Royal Family, 1643–1715**

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<td>1,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>1715</td>
<td>1,200</td>
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</table>

A livre is equal to approximately $10.50 in 1992 U.S. dollars.

Source: Early Modern Europe 1560-1715

**SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts**

1. How many times greater was the royal debt in 1715 than in 1643?
2. What was the royal debt of 1715 equal to in 1992 dollars?
Power Clothes

Traditionally, rulers have used clothing to show their status as monarchs. Past rulers frequently wore symbols that only rulers were allowed to wear. In addition, they often chose clothing that indicated wealth or military strength. For example, in one portrait Louis XIV of France wears the uniform of a Roman general to show his military might. As you study the following pictures, notice whether the rulers conveyed power through royal symbols, wealth, or military strength.

Louis XIV, France, 1701
This portrait of Louis by Hyacinthe Rigaud conveyed the image of a strong monarch to Europeans of the 1700s. The high heels made Louis look taller and therefore more powerful. The gold flower embroidered on his robe is the fleur-de-lis (flur-duh-LEE), the royal symbol of French kings. The inside of the robe is lined with ermine, a type of fur that only nobles wore. The sword, scepter, and crown are additional symbols of royal power.

Ostrich plumes were very expensive, so usually only royalty or the nobility wore them. This plumed hat belonged to Louis.
King Bhumibol Adulyadej, Thailand, 1990

Just as Louis XIV liked to dress as a Roman general, many modern rulers portray themselves as military leaders. Here King Bhumibol Adulyadej prays while wearing a white military uniform and rows of medals.

Queen Hatshepsut, Egypt, 1490 B.C.

Although a woman, Hatshepsut ruled as pharaoh. This red granite statue shows her wearing two symbols of royal power—the false beard and the headdress with the asp (snake), both worn only by pharaohs.

High Chief Boki and his wife, Liliha; Hawaii, about 1824

In Hawaii, only male chiefs of high rank could wear feather garments, such as the cloak and helmets shown here. The red and yellow feathers came from birds native to the islands. Each cloak required about a half million feathers.

This is a copy of a diamond cross that Louis XIV had. The stones in the middle are set in the design of a dove. The dove’s beak is a ruby.

This bust shows the elaborate wigs that French monarchs and nobles wore.

Connect to History

Clarifying Which of the rulers on this page wear clothing that displays wealth? military power? symbols that only rulers were allowed to wear?

Connect to Today

Clarifying In today’s world, many books and articles tell businesspeople how to dress to convey a sense of power. Find at least one of these books or articles and read to discover the main points of advice. List the main points and share them with the class.
Chapter 21

Central European Monarchs Clash

MAIN IDEA
After a period of turmoil, absolute monarchs ruled Austria and the Germanic state of Prussia.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW
Prussia built a strong military tradition in Germany that contributed in part to world wars in the 20th century.

SETTING THE STAGE  For a brief while, it appeared that the German rulers had settled their religious differences through the Peace of Augsburg (1555). They had agreed that the faith of each prince would determine the religion of his subjects. Churches in Germany could be either Lutheran or Catholic, but not Calvinist.

The Thirty Years’ War
The peace was short-lived—soon to be replaced by a long war. After the Peace of Augsburg, the Catholic and Lutheran princes of Germany watched each other suspiciously. Each religion tried to gain followers. In addition, both sides felt threatened by Calvinism, which was spreading in Germany and gaining many followers. As tension mounted, the Lutherans joined together in the Protestant Union in 1608. The following year, the Catholic princes formed the Catholic League. Now, only a spark would set off a war.

Bohemian Protestants Revolt  That spark came in 1618. The future Holy Roman emperor, Ferdinand II, was head of the Hapsburg family. As such, he ruled the Czech kingdom of Bohemia. The Protestants in Bohemia did not trust Ferdinand, who was a foreigner and a Catholic. When he closed some Protestant churches, the Protestants revolted. Ferdinand sent an army into Bohemia to crush the revolt. Several German Protestant princes took this chance to challenge their Catholic emperor.

Thus began the Thirty Years’ War—a conflict over religion, over territory, and for power among European ruling families. Historians think of it as having two main phases: the phase of Hapsburg triumphs and the phase of Hapsburg defeats.

Hapsburg Triumphs  The Thirty Years’ War lasted from 1618 to 1648. During the first 12 years, Hapsburg armies from Austria and Spain crushed the troops hired by the Protestant princes. They succeeded in putting down the Czech uprising. They also defeated the German Protestants who had supported the Czechs.

Ferdinand II paid his army of 125,000 men by allowing them to plunder, or rob, German villages. This huge army destroyed everything in northern Germany.
its path. The mayor of Magdeburg in northern Germany described the horrible destruction of his city:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**
In this frenzied rage, the great and splendid city that had stood like a fair princess in the land was now . . . given over to the flames, and thousands of innocent men, women, and children, in the midst of a horrible din 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 it nor no tears to bewail it.

**OTTO VON GUERICKE**, quoted in Readings in European History

**Hapsburg Defeats** The Protestant Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden and his disciplined army of 13,000 shifted the tide of war in 1630. They drove the Hapsburg armies out of northern Germany. However, Gustavus Adolphus was killed in battle in 1632.

Cardinal Richelieu and Cardinal Mazarin of France dominated the remaining years of the war. Although Catholic, these two cardinals feared the Hapsburgs more than the Protestants. They did not want other European rulers to have as much power as the French king. Therefore, in 1635, Richelieu sent French troops to join the German and Swedish Protestants in their struggle against the Hapsburg armies.

**Peace of Westphalia** The war did great damage to Germany. Its population dropped from 20 million to about 16 million. Both trade and agriculture were disrupted, and Germany's economy was ruined. Germany had a long, difficult recovery from this devastation. That is a major reason that it did not become a unified state until the 1800s.

The Peace of Westphalia (1648) ended the war and had important consequences. First, it weakened the Hapsburg states of Spain and Austria. Second, it strengthened France by awarding it German territory. Third, it made German princes independent of the Holy Roman emperor. Fourth, it ended religious wars in Europe. Fifth, it introduced a new method of peace negotiation. In that method, still used today, all participants meet to settle the problems of a war and decide the terms of peace.
Beginning of Modern States The treaty thus abandoned the idea of a Catholic empire that would rule most of Europe. It recognized Europe as a group of independent states that could negotiate for themselves. Each independent state was seen as essentially equal to the others. This marked the beginning of the modern state system and was the most important result of the Thirty Years’ War.

Central Europe Differs from the West

The formation of strong states occurred more slowly in central Europe. The major powers of this region were the kingdom of Poland, the Holy Roman Empire, and the Ottoman Empire. None of them was well-organized in the mid-1600s.

Economic Contrasts One reason for this is that the economy of central Europe developed differently from that of western Europe. During the late Middle Ages, serfs in western Europe slowly won freedom and moved to towns. There, they joined middle-class townspeople, who gained economic power because of the commercial revolution and the development of capitalism. In turn, western European monarchs taxed the towns. They used the tax money to raise armies and reduce the influence of the nobility.

By contrast, the landowning aristocracy in central Europe passed laws restricting the ability of serfs to gain freedom and move to cities. These nobles wanted to keep the serfs on the land, where they could produce large harvests. The nobles could then sell the surplus crops to western European cities at great profit. To increase productivity, the aristocracy increased their control over their serfs. By 1700, Polish landowners could demand that their serfs work as much as six days a week. This left the serfs only one day a week to grow their own food.

Several Weak Empires The landowning nobles in central Europe not only held down the serfs but also blocked the development of strong kings. For example, the Polish nobility elected the Polish king and sharply limited his power. They allowed the king little income, no law courts, and no standing army.

The two empires of central Europe were also weak. Although Suleiman the Magnificent had conquered Hungary and threatened Vienna in 1529, the Ottoman Empire could not take its European conquest any farther. From then on the Ottoman Empire declined from its peak of power.

In addition, the Holy Roman Empire was seriously weakened by the Thirty Years’ War. No longer able to command the obedience of the German states, the Holy Roman Empire had no real power. These old, weakened empires and kingdoms left a power vacuum in central Europe. In the late 1600s, two German-speaking families decided to try to fill this vacuum by becoming absolute rulers themselves.

Austria Grows Stronger One of these families was the Hapsburgs of Austria. Even after the terrible losses in the Thirty Years’ War, Austria remained the most powerful and important state within the Holy Roman Empire. The Austrian Hapsburgs took several steps to become absolute monarchs. First, during the Thirty Years’ War, they reconquered Bohemia. The Hapsburgs wiped out Protestantism there and created a new Czech nobility that pledged loyalty to them. Second, after the war, the Hapsburg ruler centralized the government and created a standing army. Third, by 1699, the Hapsburgs had retaken Hungary from the Ottomans.

In 1711, Charles VI became the Hapsburg ruler. Charles’s empire was a difficult one to rule. Within its borders lived a diverse assortment of people—Czechs, Hungarians, Italians, Croatians, and Germans. Only the fact that one Hapsburg ruler wore the Austrian, Hungarian, and Bohemian crowns kept the empire together.
Maria Theresa Inherits the Austrian Throne  How could the Hapsburgs make sure that they continued to rule all those lands? Charles VI spent his entire reign working out an answer to this problem. By endless arm-twisting, he persuaded other leaders of Europe to sign an agreement that declared they would recognize Charles's eldest daughter as the heir to all his Hapsburg territories. That heir was a young woman named Maria Theresa. In theory, this agreement guaranteed Maria Theresa a peaceful reign. Instead, she faced years of war. Her main enemy was Prussia, a new state to the north of Austria.

Prussia and Austria Clash

Like Austria, Prussia rose to power in the late 1600s. Like the Hapsburgs of Austria, Prussia's ruling family, the Hohenzollerns, also had ambitions. Those ambitions threatened to upset central Europe's delicate balance of power.

The Rise of Prussia and Frederick the Great

The Hohenzollerns built up their state from a number of small holdings—beginning with the German states of Brandenburg and Prussia. In 1640, a 20-year-old Hohenzollern named Frederick William inherited the title of elector of Brandenburg. After seeing the destruction of the Thirty Years' War, Frederick William, later known as the Great Elector, decided that having a strong army was the only way to ensure safety.

To protect their lands, the Great Elector and his descendants moved toward absolute monarchy. They created a standing army—the best in Europe. They built it to a force of 80,000 men. To pay for the army, they introduced permanent taxation. Beginning with the Great Elector's son, they called themselves kings. They also weakened the representative assemblies of their territories.

Prussia's landowning nobility, the Junkers (YUNG-kuhrz), resisted the king's growing power. However, in the early 1700s, King Frederick William bought their cooperation. He gave the Junkers the exclusive right to be officers in his army. Prussia became a rigidly controlled, military society.

Frederick William worried that his son, Frederick, was not military enough to rule. The prince loved music, philosophy, and poetry. In 1730, when he and a friend tried to run away, they were caught. To punish Frederick, the king ordered him to witness his friend's beheading. Despite such bitter memories, Frederick II, known as Frederick the Great, followed his father's military policies when he came to

HISTORYMAKERS

Maria Theresa 1717–1780

An able ruler, Maria Theresa also devoted herself to her family. Unlike many monarchs, she married for love. She gave birth to 16 children, 10 of whom reached adulthood. Maria Theresa continued to advise her children even after they were grown. Perhaps her most famous child was Marie Antoinette, wife of Louis XVI of France. Maria Theresa often scolded Marie for spending too much money and making the French people angry.

As empress, Maria Theresa decreased the power of the nobility. Very religious, she cared more for the peasants' well-being than most rulers. She limited the amount of labor that nobles could force peasants to do. She argued: “The peasantry must be able to sustain itself.”

Frederick the Great 1712–1786

Although they reigned during the same time, Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa were very different. Where Maria was religious, Frederick was practical and atheistic. Maria Theresa had a happy home life; Frederick married a woman whom he never cared for and neglected. Maria Theresa had a huge family; Frederick died without a son to succeed him.

An aggressor in foreign affairs, Frederick once wrote that “the fundamental role of governments is the principle of extending their territories.” With regard to domestic affairs, he encouraged religious toleration and legal reform. Frederick earned the title “the Great” by achieving his goals for Prussia, in both domestic and foreign affairs.
power. However, he also softened some of his father’s laws, because he believed that a ruler should be like a father to his people:

**A VOICE FROM THE PAST**

A prince . . . is only the first servant of the state, who is obliged to act with probity [honesty] and prudence. . . . As the sovereign is properly the head of a family of citizens, the father of his people, he ought on all occasions to be the last refuge of the unfortunate.

FREDERICK II, Essay on Forms of Government

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### War of the Austrian Succession

In 1740, Maria Theresa succeeded her father, just five months after Frederick II became king of Prussia. Frederick wanted the Austrian land of Silesia, which bordered Prussia. Silesia produced iron ore, textiles, and food products. Frederick assumed that because Maria Theresa was a woman, she would not be forceful enough to defend her lands. In 1740, he sent his army to occupy Silesia, beginning the War of the Austrian Succession.

Even though Maria Theresa had recently given birth, she journeyed to Hungary. There she held her infant in her arms as she asked the Hungarian nobles for aid. Even though the nobles resented their Hapsburg rulers, they pledged to give Maria Theresa an army. Great Britain also joined Austria to fight its longtime enemy France, which was Prussia’s ally. Although Maria Theresa did stop Prussia’s aggression, she lost Silesia at the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748.

### The Seven Years’ War

Maria Theresa decided that the French kings were no longer Austria’s chief enemies. She made an alliance with them. The result was a diplomatic revolution. When Frederick heard of her actions, he signed a treaty with Britain—Austria’s former ally. Now, Austria, France, Russia, and others were allied against Britain and Prussia. Not only had Austria and Prussia switched allies, but for the first time Russia was playing a role in European affairs.

In 1756, Frederick attacked Saxony, an Austrian ally. Soon every great European power was involved in the war. Fought in Europe, India, and North America, the war lasted until 1763. It was called the Seven Years’ War. The war did not change the territorial situation in Europe.

It was a different story on other continents. Both France and Britain had colonies in North America and the West Indies. Both were competing economically in India. The British emerged as the real victors in the Seven Years’ War. France lost its colonies in North America, and Britain gained sole economic domination of India. This set the stage for further British expansion in India in the 1800s, as you will see in Chapter 27.

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**CONNECT to TODAY**

**Quebec Separatists**

In North America, the Seven Years’ War was called the French and Indian War. As a result of this war, the British took over France’s American colonies. Today Canada has a large French-speaking population, many of whom believe that they should be independent from Canada. A demonstration for independence is shown above.

In 1995, Quebec voters narrowly rejected a vote for independence. Before the vote was taken, Jacques Parizeau, then Quebec’s premier and leader of the secessionist movement, said, “We, the people of Quebec, through our National Assembly, proclaim: Quebec is a sovereign [independent] country.” Although the vote did not make Parizeau’s declaration come true, separation continues to be an important issue in Quebec.

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### Section Assessment

1. **TERMS & NAMES**
   - Thirty Years’ War
   - Maria Theresa
   - Frederick the Great
   - Seven Years’ War

2. **TAKING NOTES**
   - On a chart like the one shown, compare Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great.

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<th>Points of Comparison</th>
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<th>Frederick the Great</th>
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<tr>
<td>their policies as monarchs</td>
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</table>

3. **RECOGNIZING EFFECTS**
   - Name several ways that the Peace of Westphalia laid the foundations of modern Europe.

   **THINK ABOUT**
   - religious effects
   - diplomatic effects
   - political effects

4. **THEME ACTIVITY**
   - **Power and Authority**
     - Write an outline for a lecture on “How to Increase Royal Power and Become an Absolute Monarch.”
     - In your outline, jot down examples that support your main points. The examples should be of Hapsburg and Hohenzollern actions that increased the power of those ruling families.

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530 Chapter 21
SETTING THE STAGE  Ivan III of Moscow, who ruled Russia from 1462 to 1505, accomplished several things. First, he conquered much of the territory around Moscow. Second, he liberated Russia from the Mongols. Third, he began to centralize the Russian government. This laid the foundation for the absolute monarchy that would come later.

From Ivan to the Romanovs
Ivan III was succeeded by his son, Vasily, who ruled for 28 years. Vasily continued his father's work of adding territory to the growing Russian state. He also increased the power of the central government, a trend that would continue under his son, Ivan IV.

The First Czar  Ivan IV, called Ivan the Terrible, came to the throne in 1533 when he was only three years old. His young life was disrupted by struggles for power among Russia's landowning nobles, known as boyars. The boyars fought to control young Ivan. When he was 16, Ivan seized power and had himself crowned czar. This title meant “caesar,” and Ivan was the first Russian ruler to use it officially. He also married the beautiful Anastasia, related to an old boyar family, the Romanovs.

The years from 1547 to 1560 are often called Ivan’s “good period.” He won great victories, added lands to Russia, gave Russia a code of laws, and ruled justly.

Rule by Terror  Ivan’s “bad period” began in 1560 after Anastasia died. Accusing the boyars of poisoning his wife, Ivan turned against them. He organized his own police force, whose chief duty was to hunt down and murder people Ivan considered traitors. The members of this police force dressed in black and rode black horses.

Using these secret police, Ivan executed many boyars, their families, and the peasants who worked their lands. Thousands of people died. Ivan seized the boyars’ estates and gave them to a new class of nobles, who had to remain loyal to him or lose their land. One noble, Prince Kurbsky, described the suffering Ivan caused him:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
In front of your army have I marched—and marched again; and no dishonor have I brought upon you, but only brilliant victories. . . . But to you, O czar, was all this as naught; rather do you show us your intolerable wrath and bitterest hatred, and furthermore, burning stoves [a means of torture].

PRINCE ANDREW KURBSKY, letter to Czar Ivan IV
Eventually, Ivan committed an act that was both a personal tragedy and a national disaster. In 1581, during a violent quarrel, he killed his oldest son and heir. When Ivan died three years later, only his weak second son was left to rule.

**Rise of the Romanovs** Ivan’s son proved to be physically and mentally incapable of ruling. After he died without an heir, Russia experienced a period of turmoil known as the Time of Troubles. Boyars struggled for power, and heirs of czars died under mysterious conditions. Several imposters tried to claim the throne.

Finally, in 1613, representatives from many Russian cities met to choose the next czar. Their choice was Michael Romanov, grandnephew of Ivan the Terrible’s wife Anastasia. Thus began the Romanov dynasty, which ruled Russia for 300 years (1613–1917).

**Peter the Great Takes the Throne**

Over time, the Romanovs restored order to Russia. They strengthened government by passing a law code and putting down a revolt. This paved the way for the absolute rule of Czar Peter I. At first, Peter shared the throne with a feeble-minded half-brother. However, in 1696, Peter became sole ruler of Russia. He is known to history as Peter the Great, because he was one of Russia’s greatest reformers. He also continued the trend of increasing the czar’s power.

**Russia’s Differences from Europe** When Peter I came to power, Russia was still a land of boyars and serfs. Serfdom in Russia lasted much longer than it did in western Europe. Serfdom continued in Russia into the mid-1800s. When a Russian landowner sold a piece of land, he sold the serfs with it. Landowners could give serfs away as presents or to pay debts. It was also against the law for serfs to run away from their owners.

Most boyars knew little of western Europe. In the Middle Ages, Russia had looked to Constantinople, not to Rome, for leadership. Then Mongol rule had cut Russia off from the Renaissance and the Age of Exploration. Geographic barriers also isolated Russia. Its only seaport, Archangel, was choked with ice much of the year. The few travelers who reached Moscow were usually Dutch or German, and they had to stay in a separate part of the city.

Religious differences widened the gap between western Europe and Russia. The Russians had adopted the Eastern Orthodox branch of Christianity. Western Europeans were mostly Catholics or Protestants, and the Russians viewed them as heretics and avoided them.

**Peter Visits the West** In the 1680s, people in the German quarter of Moscow were accustomed to seeing the young Peter striding through their neighborhood on his long legs. (Peter was more than six and a half feet tall.) He was so strong that he was known to take a heavy silver plate and roll it up as if it were a piece of paper.

Peter had a good, if crude, sense of humor and loved to make practical jokes. But heaven help the person who crossed his path. If someone annoyed him, he would take his massive fist and knock the offender unconscious. If he were angrier, he would have the person’s nostrils torn out with iron pincers. Although Peter saw himself as a father to his people, he was cruel to his own family. When his oldest son opposed him, he had him imprisoned and killed.
and labored as a ship’s carpenter for four months. However, a Russian giant in a Dutch seaport attracted attention. Word of his identity soon spread. Yet if a fellow worker addressed him as “Your Majesty” or “Sire,” he would not answer. After all, he was just plain “Carpenter Peter.” Peter also visited England and Austria before returning home.

**Peter Rules Absolutely**

Inspired by his trip to the West, Peter resolved that Russia would compete with Europe on both military and commercial terms. Peter's goal of westernization, of using western Europe as a model for change, was not an end in itself. Peter saw it as a way to make Russia stronger.

**Peter’s Reforms** Although Peter believed Russia needed to change, he knew that many of his people disagreed. As he said to one official, “For you know yourself that, though a thing be good and necessary, our people will not do it unless forced to.” To force change upon his state, Peter increased his powers as an absolute ruler.

Peter brought the Russian Orthodox church under state control. He abolished the office of patriarch, head of the church. He set up a group called the Holy Synod to run the church—under his direction.

Like Ivan the Terrible, Peter reduced the power of the great landowners. He recruited able men from lower-ranking families. He then promoted them to positions of authority and rewarded them with grants of land. Because these men owed everything to the czar, they were loyal to him alone.

To modernize his army, Peter hired European officers, who drilled his soldiers in European tactics with European weapons. Being a soldier became a lifetime job. By the time of Peter’s death, the Russian army numbered 200,000 men. To pay for this huge army, Peter imposed heavy taxes.
New Russian News

Your Money or Your Beard

About a year ago, as part of his attempt to westernize Russia, Peter the Great decided that the Russian custom of wearing beards showed too much Mongol influence. Our modernizing czar offered most men a hard choice: shave their beards, or plunk down money to keep their whiskers. Those who paid the beard tax received a token (shown below) to prove that they had the right to have hairy faces.

Peter’s beard tax ranged from a sixth of a kopeck for a peasant to one hundred rubles a year for a wealthy merchant. The rich had to pay 60,000 times as much as the poor.

Now that the policy has been in effect for a year, the results are in. Most peasants and merchants and all priests and monks chose to pay rather than shave. All soldiers, officers, and court officials are clean-shaven for a good reason: Peter didn’t give them a choice.

Winter Happenings: Moscow

It takes more than sub-zero temperatures to keep hardy Russians home. While some people brave the frigid air to sell their wares or to shop, others find delight at the fair.

Yesterday’s outdoor market featured the rock-hard frozen carcasses of cows, sheep, pigs, and chickens piled into pyramidlike heaps. On hand-pulled sleds, shoppers carted home their purchases of meat, butter, eggs, and fish.

Clowns, magicians, jugglers, and musicians entertained at the outdoor fair. For the athletic, there was an ice-skating rink, as well as a 35-foot ice hill to delight sledders. Dizzy visitors swung back and forth in boats suspended from a wooden frame.

Happy New Year!

Forward-looking Russians are celebrating the new year with festivities in January—instead of waiting until September, as their grandparents would have done. Just last month, Peter the Great decreed that Russia would adopt the calendar used by western Europe. He ushered in the calendar change with a fireworks display and a week of public feasting.

Build It Today, Move in Tomorrow

Need a new house or a replacement part for your current dwelling? Check out the carpenter’s market at the end of any major street. There you’ll find logs cut in a variety of lengths and widths and marked for easy assembly. In addition, ready-made beams, roof shingles, and door and window frames are also offered for sale.

With a little help from your friends, you can move into your new house in almost no time at all. Some tips for keeping that new house cozy in the winter:

• Buy windows with double glass.
• Keep ceilings low.
• Stuff the spaces between the logs with moss.
• Make a steep roof so that snow will slide off.

Connect to History

Synthesizing How have Russians adapted to their cold climate? Discuss transportation, housing, and activities.

Researching At the library, research the records of the winter Olympics for the last 20 years to learn what events Russians (or Soviets) participated in and how many they won. What winter sports do modern Russians like and excel at?
Westernizing Russia  As part of his attempts to westernize Russia, Peter
• introduced potatoes, which became a staple of the Russian diet
• started Russia’s first newspaper and edited its first issue himself
• raised women’s status by having them attend social gatherings
• ordered the nobles to give up their traditional clothes for Western fashions

Peter also believed education was a key to Russia’s progress. In his journal, Peter (referring to himself as “the Czar”) described his efforts to advance learning:

A VOICE FROM THE PAST
A school of marine [navigation] was opened, and schools for the other arts and sciences began to be introduced gradually. . . . At the same time the Czar permitted his subjects to leave the country in order to study the sciences in foreign lands. This was forbidden in former times under pain of death, but now not only was permission given for it but many were forced to undertake it.

CZAR PETER I, quoted in Peter the Great, edited by L. Jay Oliva

A New Capital  To promote education and growth, Peter wanted a seaport that would make it easier to travel to the West. Therefore, Peter fought Sweden to gain a piece of the Baltic coast. After 21 long years of war, Russia finally won the “window on the sea” that Peter wanted.

Actually, Peter had secured that window many years before Sweden officially surrendered it. In 1703 he began building a new city on Swedish lands occupied by Russian troops. Although the swampy site was unhealthful, it seemed ideal to Peter. Ships could sail down the Neva River into the Baltic Sea and on to western Europe. Peter called the city St. Petersburg, after his patron saint.

To build a city on a desolate swamp was no easy matter. Every summer, the army forced thousands of luckless serfs to leave home and work at St. Petersburg. An estimated 25,000 to 100,000 people died from the terrible working conditions and widespread diseases. When St. Petersburg was finished, Peter ordered many Russian nobles to leave the comforts of Moscow and settle in his new capital.

For better or for worse, Peter the Great had tried to reform the culture and government of Russia. To an amazing extent he had succeeded. By the time of his death in 1725, Russia was a power to be reckoned with in Europe. Meanwhile, another great European power, England, had been developing a form of government that limited the power of absolute monarchs, as you will see in Section 5.

This 1753 painting shows a view of St. Petersburg from the water. The ships indicate that it did become a booming port, as Peter had wanted.
Setting the Stage  During her reign, Queen Elizabeth I of England had frequent conflicts with Parliament. Many of the arguments were over money, because the treasury did not have enough funds to pay the queen’s expenses. By the time Elizabeth died in 1603, she left a huge debt for her successor to deal with. Parliament’s financial power was one obstacle to English rulers’ becoming absolute monarchs.

Monarchs Clash with Parliament  Elizabeth had no child, and her nearest relative was her cousin, James Stuart. Already king of Scotland, James Stuart became King James I of England in 1603. Although England and Scotland were not united until 1707, they now shared a ruler.

James's Problems  James inherited the unsettled issues of Elizabeth's reign. The key question was how much power Parliament would have in governing. James believed he had absolute authority to rule. He said in a speech, “Kings are justly called gods, for that they exercise a manner or resemblance of divine power upon earth.”

Elizabeth had also believed in her divine right to rule, but she was more tactful than James. She flattered Parliament to get her way. James thought it was beneath him to try to win Parliament’s favor. His worst struggles with Parliament were over money. Parliament was reluctant to pay for James’s expensive court and foreign wars.

In addition, James offended the Puritan members of Parliament. Because James was a Calvinist, the Puritans hoped he would enact reforms to purify the English church of Catholic practices. However, James resented being told what to do. Except for agreeing to a new translation of the Bible, he refused to make Puritan reforms.

Charles I Fights Parliament  In 1625, James I died. Charles I, his son, took the throne. Charles always needed money—in part because he was at war with both Spain and France. Several times when Parliament refused to give him funds, he dissolved it.

By 1628, Charles was forced to call Parliament again. This time it refused to grant him any money until he signed a document that is known as the Petition of Right. In this petition, the king agreed to four points:

- He would not imprison subjects without due cause.
- He would not levy taxes without Parliament’s consent.
- He would not house soldiers in private homes.
- He would not impose martial law in peacetime.

After agreeing to the petition, Charles ignored it. Even so, the petition was important. It set forth the idea that the law was higher than the person in power.
Cromwell now held the reins of power. In 1649, he abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords. He established a commonwealth—a republican form of government. In 1653, Cromwell sent the remaining members of Parliament home. Cromwell’s associate John Lambert drafted a constitution, the first written constitution of any modern European state. However, Cromwell eventually tore up the document and ruled as a military dictator.

English Civil War

Charles offended Puritans by upholding church ritual and a formal prayer book. In addition, in 1637, Charles tried to force the Presbyterian Scots to accept a version of the Anglican prayer book. He wanted both his kingdoms to follow one religion. The Scots rebelled, assembled a huge army, and threatened to invade England. To meet this danger, Charles needed money—money he could get only by calling Parliament into session. This gave Parliament a chance to oppose him.

War Topples a King During the autumn of 1641, Parliament passed laws to limit royal power. Furious, Charles tried to arrest Parliament’s leaders in January 1642, but they escaped. Equally furious, a mob of Londoners raged outside the palace. Charles fled London and raised an army in the north of England, where people were loyal to him.

From 1642 to 1649, supporters and opponents of King Charles fought the English Civil War. Those who remained loyal to Charles were called Royalists or Cavaliers. On the other side were Puritan supporters of Parliament. Because these men wore their hair short over their ears, Cavaliers mockingly called them Roundheads.

At first neither side could gain a lasting advantage. However, by 1644 the Puritans found a general who could win—Oliver Cromwell. In 1646, Cromwell’s New Model Army defeated the Cavaliers. By the following year, the Puritans held the king prisoner.

In 1649, Cromwell and the Puritans brought Charles to trial for treason. They found him guilty and sentenced him to death. The execution of Charles was revolutionary. Kings had often been overthrown, killed in battle, or put to death in secret. Never before had a reigning monarch faced a public trial and execution.

Cromwell’s Rule Cromwell now held the reins of power. In 1649, he abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords. He established a commonwealth—a republican form of government. In 1653, Cromwell sent the remaining members of Parliament home. Cromwell’s associate John Lambert drafted a constitution, the first written constitution of any modern European state. However, Cromwell eventually tore up the document and ruled as a military dictator.
Cromwell almost immediately had to put down a rebellion in Ireland. Henry VIII and his children had brought that country under English rule. In 1649 Cromwell landed on Irish shores with an army and crushed the uprising. The lands and homes of the Irish were taken from them and given to English soldiers. Fighting, plague, and famine killed an estimated 616,000 Irish.

**Puritan Morality**  In England, Cromwell and the Puritans sought to reform society. They made laws that promoted Puritan morality and abolished activities they found sinful, such as going to the theater. In a speech, Cromwell explained his reasons for this:

*A VOICE FROM THE PAST*
I did hint to you my thoughts about the reformation of manners; and those abuses that are in this nation through disorder . . . should be much in your hearts. . . . I am confident our liberty and prosperity depends upon—reformation. To make it a shame to see men to be bold in sin and profaneness—and God will bless you. You will be a blessing to the nation.

**OLIVER CROMWELL**, speech of September 17, 1656

Although a strict Puritan, Cromwell favored religious toleration for all Christians except Catholics. He even welcomed back Jews, who had been expelled from England in 1290.

**Restoration and Revolution**
Oliver Cromwell ruled until his death in 1658. Shortly afterward, the government he had established collapsed, and a new Parliament was selected. The English people were sick of military rule. In 1659, Parliament voted to ask the older son of Charles I to rule England.

**Charles II Reigns**  When Prince Charles entered London in 1660, crowds shouted joyfully and bells rang. On this note of celebration, the reign of Charles II began. Because he restored the monarchy, the period of his rule is called the **Restoration**.

Charles also restored the theater, sporting events, and dancing, which the Puritans had banned. Theater, especially comedy, and the other arts flourished during the Restoration. For the first time, women appeared on the English stage to play female roles.

During Charles II’s reign, Parliament passed an important guarantee of freedom, **habeas corpus**. This 1679 law gave every prisoner the right to obtain a writ or document ordering that the prisoner be brought before a judge. The judge would decide whether the prisoner should be tried or set free. Because of the Habeas Corpus Act, a monarch could not put someone in jail simply for opposing the ruler. Also, prisoners could not be held indefinitely without trials.

In addition, Parliament debated who should inherit Charles’s throne. Because Charles had no legitimate child, his heir was his brother James, who was Catholic. A group called the Whigs opposed James, and a group called the Tories supported him. These two groups were the ancestors of England’s first political parties.
James II and the Glorious Revolution  In 1685, Charles II died, and James II became king. James soon offended his subjects by flaunting his Catholicism. Violating English law, he appointed several Catholics to high office. When Parliament protested, James dissolved it. In 1688, James's second wife gave birth to a son. English Protestants became terrified at the prospect of a line of Catholic kings. James had an older daughter, Mary, who was Protestant. She was also the wife of William of Orange, a prince of the Netherlands. Seven members of Parliament invited William and Mary to overthrow James for the sake of Protestantism. When William led his army to London in 1688, James fled to France. This bloodless overthrow of King James II is called the **Glorious Revolution**.

Political Changes

At their coronation, William and Mary vowed “to govern the people of this kingdom of England . . . according to the statutes in Parliament agreed on and the laws and customs of the same.” By doing so, William and Mary recognized Parliament as their partner in governing. England had become not an absolute monarchy but a **constitutional monarchy**, where laws limited the ruler's power.

**Bill of Rights** To make clear the limits of royal power, Parliament drafted a Bill of Rights in 1689. This document listed many things that a ruler could not do:

- No suspending of Parliament’s laws
- No levying of taxes without a specific grant from Parliament
- No interfering with freedom of speech in Parliament
- No penalty for a citizen who petitions the king about grievances

William and Mary officially consented to these and other limits on their royal power.

**Cabinet System Develops** After 1688, no British monarch could rule without consent of Parliament. At the same time, Parliament could not rule without the consent of the monarch. If the two disagreed, government came to a standstill.

During the 1700s, this potential problem was remedied by the development of a group of government ministers called the **cabinet**. These ministers acted in the ruler's name but in reality represented the major party of Parliament. Therefore, they became the link between the monarch and the majority in Parliament.

Over time, the cabinet became the center of power and policymaking. Under the cabinet system, the leader of the majority party in Parliament heads the cabinet and is called the prime minister. This system of English government continues today.

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**THINK THROUGH HISTORY**

**C. Contrasting** How was the overthrow of James II different from the overthrow of Charles II?

**Background**

This revolution marked a shift in loyalties away from a monarch to the nation or national government. This indicates growing nationalism in England.

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**CONNECT to TODAY**

**U.S. Democracy**

The United States adopted many of the government reforms and institutions that the English developed during this period. These include the following:

- the right to obtain **habeas corpus**—a document that prevents authorities from holding a person in jail without being charged
- a **Bill of Rights**, guaranteeing such rights as freedom of speech and freedom of worship
- a strong legislature and strong executive, which act as checks on each other
- a cabinet, made up of heads of executive departments, such as the Department of State
- two dominant political parties

**1. TERMS & NAMES**

- Charles I
- English Civil War
- Oliver Cromwell
- Restoration
- habeas corpus
- Glorious Revolution
- constitutional monarchy
- cabinet

**2. TAKING NOTES**

On a chart like the one shown, list the causes of each monarch’s conflicts with Parliament.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monarch</th>
<th>Conflicts with Parliament</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>James I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James II</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What patterns do you see in the causes of these conflicts?

---

**3. EVALUATING DECISIONS**

In your opinion, which decisions of Charles I made his conflict with Parliament worse? Explain.

**THINK ABOUT**

- decisions that lost him the support of Parliament
- decisions that lost him the support of his people

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**4. THEME ACTIVITY**

**Revolution** Summarize the ideas from the English Civil War and Glorious Revolution concerning separation of powers, liberty, equality, democracy, popular sovereignty, human rights, constitutionalism, and nationalism.

**Absolute Monarchs in Europe 539**
TERMS & NAMES
Briefly explain the importance of each of the following during the age of absolute monarchs in Europe.

1. absolute monarch
2. divine right
3. Louis XIV
4. War of the Spanish Succession
5. Thirty Years’ War
6. Seven Years’ War
7. Peter the Great
8. English Civil War
9. Glorious Revolution
10. constitutional monarchy

REVIEW QUESTIONS

SECTION 1 (pages 513–517)
Spain’s Empire and European Absolutism

11. Name three actions that demonstrate that Philip II of Spain saw himself as a defender of Catholicism.
12. According to French writer Jean Bodin, should a prince share power with anyone else? Explain why or why not.

SECTION 2 (pages 518–525)
France’s Ultimate Monarch

13. Name two ways that Louis XIV controlled the French nobility.
14. In what ways did Louis XIV cause suffering to the French people?

SECTION 3 (pages 526–530)
Central European Monarchs Clash

15. What were six results of the Peace of Westphalia?
16. What was the reason that Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great fought two wars against each other?

SECTION 4 (pages 531–535)
Russia Czars Increase Power

17. List three differences between Russia and western Europe.
18. What were Peter the Great’s goals for Russia?

SECTION 5 (pages 536–539)
Parliament Limits the English Monarchy

19. Describe the causes, participants, and outcome of the English Civil War.
20. List at least three ways that Parliament tried to limit the power of the English monarchy.

Interact with History
On page 512, you made decisions about what type of palace you would build if you were a monarch. Now that you have read the chapter, would you say that your palace was more like the one built by Philip II of Spain or that built by Louis XIV of France? Explain.
CHAPTER ACTIVITIES

1. LIVING HISTORY: Unit Portfolio Project

**Theme: Revolution**
Your unit portfolio project focuses on showing the causes and results of various revolutions (see page 509). For Chapter 21, you might use one of the following ideas.

- Peter the Great tried to revolutionize Russian culture and society. Create an educational poster that Peter could have used to explain one practice he wanted his people to give up and what he wanted them to replace it with.
- Write an editorial stating whether you think the English Civil War or the Glorious Revolution was more revolutionary. To support your opinion, examine both short-term and long-term effects.
- Write a HistoryMaker, like the ones you’ve read throughout this textbook, focusing on Oliver Cromwell as a leader of a revolution.

2. CONNECT TO TODAY: Cooperative Learning

One of the ideas that came out of this period is that Parliament should prevent the English monarch from exercising too much power. In the United States, the legislative body also limits the power of the head of government. At the same time, in the United States the head of government—or chief executive—also limits the power of the legislature. Create a diagram that shows how these two branches of government limit each other’s power.

Use the Internet, the library, or other sources to research the various branches of the U.S. national government.

- Identify the legislative and executive branches of government and the powers of each. Especially note how each branch acts to limit the power of the other.
- Display this information on a diagram. Some of the diagrams in this textbook might provide ideas for how to use visual elements such as arrows to demonstrate relationships.

3. INTERPRETING A TIME LINE

Revisit the unit time line on pages 508–509. Use the Chapter 21 time line to find out when Louis XIV began his reign. What happened in England shortly after Louis took the throne? How might that have affected his views on monarchy?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. IMPROVING THE ECONOMY

**Theme: Economics**
Of all the monarchs that you studied in this chapter, which one do you think helped his or her country’s economy the most? Explain your answer by citing evidence from the chapter.

2. MONARCHS RULE ABSOLUTELY

Create a chart like the one shown. In the left-hand column of your chart, list actions that absolute monarchs often took to increase their power. Then for each action, name at least one monarch who actually did that. Use at least five different monarchs in your chart as examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions of absolute monarchs</th>
<th>Example of a monarch who did this</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. LAND GRABBERS

Many of the monarchs that you studied in this chapter tried to increase their countries’ territory. Why might an absolute monarch want to gain territory? Explain what benefits these monarchs hoped to gain.

4. ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES

After the Glorious Revolution of 1688, Parliament passed the Bill of Rights in 1689. The following is an excerpt from that document. Read it and then answer the questions that follow.

**A Voice from the Past**

That the pretended power of suspending [canceling] of laws or the execution [carrying out] of laws by regal authority without consent of Parliament is illegal; . . .

That it is the right of the subjects to petition [make requests of] the king, and all commitments [imprisonments] and prosecutions for such petitioning are illegal;

That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of Parliament, is against the law; . . .

That election of members of Parliament ought to be free [not restricted].

**English Bill of Rights**

- In what ways did Parliament limit the power of the monarch?
- How did the Parliament try to protect itself?

**Additional Test Practice**, pp. S1–S33

**Focus on Geography**

On the map, notice which modern European nations are still ruled by royal monarchs. Connect to History

- Which of those countries was a republic during the period of this chapter?
- Did the countries whose rulers exercised the most power retain the monarchy? Explain.