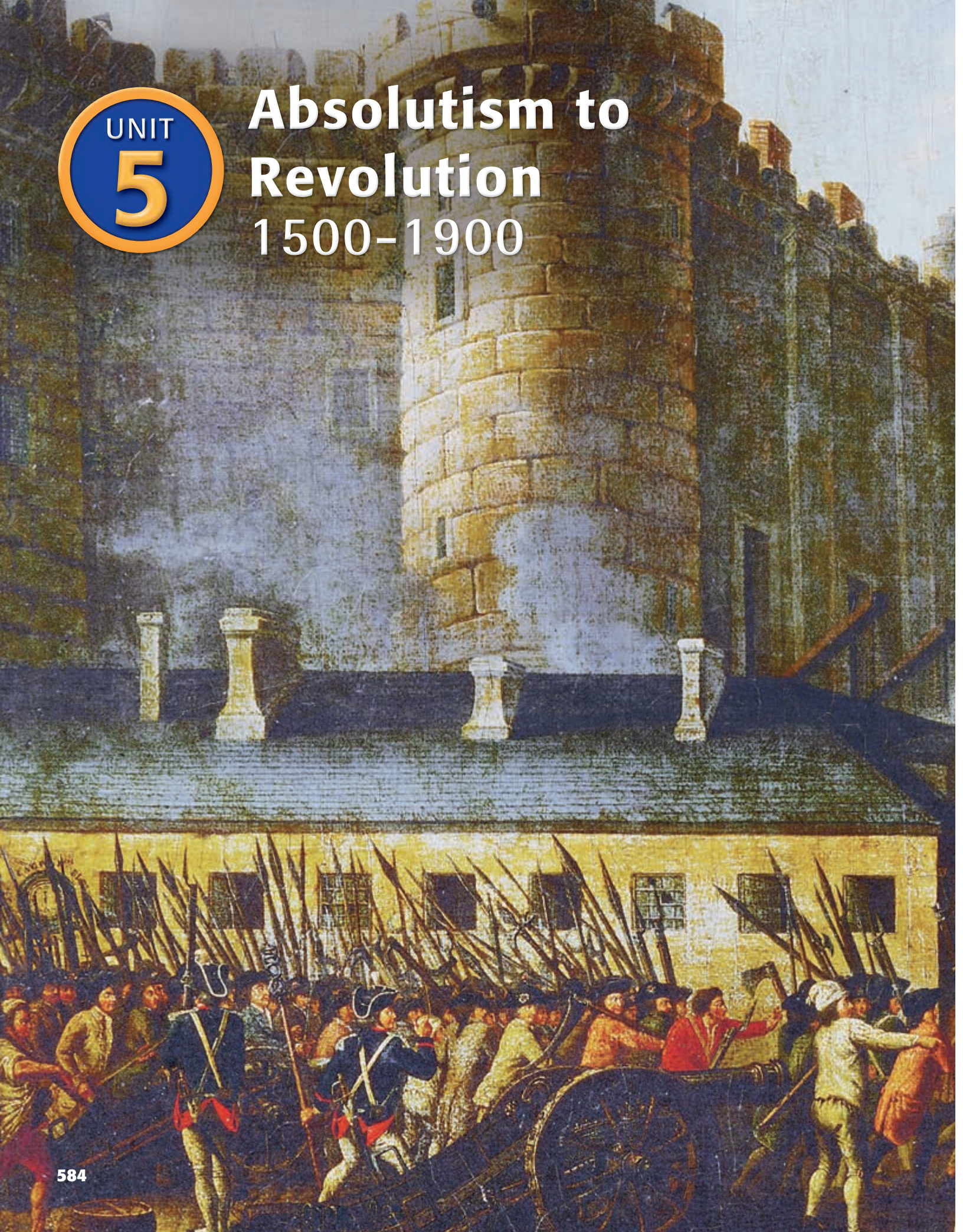# Absolutism to Revolution
1500–1900

On July 14, 1789, an angry French mob attacked the Bastille, a state prison in Paris, because it was looking for arms and gunpowder. The capture of this prison is considered the beginning of the French Revolution.

Comparing & Contrasting

Political Revolutions

In Unit 5, you will learn that new ideas about human rights and government led to political revolutions in many countries during the late 1700s and the 1800s. At the end of the unit, you will have a chance to compare and contrast those revolutions. (See pages 706–711.)

Absolute Monarchs in Europe, 1500–1800

Previewing Themes

POWER AND AUTHORITY As feudalism declined, stronger national kingdoms in Spain, France, Austria, Prussia, and Russia emerged under the control of absolute rulers.

Geography *Study the map. What large empire was surrounded by many of these national kingdoms?*

ECONOMICS Absolute rulers wanted to control their countries' economies so that they could free themselves from limitations imposed by the nobility. In France, Louis XIV's unrestrained spending left his country with huge debts.

Geography *What other evidence of unrestrained spending by an absolute ruler does the time line suggest?*

REVOLUTION In Great Britain, Parliament and the British people challenged the monarch's authority. The overthrow of the king led to important political changes.

Geography *Study the map and the time line. Which British Stuart lands were most affected by the event occurring in 1649?*

1588
◄ British defeat Philip II's Spanish Armada.

EUROPE

1500

1600

WORLD

1521
Cortés conquers Aztec Empire.

1533
Pizarro conquers Incan Empire. ►

1603
Tokugawa shoguns rule Japan.

Europe, 1650

0   250   500 Miles
0   250   500 Kilometers
Conic Projection

N
W   E
S

SWEDEN

NORWAY
DENMARK

INGRIA
ESTONIA
LIVONIA

RUSSIA

Moscow

LITHUANIA

SCOTLAND

North Sea

Baltic Sea

PRUSSIA

Danzig

IRELAND

UNITED
NETHERLANDS

Hamburg

BRANDENBURG

Warsaw

POLAND

ENGLAND

Amsterdam

Magdeburg

London

Utrecht

ATLANTIC
OCEAN

SPANISH
NETH.

HOLY
ROMAN
EMPIRE

Kiev

Paris

Prague

AUSTRIA

NANTES

FRANCHE-
COMTÉ

Augsburg

Vienna

CHAROLAIS

SWISS
CONFED.

HUNGARY

FRANCE

Milan

PORTUGAL

ITALIAN
STATES

PAPAL
STATES

Lisbon

Madrid

CORSICA

Rome

Adriatic Sea

SPAIN

Balearic Is.

SARDINIA
(SPAIN)

Naples

KINGDOM
OF
NAPLES

Mediterranean Sea
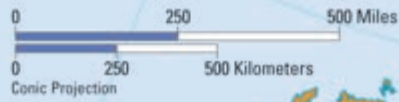
HISTORY

Ivan the Terrible:
Might and Madness

hmhsocialstudies.com VIDEO

1643
Louis XIV
begins to
rule France.

1649
Puritans under Oliver
Cromwell (at right)
execute English king. ▶

1696
Peter the Great
becomes sole
czar of Russia.

1756
Prussian king Frederick
the Great begins Seven
Years' War against Austria.

1700

1800

1631
Shah Jahan orders
construction of
Taj Mahal. ▶

1776
American colonists
declare their independence
from England.

What are the benefits and drawbacks of having an absolute ruler?

You live under the most powerful monarch in 17th-century Europe, Louis XIV of France, shown below. As Louis's subject, you feel proud and well protected because the French army is the strongest in Europe. But Louis's desire to gain lands for France and battle enemies has resulted in costly wars. And he expects you and his other subjects to pay for them.

hmhsocialstudies.com **INTERACTIVE**

1 Louis XIV uses his clothing to demonstrate his power and status, as his portrait shows. The gold flower on his robe is the symbol of French kings.

2 Louis's love of finery is apparent not only in his clothing but also in the ornate setting for this painting. As absolute ruler, Louis imposes taxes to pay for the construction of a magnificent new palace and to finance wars.

3 The government of Louis XIV enforces laws and provides security. His sword, scepter, and crown symbolize the power he wields. Yet the French people have no say in what laws are passed or how they are enforced.

EXAMINING *the* ISSUES

- **What might people gain from having a ruler whose power is total, or absolute?**
- **What factors might weaken the power of an absolute monarch?**

As a class, discuss these questions. You may want to refer to earlier rulers, such as those of the Roman, Ottoman, and Carolingian empires. As you read about absolute monarchs in Europe, notice what strengthened and weakened their power.

Spain's Empire and European Absolutism

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
ECONOMICS During a time of religious and economic instability, Philip II ruled Spain with a strong hand.	When faced with crises, many heads of government take on additional economic or political powers.	• Philip II • divine right • absolute monarch

SETTING THE STAGE As you learned in Chapter 18, from 1520 to 1566, Suleyman I exercised great power as sultan of the Ottoman Empire. A European monarch of the same period, Charles V, came close to matching Suleyman'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.

A Powerful Spanish Empire

A devout Catholic, Charles not only fought Muslims but also opposed Lutherans. In 1555, he unwillingly agreed to the Peace of Augsburg, which 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. He was also very hard working. Yet Philip would not allow anyone to help him. Deeply suspicious, he trusted no one for long. As his own court historian wrote, "His smile and his dagger were very close."

Perhaps above all, Philip 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, or ships. 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 about 50,000 soldiers.
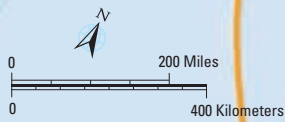
Defender of Catholicism When Philip assumed the throne, Europe was experiencing religious wars caused by the Reformation. However, religious conflict was not new to Spain. The Reconquista, the campaign to drive Muslims from Spain, had been completed only 64 years before. In addition, Philip's great-grandparents

Defeat of the Spanish Armada, 1588

Legend:
- → Route of the Armada
- → Route of the English fleet
- ⛵ Some shipwreck sites
- 🟧 Spanish Hapsburg lands

SCOTLAND

IRELAND

ATLANTIC OCEAN

ENGLAND

Plymouth

London

Dover

Calais

North Sea

SPANISH NETHERLANDS

English Channel

0 — 200 Miles
0 — 400 Kilometers

Bay of Biscay

FRANCE

La Coruña

Santander
Late September, 1588

PORTUGAL

Lisbon
Late May, 1588

S P A I N

In the summer of 1588, Philip II sent about 130 ships carrying 19,000 soldiers to the English Channel. English warships, however, outmaneuvered the Spanish vessels and bombarded the Armada with their heavier long-range cannons.

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INTERACTIVE HISTORY

Follow the events that led to the wreck of the Spanish Armada.

ENGLAND

0 — 50 Miles
0 — 100 Kilometers

✴ Major battles

London

Dover

Calais

Gravelines

Aug. 8

SP. NETH.

Plymouth

Portland Bill

Isle of Wight

Aug. 2

Aug. 3

Aug. 4

July 31

English Channel

FRANCE

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER:
Interpreting Maps

1. **Location** *Off what English town did the first clash between the Spanish Armada and the English fleet take place?*
2. **Movement** *Why do you think the Spanish captains chose to sail north around Scotland rather than take the more direct route home back through the English Channel?*

590

Isabella and Ferdinand had used the Inquisition to investigate suspected heretics, or nonbelievers in Christianity.

Philip 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. More than 200 Spanish and Venetian ships defeated a large Ottoman fleet in a fierce battle near Lepanto. In 1588, Philip launched the Spanish Armada in an attempt to punish Protestant England and its queen, Elizabeth I. Elizabeth had supported Protestant subjects who had rebelled against Philip. However, his fleet was defeated. (See map opposite.)

Although this setback seriously weakened Spain, 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. **A**

Golden Age of Spanish Art and Literature

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.

El Greco and Velázquez 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, reflected the pride of the Spanish 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.

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 who went a little crazy after reading too many books about heroic knights.

▼ In *Las Meninas (The Maids of Honor)*, Velázquez depicts King Philip IV's daughter and her attendants.

Hoping to "right every manner of wrong," Don Quixote rode forth in a rusty suit of armor, mounted on a feeble horse. At one point, he mistook some windmills for giants:

PRIMARY SOURCE
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 the 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 in 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.

The Spanish Empire Weakens

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 is a decline in the value of money, accompanied by a rise in the prices of goods and services. Inflation in Spain had two main 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. People needed more and more 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 business-people. 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. As a result, 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. **B**

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 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. Philip then sent an

Global Impact

Tulip Mania

Tulips came to Europe from Turkey around 1550. People went wild over the flowers and began to buy rare varieties. However, the supply of tulips could not meet the demand, and prices began to rise. Soon people were spending all their savings on bulbs and taking out loans so that they could buy more.

Tulip mania reached a peak between 1633 and 1637. Soon after, tulip prices sank rapidly. Many Dutch families lost property and were left with bulbs that were nearly worthless.
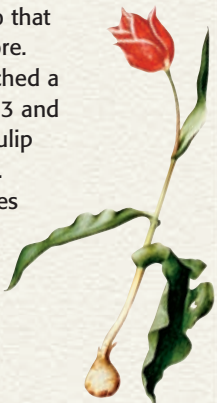
MAIN IDEA

Identifying Problems

B Why didn't Spain's economy benefit from the gold and silver from the Americas?

army under the Spanish duke of Alva to punish the rebels. On a single day in 1568, the duke executed 1,500 Protestants and suspected rebels.

The Dutch continued to fight the Spanish for another 11 years. 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, the people there practiced religious toleration. 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 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.

Rembrandt van Rijn (REHM•BRANT vahn RYN) was the greatest Dutch artist of the period. Rembrandt painted portraits of wealthy middle-class merchants. He also produced group portraits. In *The Night Watch* (shown below), he portrayed a group of city guards. Rembrandt used sharp contrasts of light and shadow to draw attention to his focus.

Another artist fascinated with the effects of light and dark was Jan Vermeer (YAHN vuhr•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. The work of both Rembrandt and Vermeer reveals how important merchants, civic leaders, and the middle class in general were in 17th-century Netherlands.

◄ In *The Night Watch,* Rembrandt showed the individuality of each man by capturing distinctive facial expressions and postures.

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. The Dutch had the largest fleet of ships in the world—perhaps 4,800 ships in 1636. This fleet helped the Dutch East India Company (a trading company controlled by the Dutch government) to dominate the Asian spice trade and the Indian Ocean trade. Gradually, the Dutch replaced the Italians as the bankers of Europe.

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 on their power.

The Theory of Absolutism These rulers wanted to be **absolute monarchs**, kings or queens who held all of the power within their states' boundaries. 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. **C**

MAIN IDEA

Drawing Conclusions
C How was Philip II typical of an absolute monarch?

> ## Analyzing Key Concepts

Absolutism

Absolutism was the political belief that one ruler should hold all of the power within the boundaries of a country. Although practiced by several monarchs in Europe during the 16th through 18th centuries, absolutism has been used in many regions throughout history. In ancient times, Shi Huangdi in China, Darius in Persia, and the Roman caesars were all absolute rulers. (See Chapters 4, 5, and 6.)

Causes

- Religious and territorial conflicts created fear and uncertainty.
- The growth of armies to deal with conflicts caused rulers to raise taxes to pay troops.
- Heavy taxes led to additional unrest and peasant revolts.

ABSOLUTISM

Effects

- Rulers regulated religious worship and social gatherings to control the spread of ideas.
- Rulers increased the size of their courts to appear more powerful.
- Rulers created bureaucracies to control their countries' economies.

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts

1. **Making Inferences** *Why do you think absolute rulers controlled social gatherings?*
   See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R10.

2. **Hypothesizing** *Today several nations of the world (such as Saudi Arabia) have absolute rulers. Judging from what you know of past causes of absolutism, why do you think absolute rulers still exist today?*

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:

> **PRIMARY SOURCE**
> 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 brought about 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. 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. You'll learn more about him in the next section.
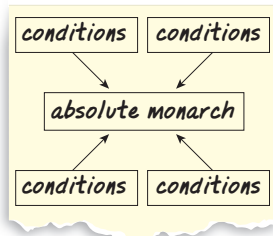

SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Philip II   • absolute monarch   • divine right

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which condition is probably most necessary for a monarch to gain power? Why?

| conditions | conditions |

absolute monarch

| conditions | conditions |

MAIN IDEAS

3. What is the significance of England's defeat of the Spanish Armada?

4. Why did the Dutch revolt against Spain?

5. Why did absolute monarchs believe that they were justified in exercising absolute power?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

6. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS What does the art described in this section reveal about the cultures of Spain and the Netherlands?

7. ANALYZING CAUSES What role did religion play in the struggle between the Spanish and the Dutch?

8. MAKING INFERENCES How did the lack of a middle class contribute to the decline of Spain's economy?

9. WRITING ACTIVITY ECONOMICS Write a **comparison-contrast paragraph** on the economies of Spain and the Netherlands around 1600.

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY **CREATING A GRAPH**

21st CENTURY Use the Internet to identify the religious affiliations of people in Spain and in the Netherlands today. Create a **graph** for each country showing the results of your research.

INTERNET KEYWORD
religion in Spain; religion in the Netherlands

The Reign of Louis XIV

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
POWER AND AUTHORITY After a century of war and riots, France was ruled by Louis XIV, the most powerful monarch of his time.	Louis's abuse of power led to revolution that would inspire the call for democratic government throughout the world.	• Edict of Nantes • Cardinal Richelieu • skepticism • Louis XIV • intendant • Jean Baptiste Colbert • War of the Spanish Succession

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. Between 1562 and 1598, Huguenots and Catholics fought eight religious wars. Chaos spread through France.

Religious Wars and Power Struggles

In 1572, the St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre in Paris sparked a six-week, nationwide slaughter of Huguenots. 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.

Henry of Navarre 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 reportedly 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 (RIHSH•uh•LOO) became, in effect, the ruler of France. For 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.

Richelieu 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 take away the Huguenots' right to worship, he forbade Protestant cities to have 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. The king relied on these agents, so there was less need 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. The Hapsburgs ruled Spain, Austria, the Netherlands, and parts of the Holy Roman Empire. To limit Hapsburg power, Richelieu involved France in the Thirty Years' War. **A**

▲ Cardinal Richelieu probably had himself portrayed in a standing position in this-painting to underscore his role as ruler.

Writers Turn Toward 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.

Montaigne and Descartes Michel de Montaigne lived during the worst years of the French religious wars. After the death of a dear friend, Montaigne 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.

Another French writer of the time, René Descartes, was a brilliant thinker. In his *Meditations on 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

Louis XIV
1638–1715

Although Louis XIV stood only 5 feet 5 inches tall, his erect and dignified posture made him appear much taller. (It also helped that he wore high-heeled shoes.)

Louis had very strong likes and dislikes. He hated cities and loved to travel through France's countryside. The people who traveled with him were at his mercy, however, for he allowed no stopping except for his own comfort.

It is small wonder that the vain Louis XIV liked to be called the Sun King. He believed that, as with the sun, all power radiated from him.

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Louis XIV.

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this, he became an important figure in the Enlightenment, which you will read about in Chapter 22.

Louis XIV Comes to Power

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, he was only a four-year-old boy when he began his reign.

Louis, the Boy King When Louis became king in 1643 after the death of his father, Louis XIII, the true ruler of France was Richelieu's successor, Cardinal Mazarin (MAZ•uh•RAN). Mazarin's greatest triumph came in 1648, with the ending of the Thirty Years' War.

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 nobles' 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. **B**

Louis Weakens the Nobles' Authority When Cardinal Mazarin died in 1661, the 22-year-old Louis took control of the government himself. He 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 trade and wealth.

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

B What effects did the years of riots have on Louis XIV? on his subjects?

Vocabulary

mercantilism: the economic theory that nations should protect their home industries and export more than they import

After Colbert's death, Louis announced a policy that slowed France's economic progress. In 1685, he canceled 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.

The Sun King'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.

▼ Though full of errors, Saint-Simon's memoirs provide valuable insight into Louis XIV's character and life at Versailles.

Louis Controls the Nobility Every morning, the chief valet woke Louis at 8:30. 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:

PRIMARY SOURCE **C**

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, about 11 miles southwest of Paris.

As you can see from the pictures on the following page, 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. 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.

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.

Not since Augustus of Rome had there been a European monarch who supported 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.

Absolute Monarchs in Europe **599**

The Palace at Versailles

Louis XIV's palace at Versailles was proof of his absolute power. Only a ruler with total control over his country's economy could afford such a lavish palace. It cost an estimated $2.5 billion in 2003 dollars. Louis XIV was also able to force 36,000 laborers and 6,000 horses to work on the project.

Many people consider the Hall of Mirrors the most beautiful room in the palace. Along one wall are 17 tall mirrors. The opposite wall has 17 windows that open onto the gardens. The hall has gilded statues, crystal chandeliers, and a painted ceiling.

It took so much water to run all the fountains at once that it was done only for special events. On other days, when the king walked in the garden, servants would turn on fountains just before he reached them. The fountains were turned off after he walked away.

The gardens at Versailles remain beautiful today. Originally, Versailles was built with:
• 5,000 acres of gardens, lawns, and woods
• 1,400 fountains

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Visuals

1. **Analyzing Motives** *Why do you think Louis XIV believed he needed such a large and luxurious palace? Explain what practical and symbolic purposes Versailles might have served.*
2. **Developing Historical Perspective** *Consider the amount of money and effort that went into the construction of this extravagant palace. What does this reveal about the way 17th-century French society viewed its king?*

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 ten times as many as the Dutch republic. The French army 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 in an effort to expand France's boundaries. 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 Europeanwide alliance had formed to stop France. By banding 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 Austrian Hapsburg emperor, the kings of Sweden and Spain, and the leaders of several smaller European states. 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. **D**

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 16-year-old grandson, Philip of Anjou. The two greatest powers in Europe, enemies for so long, were now both ruled by the French 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 to prevent the union of the French and Spanish thrones. The long struggle that followed is known as the **War of the Spanish Succession**.

The costly war dragged on until 1714. 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.
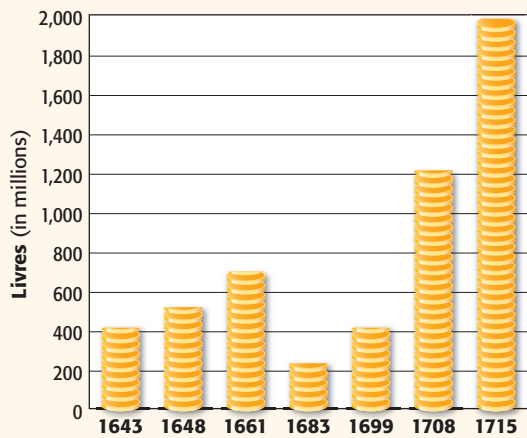
▼ The painting below shows the Battle of Denain, one of the last battles fought during the War of the Spanish Succession.

Debt of the Royal Family, 1643–1715

Livres (in millions)

2,000
1,800
1,600
1,400
1,200
1,000
800
600
400
200
0

1643 1648 1661 1683 1699 1708 1715

A livre is equal to approximately $10.50 in 1992 U.S. dollars.
Source: *Early Modern France 1560–1715*

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts
1. **Comparing** *How many times greater was the royal debt in 1715 than in 1643?*
2. **Synthesizing** *What was the royal debt of 1715 equal to in 1992 dollars?*

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. On the positive side, France was certainly a power to be reckoned with in Europe. France ranked above all other European nations in art, literature, and statesmanship during Louis's reign. In addition, France was considered the military leader of Europe. This military might allowed France to develop a strong empire of colonies, which provided resources and goods for trade.

On the negative side, constant warfare and the construction of the Palace of Versailles plunged France into staggering debt. Also, resentment over the tax burden imposed on the poor and Louis's abuse of power would plague his heirs—and eventually lead to revolution.

Absolute rule didn't die with Louis XIV. His enemies in Prussia and Austria had been experimenting with their own forms of absolute monarchy, as you will learn in Section 3.
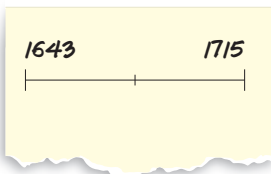

SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Edict of Nantes • Cardinal Richelieu • skepticism • Louis XIV • intendant • Jean Baptiste Colbert • War of the Spanish Succession

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which events on your time line strengthened the French monarchy? Which weakened it?

1643 ——————— 1715

MAIN IDEAS

3. What impact did the French religious wars have on French thinkers?

4. How did Jean Baptiste Colbert intend to stimulate economic growth in France?

5. What was the result of the War of the Spanish Succession?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

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

7. **RECOGNIZING EFFECTS** How did the policies of Colbert and Louis XIV affect the French economy? Explain both positive and negative effects.

8. **SYNTHESIZING** To what extent did anti-Protestantism contribute to Louis's downfall?

9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** POWER AND AUTHORITY Write a **character sketch** of Louis XIV. Discuss his experiences and character traits.

CONNECT TO TODAY **CREATING AN ORAL PRESENTATION**
Research to find out what happened to Versailles after Louis's death and what its function is today. Then present your findings in an **oral presentation.**

Central European Monarchs Clash

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
POWER AND AUTHORITY After a period of turmoil, absolute monarchs ruled Austria and the Germanic state of Prussia.	Prussia built a strong military tradition in Germany that contributed in part to world wars in the 20th century.	• Thirty Years' War • Maria Theresa • Frederick the Great • Seven Years' War

SETTING THE STAGE For a brief while, the German rulers appeared to have 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 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.

The Thirty Years' War

Both the Lutheran and the Catholic princes 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, it would take only a spark to 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 and territory and for power among European ruling families. The war can be divided into 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 its path.

Hapsburg Defeats The Hapsburg triumph would not last. In 1630, the Protestant Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden and his army shifted the tide of war.

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TAKING NOTES
Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the reigns of Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great.

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 it did not become a unified state until the 1800s.

The Peace of Westphalia (1648) ended the war. The treaty had these important consequences:
- weakened the Hapsburg states of Spain and Austria;
- strengthened France by awarding it German territory;
- made German princes independent of the Holy Roman emperor;
- ended religious wars in Europe;
- introduced a new method of peace negotiation whereby all participants meet to settle the problems of a war and decide the terms of peace. This method is still used today. Ⓐ

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 equal, independent states. This marked the beginning of the modern state system and was the most important result of the Thirty Years' War.

Europe After the Thirty Years' War, 1648

hmhsocialstudies.com **INTERACTIVE MAP**

Population Losses

Up to 15%   34–66%
15–33%   Over 66%   The Holy Roman Empire

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Place** *Name at least five modern European countries that existed at the end of the Thirty Years' War.*
2. **Region** *Refer to the inset map. Which regions lost the most population in the Thirty Years' War?*

States Form in Central Europe

Strong states formed more slowly in central Europe than in western Europe. The major powers of this region were the kingdom of Poland, the Holy Roman Empire, and the Ottoman Empire. None of them was very strong in the mid-1600s.

Economic Contrasts with the West 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.

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.

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. As a result, there was not a strong ruler who could form a unified state.

The two empires of central Europe were also weak. Although Suleyman 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. 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 Ottoman Empire.

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. With 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 state to the north of Austria. (See map opposite.)

▼ The imperial crest of the Hapsburgs shows a double-headed eagle with a crown.

Absolute Monarchs in Europe **605**

Maria Theresa
1717–1780

An able ruler, Maria Theresa also devoted herself to her children, whom she continued to advise even after they were grown. Perhaps her most famous child was Marie Antoinette, wife of Louis XVI of France.

As the Austrian empress, Maria Theresa decreased the power of the nobility. She also 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 and a huge family, while 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." Frederick earned the title "the Great" by achieving his goals for Prussia.

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INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to create a family tree showing Maria Theresa's parents and children.

Prussia Challenges Austria

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 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 I bought their cooperation. He gave the Junkers the exclusive right to be officers in his army. As a result, Prussia became a rigidly controlled, highly militarized society. **B**

Frederick the Great 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 power. However, he also softened some of his father's laws. With regard to domestic affairs, he encouraged religious toleration and legal reform. According to his theory of government, Frederick believed that a ruler should be like a father to his people:

MAIN IDEA

Clarifying
B What steps did the Prussian monarchs take to become absolute monarchs?

PRIMARY SOURCE
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*

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 underestimated Maria Theresa's strength. He assumed that because she 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. **C**

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 in the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. With the acquisition of Silesia, Prussia became a major European power.

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.

SECTION **3** **ASSESSMENT**

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
- Thirty Years' War
- Maria Theresa
- Frederick the Great
- Seven Years' War

USING YOUR NOTES

2. In what ways were the rulers similar?

Maria Theresa	Frederick the Great

MAIN IDEAS

3. What were the major conflicts in the Thirty Years' War?

4. What steps did the Austrian Hapsburgs take toward becoming absolute monarchs?

5. What countries were allies during the Seven Years' War?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

6. RECOGNIZING EFFECTS How did the Peace of Westphalia lay the foundations of modern Europe?

7. ANALYZING MOTIVES Why did Maria Theresa make an alliance with the French kings, Austria's chief enemies?

8. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Based on Frederick's assumption about Maria Theresa at the outset of the War of the Austrian Succession, what conclusions can you draw about how men viewed women in 1700s Europe?

9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY Write an **outline** for a lecture on "How to Increase Royal Power and Become an Absolute Monarch."

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A POSTER

Today much of western Europe belongs to an organization called the European Union (EU). Find out which countries belong to the EU and how they are linked economically and politically. Present your findings—including maps, charts, and pictures—in a **poster.**

Absolute Rulers of Russia

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
POWER AND AUTHORITY Peter the Great made many changes in Russia to try to make it more like western Europe.	Many Russians today debate whether to model themselves on the West or to focus on traditional Russian culture.	• Ivan the Terrible • Peter the Great • boyar • westernization

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. 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. This trend continued under his son, Ivan IV, who would become an absolute ruler.

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.

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 impostors 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). **A**

Peter the Great Comes to Power

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 his 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 Contrasts with Europe When Peter I came to power, Russia was still a land of boyars and serfs. Serfdom in Russia lasted into the mid-1800s, much longer than it did in western Europe. Russian landowners wanted serfs to stay on the land and produce large harvests. The landowners treated the serfs like property. When a Russian landowner sold a piece of land, he sold the serfs with it. Landowners could give away serfs 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 in northern Russia, 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. **B**

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 fascinated by the modern tools and machines in the foreigners' shops. Above all, he had a passion for ships and the sea. The young czar believed that Russia's future depended on having a warm-water port. Only then could Russia compete with the more modern states of western Europe.

Peter was 24 years old when he became the sole ruler of Russia. In 1697, just one year later, he embarked on the "Grand Embassy," a long visit to western Europe. One of Peter's goals was to learn about European customs and manufacturing techniques. Never before had a czar traveled among Western "heretics."

VIDEO
Peter the Great:
The Tyrant Reformer

⬈ hmhsocialstudies.com

History Makers

Peter the Great
1672–1725

Peter the Great had the mind of a genius, the body of a giant, and the ferocious temper of a bear. 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. If someone annoyed him, he would knock the offender unconscious.

The painting above represents Peter as he looked when he traveled through western Europe. He dressed in the plain clothes of an ordinary worker to keep his identity a secret.

⬈ **hmhsocialstudies.com**

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Peter the Great.

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. **C**

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 men from lower-ranking families. He then promoted them to positions of authority and rewarded them with grants of land.

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.

Westernizing Russia As part of his attempts to westernize Russia, Peter undertook the following:
- 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
- advanced education by opening a school of navigation and introducing schools for the arts and sciences

sidebar

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Bias

C Judging from this remark, what was Peter's view of his people?

The Expansion of Russia, 1500–1800

hmhsocialstudies.com **INTERACTIVE MAP**

1462	Acquisitions to 1682
Acquisitions to 1505	Acquisitions to 1725
Acquisitions to 1584	Acquisitions to 1796

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Location** Locate the territories that Peter added to Russia during his reign, from 1682 to 1725. What bodies of water did Russia gain access to because of these acquisitions?
2. **Region** Who added a larger amount of territory to Russia—Ivan III, who ruled from 1462 to 1505, or Peter the Great?

Peter believed that education was a key to Russia's progress. In former times, subjects were forbidden under pain of death to study the sciences in foreign lands. Now subjects were not only permitted to leave the country, many were forced to do it.

Establishing St. Petersburg 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 Europe" that Peter had so desperately 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 in 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. In time, St. Petersburg became a busy port. **D**

For better or for worse, Peter the Great had tried to westernize and 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.

MAIN IDEA

Synthesizing

D Which of Peter's actions in building St. Petersburg show his power as an absolute monarch?

Global Patterns

East Meets West

In the East, Western influence would affect not only Russia. Other eastern nations would give way—not always willingly—to the West and Western culture. In 1854, Japan was forced to open its doors to the United States. By 1867, however, Japan had decided to embrace Western civilization. The Japanese modernized their military based on the German and British models. They also adopted the American system of public education. China and Korea, on the other hand, would resist foreign intervention well into the 1900s.

SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Ivan the Terrible   • boyar   • Peter the Great   • westernization

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which event had the most impact on modern Russia? Why?

Peter the Great

MAIN IDEAS

3. How did Ivan the Terrible deal with his enemies during his "bad period"?

4. Why did Peter the Great believe that Russia's future depended on having a warm-water port?

5. What were some of the ways Peter tried to westernize Russia?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

6. SUPPORTING OPINIONS Who do you think was more of an absolute monarch: Ivan the Terrible or Peter the Great?

7. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Which class of Russian society probably didn't benefit from Peter's reforms? Why?

8. HYPOTHESIZING How might Peter's attempts at westernization have affected his people's opinion of Christians in western Europe?

9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY Write a one-paragraph **expository essay** explaining which of Peter the Great's actions reveal that he saw himself as the highest authority in Russia.

CONNECT TO TODAY **STAGING A DEBATE**

Peter the Great's reforms were a first step toward Russia's westernization. Today the country continues the process by experimenting with democratization. Research to find out how Russia has fared as a democracy. Then stage a **debate** to argue whether the experiment is working.

Surviving the Russian Winter

Much of Russia has severe winters. In Moscow, snow usually begins to fall in mid-October and lasts until mid-April. Siberia has been known to have temperatures as low as -90°F. Back in the 18th century, Russians did not have down parkas or high-tech insulation for their homes. But they had other ways to cope with the climate.

For example, in the 18th century, Russian peasants added potatoes and corn to their diet. During the winter, these nutritious foods were used in soups and stews. Such dishes were warming and provided plenty of calories to help fight off the cold.

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Russian winters.

Silver Samovar ▶
In the mid-18th century, samovars were invented in Russia. These large, often elaborately decorated urns were used to boil water for tea. Fire was kept burning in a tube running up the middle of the urn—keeping the water piping hot.

◀ Crimean Dress
These people are wearing the traditional dress of tribes from the Crimean Peninsula, a region that Russia took over in the 1700s. Notice the heavy hats, the fur trim on some of the robes, and the leggings worn by those with shorter robes. All these features help to conserve body heat.

▼ Troika
To travel in winter, the wealthy often used sleighs called troikas. *Troika* means "group of three"; the name comes from the three horses that draw this kind of sleigh. The middle horse trotted while the two outside horses galloped.

Winter Festival ▶

Russians have never let their climate stop them from having fun outdoors. Here, they are shown enjoying a Shrovetide festival, which occurs near the end of winter. Vendors sold food such as blinis (pancakes with sour cream). Entertainments included ice skating, dancing bears, and magic shows.
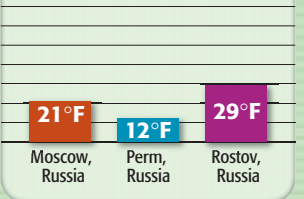
The people in the foreground are wearing heavy fur coats. Otter fur was often used for winter clothing. This fur is extremely thick and has about one million hairs per square inch.

▼ Wooden House

Wooden houses, made of logs, were common in Russia during Peter the Great's time. To insulate the house from the wind, people stuffed moss between the logs. Russians used double panes of glass in their windows. For extra protection, many houses had shutters to cover the windows. The roofs were steep so snow would slide off.

Connect *to* Today

1. **Making Inferences** In the 18th century, how did Russians use their natural resources to help them cope with the climate?

   See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R10.

2. **Comparing and Contrasting** How has coping with winter weather changed from 18th-century Russia to today's world? How has it stayed the same?

613

Parliament Limits the English Monarchy

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
REVOLUTION Absolute rulers in England were overthrown, and Parliament gained power.	Many of the government reforms of this period contributed to the democratic tradition of the United States.	• Charles I • English Civil War • Oliver Cromwell • Restoration • *habeas corpus*	• Glorious Revolution • constitutional monarchy • cabinet

SETTING THE STAGE During her reign, Queen Elizabeth I of England had 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 had left a huge debt for her successor to deal with. Parliament's financial power was one obstacle to English rulers' becoming absolute monarchs. The resulting struggle between Parliament and the monarchy would have serious consequences for England.

Monarchs Defy Parliament

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TAKING NOTES

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the causes of James I's, Charles I's, and James II's conflicts 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. His worst struggles with Parliament were over money. In addition, James offended the Puritan members of Parliament. The Puritans hoped he would enact reforms to purify the English church of Catholic practices. Except for agreeing to a new translation of the Bible, however, 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 king. This idea contradicted theories of absolute monarchy. In 1629, Charles dissolved Parliament and refused to call it back into session. To get money, he imposed all kinds of fees and fines on the English people. His popularity decreased year by year.

English Civil War

Charles offended Puritans by upholding the rituals of the Anglican Church. 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 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 1645, Cromwell's New Model Army began defeating the Cavaliers, and the tide turned toward the Puritans. In 1647, they held the king prisoner.

In 1649, Cromwell and the Puritans brought Charles to trial for treason against Parliament. 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, however, 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 home the remaining members of Parliament. 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 became a military dictator. **A**

Cromwell almost immediately had to put down a rebellion in Ireland. English colonization of Ireland had begun in the 1100s under Henry II. Henry VIII and his children had brought the country firmly under English rule in the 1500s. In 1649, Cromwell landed on Irish shores with an army and crushed the uprising. He seized the lands and homes of the Irish and gave them to English soldiers. Fighting, plague, and famine killed hundreds of thousands.

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 the theater, sporting events, and dancing. Although he was a strict

MAIN IDEA

Comparing
A What did Cromwell's rule have in common with an absolute monarchy?

▼ This engraving depicts the beheading of Charles I.

December 1642

SCOTLAND
North Sea
ENGLAND
Edgehill Oct. 1642
London
50°N

December 1643

SCOTLAND
North Sea
IRELAND
Adwalton Moor June 1643
ENGLAND
London

December 1644

SCOTLAND
North Sea
IRELAND
Marston Moor July 1644
ENGLAND
London

December 1645

SCOTLAND
IRELAND
ENGLAND
Naseby June 1645
London
50°N

58°N   0   250 Miles   58°N
0   500 Kilometers

■ Area controlled by Puritans
■ Area controlled by Royalists
✳ Battle

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Movement** *Explain which side gained and which side lost territory during each year from 1643 to 1645.*
2. **Place** *Which side maintained control of London? Why would this be important?*

Puritan, Cromwell favored religious toleration for all Christians except Catholics. He even allowed Jews to return; they 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**.

During Charles II's reign, Parliament passed an important guarantee of freedom, **habeas corpus**. *Habeas corpus* is Latin meaning "to have the body." This 1679 law gave every prisoner the right to obtain a writ or document ordering that the prisoner be brought before a judge to specify the charges against the prisoner. 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 displaying 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**. **B**

MAIN IDEA

Contrasting
B How was the overthrow of James II different from the overthrow of Charles I?

Limits on Monarch's Power

At their coronation, William and Mary vowed to recognize 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 consented to these and other limits on their royal power.

Cabinet System Develops After 1688, no British monarch could rule without the 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, or officials, 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 party 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.

Connect to Today

U.S. Democracy

Today, the United States still relies on 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

SECTION 5 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Charles I • English Civil War • Oliver Cromwell • Restoration • *habeas corpus* • Glorious Revolution • constitutional monarchy • cabinet

USING YOUR NOTES

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

Monarch	Conflicts with Parliament
James I	
Charles I	
James II	

MAIN IDEAS

3. Why was the death of Charles I revolutionary?

4. What rights were guaranteed by the Habeas Corpus Act?

5. How does a constitutional monarchy differ from an absolute monarchy?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

6. **EVALUATING DECISIONS** In your opinion, which decisions by Charles I made his conflict with Parliament worse? Explain.

7. **MAKING INFERENCES** Why do you think James II fled to France when William of Orange led his army to London?

8. **SYNTHESIZING** What conditions in England made the execution of one king and the overthrow of another possible?

9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** REVOLUTION Write a **persuasive essay** for an underground newspaper designed to incite the British people to overthrow Charles I.

CONNECT TO TODAY DRAWING A POLITICAL CARTOON

Yet another revolution threatens the monarchy today in Great Britain. Some people would like to see the monarchy ended altogether. Find out what you can about the issue and choose a side. Represent your position on the issue in an original **political cartoon.**

VISUAL SUMMARY

Absolute Monarchs in Europe

Long-Term Causes

- decline of feudalism
- rise of cities and support of middle class
- growth of national kingdoms
- loss of Church authority

Immediate Causes

- religious and territorial conflicts
- buildup of armies
- need for increased taxes
- revolts by peasants or nobles

European Monarchs Claim Divine Right to Rule Absolutely

Immediate Effects

- regulation of religion and society
- larger courts
- huge building projects
- new government bureaucracies appointed by the government
- loss of power by nobility and legislatures

Long-Term Effects

- revolution in France
- western European influence on Russia
- English political reforms that influence U.S. democracy

TERMS & NAMES

For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to European history from 1500 to 1800.

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

MAIN IDEAS

Spain's Empire and European Absolutism Section 1 (pages 589–595)

11. What three actions demonstrated 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.

The Reign of Louis XIV Section 2 (pages 596–602)

13. What strategies did Louis XIV use to control the French nobility?
14. In what ways did Louis XIV cause suffering to the French people?

Central European Monarchs Clash Section 3 (pages 603–607)

15. What were six results of the Peace of Westphalia?
16. Why did Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great fight two wars against each other?

Absolute Rulers of Russia Section 4 (pages 608–613)

17. What were three differences between Russia and western Europe?
18. What was Peter the Great's primary goal for Russia?

Parliament Limits the English Monarchy Section 5 (pages 614–617)

19. List the causes, participants, and outcome of the English Civil War.
20. How did Parliament try to limit the power of the English monarchy?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. USING YOUR NOTES

`POWER AND AUTHORITY` In a chart, list actions that absolute monarchs took to increase their power. Then identify the monarchs who took these actions.

Actions of Absolute Rulers	Monarchs Who Took Them

2. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS

`ECONOMICS` What benefits might absolute monarchs hope to gain by increasing their countries' territory?

3. DEVELOPING HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

What conditions fostered the rise of absolute monarchs in Europe?

4. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING

Compare the reign of Louis XIV with that of Peter the Great. Which absolute ruler had a more lasting impact on his country? Explain why.

5. HYPOTHESIZING

Would Charles I have had a different fate if he had been king of another country in western or central Europe? Why or why not?

Use the excerpt from the English Bill of Rights passed in 1689 and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

PRIMARY SOURCE

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

1. According to the excerpt, which of the following is illegal?
   A. the enactment of laws without Parliament's permission
   B. the unrestricted election of members of Parliament
   C. the right of subjects to make requests of the king
   D. keeping a standing army in time of peace with Parliament's consent

2. The English Bill of Rights was passed as a means to
   A. limit Parliament's power.
   B. increase Parliament's power.
   C. overthrow the monarch.
   D. increase the monarch's power.

Use the map and your knowledge of world history to answer question 3.

Modern European Monarchs, 2003
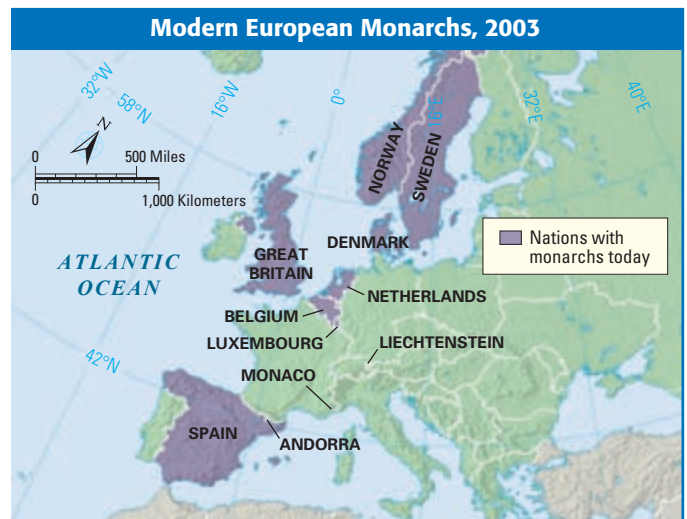
3. Of the countries that you studied in this chapter, which have monarchs today?
   A. Spain, Great Britain, the Netherlands
   B. Liechtenstein, Monaco
   C. Luxembourg, Andorra
   D. Great Britain, Norway, Sweden

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For additional test practice, go online for:
• Diagnostic tests
• Strategies
• Tutorials

Interact *with* History

On page 588, you thought about the advantages and disadvantages of absolute power. Now that you have read the chapter, what do you consider to be the main advantage and the main disadvantage of being an absolute ruler?

FOCUS ON WRITING

REVOLUTION Reread the information on Oliver Cromwell. Then write a **History Maker,** like the ones you've seen throughout this textbook, on Cromwell as a leader of a successful revolution. Be sure to
• include biographical information about Cromwell.
• discuss his effectiveness as a leader.
• use vivid language to hold your reader's attention.

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY

21ST CENTURY

Creating a Television News Report

Use a video recorder to tape a television news report on the trial of Charles I. Role-play an announcer reporting a breaking news story. Relate the facts of the trial and interview key participants, including:
• a member of Parliament
• a Puritan
• a Royalist
• Charles I

Enlightenment and Revolution, 1550–1789

Previewing Themes

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY The Scientific Revolution began when astronomers questioned how the universe operates. By shattering long-held views, these astronomers opened a new world of discovery.

Geography *In what Russian city did Enlightenment ideas bloom?*

POWER AND AUTHORITY The thinkers of the Enlightenment challenged old ideas about power and authority. Such new ways of thinking led to, among other things, the American Revolution.

Geography *Where had Enlightenment ideas spread outside Europe?*

REVOLUTION Between the 16th and 18th centuries, a series of revolutions helped to usher in the modern era in Western history. Revolutions in both thought and action forever changed European and American society.

Geography *What city in Brandenburg-Prussia was an Enlightenment center?*

EUROPE AND NORTH AMERICA

1543 Copernicus publishes heliocentric theory.

◀ **1609** Galileo observes heavens through a telescope similar to this one.

1500

1600

WORLD

◀ **1556** Golden Age of Mughal Empire begins in India. (portrait of Mughal princess)

1603 Tokugawa Ieyasu becomes ruler of all Japan.

Centers of Enlightenment, c. 1740

British North American Colonies

Boston
Philadelphia

N

0   150   300 Miles
0 150 300 Kilometers
Conic Projection

NORWAY

North Sea

Edinburgh

GREAT BRITAIN

London

IRELAND
Dublin

DENMARK
Copenhagen

Baltic Sea

EAST PRUSSIA

UNITED NETHERLANDS
Amsterdam

BRANDENBURG-PRUSSIA
Berlin

POLAND

AUSTRIAN NETH.

SAXONY

SMALL GERMAN STATES

Paris

FRANCE

AUSTRIA
Vienna

HUNGARY

SWITZERLAND

SAVOY

ITALIAN STATES

PAPAL STATES

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Adriatic Sea

PORTUGAL

Lisbon

Madrid

SPAIN

N W E S

SARDINIA (SAVOY)

KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES

⬥ Enlightenment Centers

0   250   500 Miles
0   250   500 Kilometers
Conic Projection

Mediterranean Sea

Sir Isaac Newton: The Gravity of Genius

hmhsocialstudies.com VIDEO

1687
Newton publishes treatise on law of gravity.

1776
◄ With Liberty Bell symbolizing their freedom, American colonies declare independence.

1789
Revolution erupts in France.

1700

1800

1644
Manchus invade China and establish Qing Dynasty. (Qing ruler Lohan) ▶

1722
Chinese emperor Kangxi dies after a 61-year reign.

1776
Tukolor Kingdom arises in the former Songhai region of West Africa.

How would you react to a revolutionary idea?

You are a university student during the late 1600s, and it seems that the world as you know it has turned upside down. An English scientist named Isaac Newton has just theorized that the universe is not a dark mystery but a system whose parts work together in ways that can be expressed mathematically. This is just the latest in a series of arguments that have challenged old ways of thinking in fields from astronomy to medicine. Many of these ideas promise to open the way for improving society. And yet they are such radical ideas that many people refuse to accept them.

▲ This painting by English artist Joseph Wright depicts adults and children gazing at a miniature planetarium and its new ideas about the universe.

EXAMINING *the* ISSUES

- **Why might people have difficulty accepting new ideas or ways of thinking?**

- **What are the risks of embracing a different idea? What are some risks of always refusing to do so?**

Meet in small groups and discuss these questions. As you discuss these and other issues, recall other times in history when people expressed ideas that were different from accepted ones. As you read this chapter, watch for the effects of revolutionary ideas, beliefs, and discoveries.

The Scientific Revolution

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY In the mid-1500s, scientists began to question accepted beliefs and make new theories based on experimentation.	Such questioning led to the development of the scientific method still in use today.	• geocentric theory • Scientific Revolution • heliocentric theory • Galileo Galilei • scientific method • Isaac Newton

SETTING THE STAGE As you recall, the period between 1300 and 1600 was a time of great change in Europe. The Renaissance, a rebirth of learning and the arts, inspired a spirit of curiosity in many fields. Scholars began to question ideas that had been accepted for hundreds of years. Meanwhile, the religious movement known as the Reformation prompted followers to challenge accepted ways of thinking about God and salvation. While the Reformation was taking place, another revolution in European thought had begun, one that would permanently change how people viewed the physical world.

The Roots of Modern Science

Before 1500, scholars generally decided what was true or false by referring to an ancient Greek or Roman author or to the Bible. Few European scholars challenged the scientific ideas of the ancient thinkers or the church by carefully observing nature for themselves.

The Medieval View During the Middle Ages, most scholars believed that the earth was an immovable object located at the center of the universe. According to that belief, the moon, the sun, and the planets all moved in perfectly circular paths around the earth. Common sense seemed to support this view. After all, the sun appeared to be moving around the earth as it rose in the morning and set in the evening.

This earth-centered view of the universe was called the **geocentric theory**. The idea came from Aristotle, the Greek philosopher of the fourth century B.C. The Greek astronomer Ptolemy (TOL•a•mee) expanded the theory in the second century A.D. In addition, Christianity taught that God had deliberately placed the earth at the center of the universe. Earth was thus a special place on which the great drama of life unfolded.

A New Way of Thinking Beginning in the mid-1500s, a few scholars published works that challenged the ideas of the ancient thinkers and the church. As these scholars replaced old assumptions with new theories, they launched a change in European thought that historians call the **Scientific Revolution**. The Scientific Revolution was a new way of thinking about the natural world. That way was based upon careful observation and a willingness to question accepted beliefs.

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TAKING NOTES

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the events and circumstances that led to the Scientific Revolution.

A combination of discoveries and circumstances led to the Scientific Revolution and helped spread its impact. During the Renaissance, European explorers traveled to Africa, Asia, and the Americas. Such lands were inhabited by peoples and animals previously unknown in Europe. These discoveries opened Europeans to the possibility that there were new truths to be found. The invention of the printing press during this period helped spread challenging ideas—both old and new—more widely among Europe's thinkers.

The age of European exploration also fueled a great deal of scientific research, especially in astronomy and mathematics. Navigators needed better instruments and geographic measurements, for example, to determine their location in the open sea. As scientists began to look more closely at the world around them, they made observations that did not match the ancient beliefs. They found they had reached the limit of the classical world's knowledge. Yet, they still needed to know more.

A Revolutionary Model of the Universe

An early challenge to accepted scientific thinking came in the field of astronomy. It started when a small group of scholars began to question the geocentric theory.

The Heliocentric Theory Although backed by authority and common sense, the geocentric theory did not accurately explain the movements of the sun, moon, and planets. This problem troubled 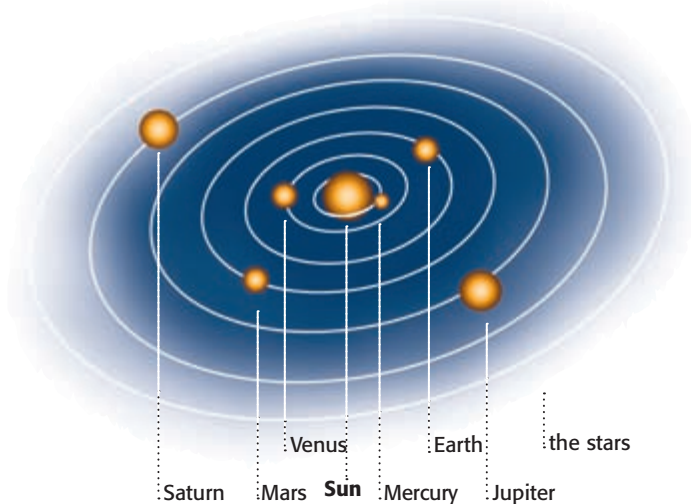a Polish cleric and astronomer named Nicolaus Copernicus (koh•PUR•nuh•kuhs). In the early 1500s, Copernicus became interested in an old Greek idea that the sun stood at the center of the universe. After studying planetary movements for more than 25 years, Copernicus reasoned that indeed, the stars, the earth, and the other planets revolved around the sun.

Copernicus's **heliocentric**, or sun-centered, **theory** still did not completely explain why the planets orbited the way they did. He also knew that most scholars and clergy would reject his theory because it contradicted their religious views.

Venus   Earth   the stars

Saturn   Mars   **Sun**   Mercury   Jupiter

▲ This model shows how Copernicus saw the planets revolving around the sun.

Fearing ridicule or persecution, Copernicus did not publish his findings until 1543, the last year of his life. He received a copy of his book, *On the Revolutions of the Heavenly Bodies,* on his deathbed.

While revolutionary, Copernicus's book caused little stir at first. Over the next century and a half, other scientists built on the foundations he had laid. A Danish astronomer, Tycho Brahe (TEE•koh brah), carefully recorded the movements of the planets for many years. Brahe produced mountains of accurate data based on his observations. However, it was left to his followers to make mathematical sense of them.

After Brahe's death in 1601, his assistant, a brilliant mathematician named Johannes Kepler, continued his work. After studying Brahe's data, Kepler concluded that certain mathematical laws govern planetary motion. One of these laws showed that the planets revolve around the sun in elliptical orbits instead of circles, as was previously thought. Kepler's laws showed that Copernicus's basic ideas were true. They demonstrated mathematically that the planets revolve around the sun. Ⓐ

Galileo's Discoveries An Italian scientist named **Galileo Galilei** built on the new theories about astronomy. As a young man, Galileo learned that a Dutch lens maker had built an instrument that could enlarge far-off objects. Galileo built his own telescope and used it to study the heavens in 1609.

Then, in 1610, he published a small book called *Starry Messenger,* which described his astonishing observations. Galileo announced that Jupiter had four moons and that the sun had dark spots. He also noted that the earth's moon had a rough, uneven surface. This shattered Aristotle's theory that the moon and stars were made of a pure, perfect substance. Galileo's observations, as well as his laws of motion, also clearly supported the theories of Copernicus.

Conflict with the Church Galileo's findings frightened both Catholic and Protestant leaders because they went against church teaching and authority. If people believed the church could be wrong about this, they could question other church teachings as well.

In 1616, the Catholic Church warned Galileo not to defend the ideas of Copernicus. Although Galileo remained publicly silent, he continued his studies. Then, in 1632, he published *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems.* This book presented the ideas of both Copernicus and Ptolemy, but it clearly showed that Galileo supported the Copernican theory. The pope angrily summoned Galileo to Rome to stand trial before the Inquisition.

Galileo stood before the court in 1633. Under the threat of torture, he knelt before the cardinals and read aloud a signed confession. In it, he agreed that the ideas of Copernicus were false.

PRIMARY SOURCE **B**

With sincere heart and unpretended faith I abjure, curse, and detest the aforesaid errors and heresies [of Copernicus] and also every other error . . . contrary to the Holy Church, and I swear that in the future I will never again say or assert . . . anything that might cause a similar suspicion toward me.

GALILEO GALILEI, quoted in *The Discoverers*

Galileo was never again a free man. He lived under house arrest and died in 1642 at his villa near Florence. However, his books and ideas still spread all over Europe. (In 1992, the Catholic Church officially acknowledged that Galileo had been right.)

▲ Galileo stands before the papal court.

The Scientific Method

The revolution in scientific thinking that Copernicus, Kepler, and Galileo began eventually developed into a new approach to science called the **scientific method**. The scientific method is a logical procedure for gathering and testing ideas. It begins with a problem or question arising from an observation. Scientists next form a hypothesis, or unproved assumption. The hypothesis is then tested in an experiment or on the basis of data. In the final step, scientists analyze and interpret their data to reach a new conclusion. That conclusion either confirms or disproves the hypothesis.

Major Steps in the Scientific Revolution
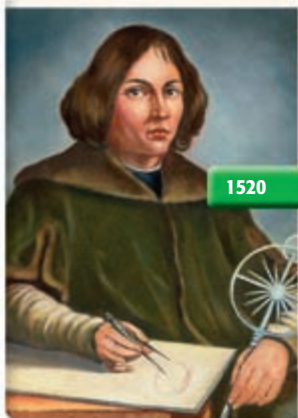
1566 Marie de Coste Blanche publishes *The Nature of the Sun and Earth.*

1609 Kepler publishes first two laws of planetary motion.

1610 Galileo publishes *Starry Messenger.*

1520　　　　1570　　　　1620

1543 Copernicus publishes heliocentric theory.

Vesalius publishes human anatomy textbook.

1590 Janssen invents microscope.

1620 Bacon's book *Novum Organum* (New Instrument) encourages experimental method.

▲ Nicolaus Copernicus began the Scientific Revolution with his heliocentric theory.

Bacon and Descartes The scientific method did not develop overnight. The work of two important thinkers of the 1600s, Francis Bacon and René Descartes (day•KAHRT), helped to advance the new approach.

Francis Bacon, an English statesman and writer, had a passionate interest in science. He believed that by better understanding the world, scientists would generate practical knowledge that would improve people's lives. In his writings, Bacon attacked medieval scholars for relying too heavily on the conclusions of Aristotle and other ancient thinkers. Instead of reasoning from abstract theories, he urged scientists to experiment and then draw conclusions. This approach is called empiricism, or the experimental method.

In France, René Descartes also took a keen interest in science. He developed analytical geometry, which linked algebra and geometry. This provided an important new tool for scientific research.

Like Bacon, Descartes believed that scientists needed to reject old assumptions and teachings. As a mathematician, however, he approached gaining knowledge differently than Bacon. Rather than using experimentation, Descartes relied on mathematics and logic. He believed that everything should be doubted until proved by reason. The only thing he knew for certain was that he existed—because, as he wrote, "I think, therefore I am." From this starting point, he followed a train of strict reasoning to arrive at other basic truths. **C**

Modern scientific methods are based on the ideas of Bacon and Descartes. Scientists have shown that observation and experimentation, together with general laws that can be expressed mathematically, can lead people to a better understanding of the natural world.

MAIN IDEA

Contrasting
C How did Descartes's approach to science differ from Bacon's?

Newton Explains the Law of Gravity

By the mid-1600s, the accomplishments of Copernicus, Kepler, and Galileo had shattered the old views of astronomy and physics. Later, the great English scientist **Isaac Newton** helped to bring together their breakthroughs under a single theory of motion.

HISTORY

VIDEO
Sir Isaac Newton: The Gravity of Genius

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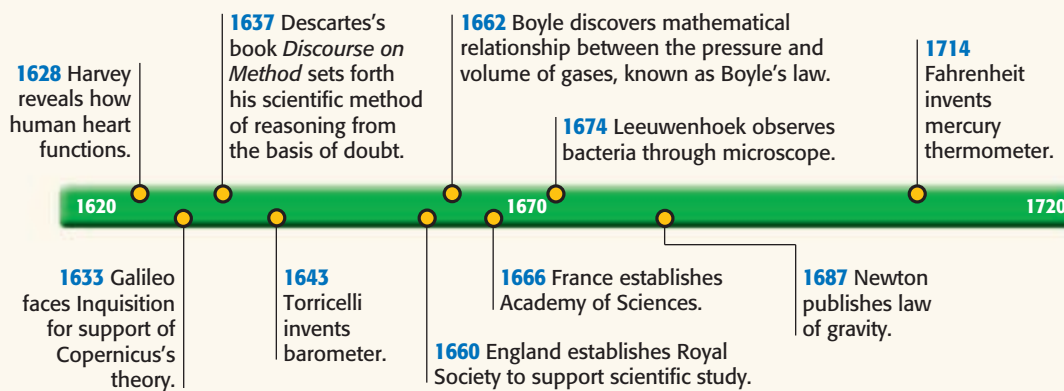| Changing Idea: Scientific Method	
Old Science	**New Science**
Scholars generally relied on ancient authorities, church teachings, common sense, and reasoning to explain the physical world.	In time, scholars began to use observation, experimentation, and scientific reasoning to gather knowledge and draw conclusions about the physical world.

Newton studied mathematics and physics at Cambridge University. By the time he was 26, Newton was certain that all physical objects were affected equally by the same forces. Newton's great discovery was that the same force ruled motion of the planets and all matter on earth and in space. The key idea that linked motion in the heavens with motion on the earth was the law of universal gravitation. According to this law, every object in the universe attracts every other object. The degree of attraction depends on the mass of the objects and the distance between them.

In 1687, Newton published his ideas in a work called *The Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy*. It was one of the most important scientific books ever written. The universe he described was like a giant clock. Its parts all worked together perfectly in ways that could be expressed mathematically. Newton believed that God was the creator of this orderly universe, the clockmaker who had set everything in motion. **D**

▲ Isaac Newton's law of gravity explained how the same physical laws governed motion both on earth and in the heavens.

MAIN IDEA

Clarifying

D Why was the law of gravitation important?

The Scientific Revolution Spreads

As astronomers explored the secrets of the universe, other scientists began to study the secrets of nature on earth. Careful observation and the use of the scientific method eventually became important in many different fields.

Scientific Instruments Scientists developed new tools and instruments to make the precise observations that the scientific method demanded. The first microscope was invented by a Dutch maker of eyeglasses, Zacharias Janssen (YAHN•suhn), in 1590. In the 1670s, a Dutch drapery merchant and amateur scientist named Anton van Leeuwenhoek (LAY•vuhn•HUK) used a microscope to observe bacteria swimming in tooth scrapings. He also examined red blood cells for the first time.

In 1643, one of Galileo's students, Evangelista Torricelli (TAWR•uh•CHEHL•ee), developed the first mercury barometer, a tool for measuring atmospheric pressure and predicting weather. In 1714, the German physicist Gabriel Fahrenheit (FAR•uhn•HYT) made the first thermometer to use mercury in glass. Fahrenheit's thermometer showed water freezing at 32°. A Swedish astronomer, Anders Celsius (SEHL•see•uhs), created another scale for the mercury thermometer in 1742. Celsius's scale showed freezing at 0°.

Medicine and the Human Body During the Middle Ages, European doctors had accepted as fact the writings of an ancient Greek physician named Galen. However, Galen had never dissected the body of a human being. Instead, he had studied the anatomy of pigs and other animals. Galen assumed that human anatomy was much the same. A Flemish physician named Andreas Vesalius proved Galen's assumptions wrong. Vesalius dissected human corpses and published his observations. His

Enlightenment and Revolution **627**

book, *On the Structure of the Human Body* (1543), was filled with detailed drawings of human organs, bones, and muscle.

In the late 1700s, British physician Edward Jenner introduced a vaccine to prevent smallpox. Inoculation using live smallpox germs had been practiced in Asia for centuries. While beneficial, this technique could also be dangerous. Jenner discovered that inoculation with germs from a cattle disease called cowpox gave permanent protection from smallpox for humans. Because cowpox was a much milder disease, the risks for this form of inoculation were much lower. Jenner used cowpox to produce the world's first vaccination.

Discoveries in Chemistry Robert Boyle pioneered the use of the scientific method in chemistry. He is considered the founder of modern chemistry. In a book called *The Sceptical Chymist* (1661), Boyle challenged Aristotle's idea that the physical world consisted of four elements—earth, air, fire, and water. Instead, Boyle proposed that matter was made up of smaller primary particles that joined together in different ways. Boyle's most famous contribution to chemistry is Boyle's law. This law explains how the volume, temperature, and pressure of gas affect each other.

The notions of reason and order, which spurred so many breakthroughs in science, soon moved into other fields of life. Philosophers and scholars across Europe began to rethink long-held beliefs about the human condition, most notably the rights and liberties of ordinary citizens. These thinkers helped to usher in a movement that challenged the age-old relationship between a government and its people, and eventually changed forever the political landscape in numerous societies.

▲ The famous Dutch painter Rembrandt painted *Anatomy Lesson of Dr. Tulp* in 1632 from an actual anatomy lesson. The corpse was that of a criminal.

SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• geocentric theory • Scientific Revolution • heliocentric theory • Galileo Galilei • scientific method • Isaac Newton

USING YOUR NOTES
2. Which event or circumstance do you consider to be the most significant? Why?

Causes of the Scientific Revolution

MAIN IDEAS
3. Before the 1500s, who and what were the final authorities with regard to most knowledge?

4. How did the heliocentric theory of the universe differ from the geocentric theory?

5. What are the main steps of the scientific method?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
6. **DRAWING CONCLUSIONS** "If I have seen farther than others," said Newton, "it is because I have stood on the shoulders of giants." Could this be said of most scientific accomplishments? Explain.

7. **ANALYZING MOTIVES** Why might institutions of authority tend to reject new ideas?

8. **FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS** Do you agree with Galileo's actions during his Inquisition? Explain.

9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY Create a television **script** for a discovery of the Scientific Revolution. Include key people, ideas, and accomplishments.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A GRAPHIC

Research a modern-day invention or new way of thinking and then describe it and its impact on society to the class in a **poster** or **annotated diagram**.

The Enlightenment in Europe

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
POWER AND AUTHORITY A revolution in intellectual activity changed Europeans' view of government and society.	The various freedoms enjoyed in many countries today are a result of Enlightenment thinking.	• Enlightenment • Montesquieu • social contract • Rousseau • John Locke • Mary • philosophe Wollstonecraft • Voltaire

SETTING THE STAGE In the wake of the Scientific Revolution, and the new ways of thinking it prompted, scholars and philosophers began to reevaluate old notions about other aspects of society. They sought new insight into the underlying beliefs regarding government, religion, economics, and education. Their efforts spurred the **Enlightenment**, a new intellectual movement that stressed reason and thought and the power of individuals to solve problems. Known also as the Age of Reason, the movement reached its height in the mid-1700s and brought great change to many aspects of Western civilization.

Two Views on Government

The Enlightenment started from some key ideas put forth by two English political thinkers of the 1600s, Thomas Hobbes and John Locke. Both men experienced the political turmoil of England early in that century. However, they came to very different conclusions about government and human nature.

Hobbes's Social Contract Thomas Hobbes expressed his views in a work called *Leviathan* (1651). The horrors of the English Civil War convinced him that all humans were naturally selfish and wicked. Without governments to keep order, Hobbes said, there would be "war . . . of every man against every man," and life would be "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short."

Hobbes argued that to escape such a bleak life, people had to hand over their rights to a strong ruler. In exchange, they gained law and order. Hobbes called this agreement by which people created a government the **social contract**. Because people acted in their own self-interest, Hobbes said, the ruler needed total power to keep citizens under control. The best government was one that had the awesome power of a leviathan (sea monster). In Hobbes's view, such a government was an absolute monarchy, which could impose order and demand obedience.

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TAKING NOTES

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the section's main ideas and details.

Changing Idea: The Right to Govern	
Old Idea	**New Idea**
A monarch's rule is justified by divine right.	A government's power comes from the consent of the governed.

Locke's Natural Rights The philosopher **John Locke** held a different, more positive, view of human nature. He believed that people could learn from experience and improve themselves. As reasonable beings, they had the natural ability to govern their own affairs and to look after the welfare of society. Locke criticized absolute monarchy and favored the idea of self-government.
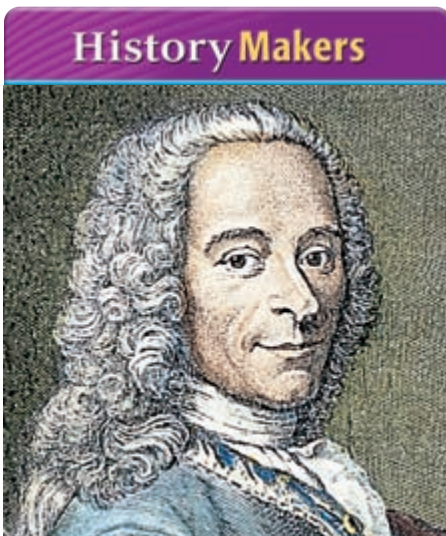
According to Locke, all people are born free and equal, with three natural rights—life, liberty, and property. The purpose of government, said Locke, is to protect these rights. If a government fails to do so, citizens have a right to overthrow it. Locke's theory had a deep influence on modern political thinking. His belief that a government's power comes from the consent of the people is the foundation of modern democracy. The ideas of government by popular consent and the right to rebel against unjust rulers helped inspire struggles for liberty in Europe and the Americas. **A**

The Philosophes Advocate Reason

The Enlightenment reached its height in France in the mid-1700s. Paris became the meeting place for people who wanted to discuss politics and ideas. The social critics of this period in France were known as **philosophes** (FIHL•uh•SAHFS), the French word for philosophers. The philosophes believed that people could apply reason to all aspects of life, just as Isaac Newton had applied reason to science. Five concepts formed the core of their beliefs:

1. **Reason** Enlightened thinkers believed truth could be discovered through reason or logical thinking.
2. **Nature** The philosophes believed that what was natural was also good and reasonable.
3. **Happiness** The philosophes rejected the medieval notion that people should find joy in the hereafter and urged people to seek well-being on earth.
4. **Progress** The philosophes stressed that society and humankind could improve.
5. **Liberty** The philosophes called for the liberties that the English people had won in their Glorious Revolution and Bill of Rights.

Voltaire Combats Intolerance Probably the most brilliant and influential of the philosophes was François Marie Arouet. Using the pen name **Voltaire**, he published more than 70 books of political essays, philosophy, and drama.

Voltaire often used satire against his opponents. He made frequent targets of the clergy, the aristocracy, and the government. His sharp tongue made him enemies at the French court, and twice he was sent to prison. After his second jail term, Voltaire was exiled to England for more than two years.

Although he made powerful enemies, Voltaire never stopped fighting for tolerance, reason, freedom of religious belief, and freedom of speech. He used his quill pen as if it were a deadly weapon in a thinker's war against humanity's worst enemies—intolerance, prejudice, and superstition. He summed up his staunch defense of liberty in one of his most famous quotes: "I do not agree with a word you say but will defend to the death your right to say it."

History Makers

Voltaire
1694–1778

Voltaire befriended several European monarchs and nobles. Among them was the Prussian king Frederick II. The two men seemed like ideal companions. Both were witty and preferred to dress in shabby, rumpled clothes.

Their relationship eventually soured, however. Voltaire disliked editing Frederick's mediocre poetry, while Frederick suspected Voltaire of shady business dealings. Voltaire eventually described the Prussian king as "a nasty monkey, perfidious friend, [and] wretched poet." Frederick in turn called Voltaire a "miser, dirty rogue, [and] coward."

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Voltaire.

Montesquieu and the Separation of Powers Another influential French writer, the Baron de **Montesquieu** (MAHN•tuh•SKYOO), devoted himself to the study of political liberty. Montesquieu believed that Britain was the best-governed and most politically balanced country of his own day. The British king and his ministers held executive power. They carried out the laws of the state. The members of Parliament held legislative power. They made the laws. The judges of the English courts held judicial power. They interpreted the laws to see how each applied to a specific case. Montesquieu called this division of power among different branches separation of powers.

Montesquieu oversimplified the British system. It did not actually separate powers this way. His idea, however, became a part of his most famous book, *On the Spirit of Laws* (1748). In his book, Montesquieu proposed that separation of powers would keep any individual or group from gaining total control of the government. "Power," he wrote, "should be a check to power." This idea later would be called checks and balances.

Montesquieu's book was admired by political leaders in the British colonies of North America. His ideas about separation of powers and checks and balances became the basis for the United States Constitution. **B**

Rousseau: Champion of Freedom A third great philosophe, Jean Jacques **Rousseau** (roo•SOH), was passionately committed to individual freedom. The son of a poor Swiss watchmaker, Rousseau won recognition as a writer of essays. A strange, brilliant, and controversial figure, Rousseau strongly disagreed with other

> Analyzing Primary Sources

Laws Protect Freedom

Both Montesquieu and Rousseau believed firmly that fair and just laws—not monarchs or unrestrained mobs—should govern society. Here, Rousseau argues that laws established by and for the people are the hallmark of a free society.

Laws Ensure Security

While laws work to protect citizens from abusive rulers, Montesquieu argues that they also guard against anarchy and mob rule.

PRIMARY SOURCE

I . . . therefore give the name "Republic" to every state that is governed by laws, no matter what the form of its administration may be: for only in such a case does the public interest govern, and the *res republica* rank as a *reality*. . . . Laws are, properly speaking, only the conditions of civil association. The people, being subject to the laws, ought to be their author: the conditions of the society ought to be regulated . . . by those who come together to form it.

JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU, *The Social Contract*

PRIMARY SOURCE

It is true that in democracies the people seem to act as they please; but political liberty does not consist in an unlimited freedom. . . . We must have continually present to our minds the difference between independence and liberty. Liberty is a right of doing whatever the laws permit, and if a citizen could do what they [the laws] forbid he would be no longer possessed of liberty, because all his fellow-citizens would have the same power.

BARON DE MONTESQUIEU, *The Spirit of Laws*

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS

1. **Analyzing Issues** *Why should citizens be the authors of society's laws, according to Rousseau?*
2. **Making Inferences** *Why does Montesquieu believe that disobeying laws leads to a loss of liberty?*

Enlightenment and Revolution **631**

Enlightenment thinkers on many matters. Most philosophes believed that reason, science, and art would improve life for all people. Rousseau, however, argued that civilization corrupted people's natural goodness. "Man is born free, and everywhere he is in chains," he wrote.

Rousseau believed that the only good government was one that was freely formed by the people and guided by the "general will" of society—a direct democracy. Under such a government, people agree to give up some of their freedom in favor of the common good. In 1762, he explained his political philosophy in a book called *The Social Contract.*

Rousseau's view of the social contract differed greatly from that of Hobbes. For Hobbes, the social contract was an agreement between a society and its government. For Rousseau, it was an agreement among free individuals to create a society and a government.

Like Locke, Rousseau argued that legitimate government came from the consent of the governed. However, Rousseau believed in a much broader democracy than Locke had promoted. He argued that all people were equal and that titles of nobility should be abolished. Rousseau's ideas inspired many of the leaders of the French Revolution who overthrew the monarchy in 1789.

Beccaria Promotes Criminal Justice An Italian philosophe named Cesare Bonesana Beccaria (BAYK•uh•REE•ah) turned his thoughts to the justice system. He believed that laws existed to preserve social order, not to avenge crimes. Beccaria regularly criticized common abuses of justice. They included torturing of witnesses and suspects, irregular proceedings in trials, and punishments that were arbitrary or cruel. He argued that a person accused of a crime should receive a speedy trial, and that torture should never be used. Moreover, he said, the degree of punishment should be based on the seriousness of the crime. He also believed that capital punishment should be abolished.

Beccaria based his ideas about justice on the principle that governments should seek the greatest good for the greatest number of people. His ideas influenced criminal law reformers in Europe and North America.

Major Ideas of the Enlightenment		
Idea	**Thinker**	**Impact**
Natural rights—life, liberty, property	Locke	Fundamental to U.S. Declaration of Independence
Separation of powers	Montesquieu	France, United States, and Latin American nations use separation of powers in new constitutions
Freedom of thought and expression	Voltaire	Guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce or eliminate censorship
Abolishment of torture	Beccaria	Guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights; torture outlawed or reduced in nations of Europe and the Americas
Religious freedom	Voltaire	Guaranteed in U.S. Bill of Rights and French Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen; European monarchs reduce persecution
Women's equality	Wollstonecraft	Women's rights groups form in Europe and North America

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts
1. **Analyzing Issues** *What important documents reflect the influence of Enlightenment ideas?*
2. **Forming Opinions** *Which are the two most important Enlightenment ideas? Support your answer with reasons.*

Women and the Enlightenment

The philosophes challenged many assumptions about government and society. But they often took a traditional view toward women. Rousseau, for example, developed many progressive ideas about education. However, he believed that a girl's education should mainly teach her how to be a helpful wife and mother. Other male social critics scolded women for reading novels because they thought it encouraged idleness and wickedness. Still, some male writers argued for more education for women and for women's equality in marriage.

Women writers also tried to improve the status of women. In 1694, the English writer Mary Astell published *A Serious Proposal to the Ladies.* Her book addressed the lack of educational opportunities for women. In later writings, she used Enlightenment arguments about government to criticize the unequal relationship between men and women in marriage. She wrote, "If absolute sovereignty be not necessary in a state, how comes it to be so in a family? . . . If all men are born free, how is it that all women are born slaves?"

During the 1700s, other women picked up these themes. Among the most persuasive was **Mary Wollstonecraft**, who published an essay called *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* in 1792. In the essay, she disagreed with Rousseau that women's education should be secondary to men's. Rather, she argued that women, like men, need education to become virtuous and useful. Wollstonecraft also urged women to enter the male-dominated fields of medicine and politics. **C**

Women made important contributions to the Enlightenment in other ways. In Paris and other European cities, wealthy women helped spread Enlightenment ideas through social gatherings called salons, which you will read about later in this chapter.

One woman fortunate enough to receive an education in the sciences was Emilie du Châtelet (shah•tlay). Du Châtelet was an aristocrat trained as a mathematician and physicist. By translating Newton's work from Latin into French, she helped stimulate interest in science in France.

MAIN IDEA

Drawing Conclusions

C Why do you think the issue of education was important to both Astell and Wollstonecraft? .

Legacy of the Enlightenment

Over a span of a few decades, Enlightenment writers challenged long-held ideas about society. They examined such principles as the divine right of monarchs, the union of church and state, and the existence of unequal social classes. They held these beliefs up to the light of reason and found them in need of reform.

The philosophes mainly lived in the world of ideas. They formed and popularized new theories. Although they encouraged reform, they were not active revolutionaries. However, their theories eventually inspired the American and French revolutions and other revolutionary movements in the 1800s. Enlightenment thinking produced three other long-term effects that helped shape Western civilization.

Belief in Progress The first effect was a belief in progress. Pioneers such as Galileo and Newton had discovered the key for unlocking the mysteries of nature in the 1500s and 1600s. With the door thus opened, the growth of scientific knowledge

seemed to quicken in the 1700s. Scientists made key new discoveries in chemistry, physics, biology, and mechanics. The successes of the Scientific Revolution gave people the confidence that human reason could solve social problems. Philosophes and reformers urged an end to the practice of slavery and argued for greater social equality, as well as a more democratic style of government.

A More Secular Outlook A second outcome was the rise of a more secular, or non-religious, outlook. During the Enlightenment, people began to question openly their religious beliefs and the teachings of the church. Before the Scientific Revolution, people accepted the mysteries of the universe as the workings of God. One by one, scientists discovered that these mysteries could be explained mathematically. Newton himself was a deeply religious man, and he sought to reveal God's majesty through his work. However, his findings often caused people to change the way they thought about God.

Meanwhile, Voltaire and other critics attacked some of the beliefs and practices of organized Christianity. They wanted to rid religious faith of superstition and fear and promote tolerance of all religions.

Importance of the Individual Faith in science and in progress produced a third outcome, the rise of individualism. As people began to turn away from the church and royalty for guidance, they looked to themselves instead.

The philosophes encouraged people to use their own ability to reason in order to judge what was right or wrong. They also emphasized the importance of the individual in society. Government, they argued, was formed by individuals to promote their welfare. The British thinker Adam Smith extended the emphasis on the individual to economic thinking. He believed that individuals acting in their own self-interest created economic progress. Smith's theory is discussed in detail in Chapter 25.

During the Enlightenment, reason took center stage. The greatest minds of Europe followed each other's work with interest and often met to discuss their ideas. Some of the kings and queens of Europe were also very interested. As you will learn in Section 3, they sought to apply some of the philosophes' ideas to create progress in their countries.

SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Enlightenment   • social contract   • John Locke   • philosophe   • Voltaire   • Montesquieu   • Rousseau   • Mary Wollstonecraft

USING YOUR NOTES	MAIN IDEAS	CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
2. Which impact of the Enlightenment do you consider most important? Why?	**3.** What are the natural rights with which people are born, according to John Locke?	**6. SYNTHESIZING** Explain how the following statement reflects Enlightenment ideas: "Power should be a check to power."
Enlightenment in Europe *I. Two Views on* *Government* *A.* *B.* *II. The Philosophes* *Advocate Reason* *A.* *B.*	**4.** Who were the philosophes and what did they advocate? **5.** What was the legacy of the Enlightenment?	**7. ANALYZING ISSUES** Why might some women have been critical of the Enlightenment? **8. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS** Do you think the philosophes were optimistic about the future of humankind? Explain. **9. WRITING ACTIVITY** POWER AND AUTHORITY Compare the views of Hobbes, Locke, and Rousseau on government. Then write one **paragraph** about how their ideas reflect their understanding of human behavior.

CONNECT TO TODAY **PRESENTING AN ORAL REPORT**

Identify someone considered a modern-day social critic. Explore the person's beliefs and methods and present your findings to the class in a brief **oral report.**

European Values During the Enlightenment

Writers and artists of the Enlightenment often used satire to comment on European values. Using wit and humor, they ridiculed various ideas and customs. Satire allowed artists to explore human faults in a way that is powerful but not preachy. In the two literary excerpts and the painting below, notice how the writer or artist makes his point.

A PRIMARY SOURCE

Voltaire

Voltaire wrote *Candide* (1759) to attack a philosophy called Optimism, which held that all is right with the world. The hero of the story, a young man named Candide, encounters the most awful disasters and human evils. In this passage, Candide meets a slave in South America, who explains why he is missing a leg and a hand.

"When we're working at the sugar mill and catch our finger in the grinding-wheel, they cut off our hand. When we try to run away, they cut off a leg. I have been in both of these situations. This is the price you pay for the sugar you eat in Europe. . . .

"The Dutch fetishes [i.e., missionaries] who converted me [to Christianity] tell me every Sunday that we are all the sons of Adam, Whites and Blacks alike. I'm no genealogist, but if these preachers are right, we are all cousins born of first cousins. Well, you will grant me that you can't treat a relative much worse than this."

B PRIMARY SOURCE

Jonathan Swift

The narrator of *Gulliver's Travels* (1726), an English doctor named Lemuel Gulliver, takes four disastrous voyages that leave him stranded in strange lands. In the following passage, Gulliver tries to win points with the king of Brobdingnag—a land of giants—by offering to show him how to make guns and cannons.

The king was struck with horror at the description I had given of those terrible engines. . . . He was amazed how so impotent and grovelling an insect as I (these were his expressions) could entertain such inhuman ideas, and in so familiar a manner as to appear wholly unmoved at all the scenes of blood and desolation, which I had painted as the common effects of those destructive machines; whereof, he said, some evil genius, enemy to mankind, must have been the first contriver [inventor].

C PRIMARY SOURCE

William Hogarth

The English artist William Hogarth often used satire in his paintings. In this painting, *Canvassing for Votes,* he comments on political corruption. While the candidate flirts with the ladies on the balcony, his supporters offer a man money for his vote.

Document-Based QUESTIONS

1. What is the main point that Voltaire is making in Source A? What technique does he use to reinforce his message?

2. What does the king's reaction in Source B say about Swift's view of Europe's military technology?

3. Why might Hogarth's painting in Source C be difficult for modern audiences to understand? Does this take away from his message?

The Enlightenment Spreads

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
POWER AND AUTHORITY Enlightenment ideas spread through the Western world and profoundly influenced the arts and government.	An "enlightened" problem-solving approach to government and society prevails in modern civilization today.	• salon • baroque • neoclassical	• enlightened despot • Catherine the Great

SETTING THE STAGE The philosophes' views about society often got them in trouble. In France it was illegal to criticize either the Catholic Church or the government. Many philosophes landed in jail or were exiled. Voltaire, for example, experienced both punishments. Nevertheless, the Enlightenment spread throughout Europe with the help of books, magazines, and word of mouth. In time, Enlightenment ideas influenced everything from the artistic world to the royal courts across the continent.

A World of Ideas

In the 1700s, Paris was the cultural and intellectual capital of Europe. Young people from around Europe—and also from the Americas—came to study, philosophize, and enjoy the culture of the bustling city. The brightest minds of the age gathered there. From their circles radiated the ideas of the Enlightenment.

The buzz of Enlightenment ideas was most intense in the mansions of several wealthy women of Paris. There, in their large drawing rooms, these hostesses held regular social gatherings called **salons**. At these events, philosophers, writers, artists, scientists, and other great intellects met to discuss ideas.

Diderot's *Encyclopedia* The most influential of the salon hostesses in Voltaire's time was Marie-Thérèse Geoffrin (zhuh•frehn). She helped finance the project of a leading philosophe named Denis Diderot (DEE•duh•ROH). Diderot created a large set of books to which many leading scholars of Europe contributed articles and essays. He called it *Encyclopedia* and began publishing the first volumes in 1751.

The Enlightenment views expressed in the articles soon angered both the French government and the Catholic Church. Their censors banned the work. They said it undermined royal authority, encouraged a spirit of revolt, and fostered "moral corruption, irreligion, and unbelief." Nonetheless, Diderot continued publishing his *Encyclopedia.*

The salons and the *Encyclopedia* helped spread Enlightenment ideas to educated people all over Europe. Enlightenment ideas also eventually spread through newspapers, pamphlets, and even political songs. Enlightenment ideas about government and equality attracted the attention of a growing literate middle class, which could afford to buy many books and support the work of artists.

New Artistic Styles

The Enlightenment ideals of order and reason were reflected in the arts—music, literature, painting, and architecture.

Neoclassical Style Emerges European art of the 1600s and early 1700s had been dominated by the style called **baroque**, which was characterized by a grand, ornate design. Baroque styles could be seen in elaborate palaces such as Versailles (see page 600) and in numerous paintings.

Under the influence of the Enlightenment, styles began to change. Artists and architects worked in a simple and elegant style that borrowed ideas and themes from classical Greece and Rome. The artistic style of the late 1700s is therefore called **neoclassical** ("new classical").

Changes in Music and Literature Music styles also changed to reflect Enlightenment ideals. The music scene in Europe had been dominated by such composers as Johann Sebastian Bach of Germany and George Friedrich Handel of England. These artists wrote dramatic organ and choral music. During the Enlightenment, a new, lighter, and more elegant style of music known as _classical_ emerged. Three composers in Vienna, Austria, rank among the greatest figures of the classical period in music. They were Franz Joseph Haydn, Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart, and Ludwig van Beethoven.

Writers in the 18th century also developed new styles and forms of literature. A number of European authors began writing novels, which are lengthy works of prose fiction. Their works had carefully crafted plots, used suspense, and explored characters' thoughts and feelings. These books were popular with a wide middle-class audience, who liked the entertaining stories written in everyday language. Writers, including many women, turned out a flood of popular novels in the 1700s.

Samuel Richardson's _Pamela_ is often considered the first true English novel. It tells the story of a young servant girl who refuses the advances of her master. Another English masterpiece, _Tom Jones,_ by Henry Fielding, tells the story of an orphan who travels all over England to win the hand of his lady.

Enlightenment and Monarchy

From the salons, artists' studios, and concert halls of Europe, the Enlightenment spirit also swept through Europe's royal courts. Many philosophes, including Voltaire, believed that the best form of government was a monarchy in which the ruler respected the people's rights. The philosophes tried to convince monarchs to rule justly. Some monarchs embraced the new ideas and made reforms that reflected the Enlightenment spirit. They became known as **enlightened despots**. Despot means "absolute ruler."

The enlightened despots supported the philosophes' ideas. But they also had no intention of giving up any power. The changes they made were motivated by two desires: they wanted to make their countries stronger and their own rule more effective. The foremost of Europe's enlightened despots were Frederick II of Prussia, Holy Roman Emperor Joseph II of Austria, and Catherine the Great of Russia. **A**

Frederick the Great Frederick II, the king of Prussia from 1740 to 1786, committed himself to reforming Prussia. He granted many religious freedoms, reduced censorship, and improved education. He also reformed the justice system and abolished the use of torture. However, Frederick's changes only went so far. For example, he believed that serfdom was wrong, but he did nothing to end it since he needed the support of wealthy landowners. As a result, he never tried to change the existing social order.

Perhaps Frederick's most important contribution was his attitude toward being king. He called himself "the first servant of the state." From the beginning of his reign, he made it clear that his goal was to serve and strengthen his country. This attitude was clearly one that appealed to the philosophes.

Joseph II The most radical royal reformer was Joseph II of Austria. The son and successor of Maria Theresa, Joseph II ruled Austria from 1780 to 1790. He introduced legal reforms and freedom of the press. He also supported freedom of worship, even for Protestants, Orthodox Christians, and Jews. In his most radical reform, Joseph abolished serfdom and ordered that peasants be paid for their labor with cash. Not surprisingly, the nobles firmly resisted this change. Like many of Joseph's reforms, it was undone after his death.

▲ Joseph II

Catherine the Great The ruler most admired by the philosophes was Catherine II, known as **Catherine the Great**. She ruled Russia from 1762 to 1796. The well-educated empress read the works of philosophes, and she exchanged many letters with Voltaire. She ruled with absolute authority but also sought to reform Russia.

In 1767, Catherine formed a commission to review Russia's laws. She presented it with a brilliant proposal for reforms based on the ideas of Montesquieu and Beccaria. Among other changes, she recommended allowing religious toleration and abolishing torture and capital punishment. Her commission, however, accomplished none of these lofty goals.

Catherine eventually put in place limited reforms, but she did little to improve the life of the Russian peasants. Her views about enlightened ideas changed after a massive uprising of serfs in 1773. With great brutality, Catherine's army crushed the

Vocabulary
Serfdom was a system in which peasants were forced to live and work on a landowner's estate.

Changing Idea: Relationship Between Ruler and State	
Old Idea	**New Idea**
The state and its citizens exist to serve the monarch. As Louis XIV reportedly said, "I am the state."	The monarch exists to serve the state and support citizens' welfare. As Frederick the Great said, a ruler is only "the first servant of the state."

rebellion. Catherine had previously favored an end to serfdom. However, the revolt convinced her that she needed the nobles' support to keep her throne. Therefore, she gave the nobles absolute power over the serfs. As a result, Russian serfs lost their last traces of freedom. **B**

Catherine Expands Russia Peter the Great, who ruled Russia in the early 1700s, had fought for years to win a port on the Baltic Sea. Likewise, Catherine sought access to the Black Sea. In two wars with the Ottoman Turks, her armies finally won control of the northern shore of the Black Sea. Russia also gained the right to send ships through Ottoman-controlled straits leading from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean Sea.

Catherine also expanded her empire westward into Poland. In Poland, the king was relatively weak, and independent nobles held the most power. The three neighboring powers—Russia, Prussia, and Austria—each tried to assert their influence over the country. In 1772, these land-hungry neighbors each took a piece of Poland in what is called the First Partition of Poland. In further partitions in 1793 and 1795, they grabbed up the rest of Poland's territory. With these partitions, Poland disappeared as an independent country for more than a century.

By the end of her remarkable reign, Catherine had vastly enlarged the Russian empire. Meanwhile, as Russia was becoming an international power, another great power, Britain, faced a challenge from its North American colonies. Inspired by Enlightenment ideas, colonial leaders decided to do the unthinkable: break away from their ruling country and found an independent republic.

Synthesizing
B How accurately does the term enlightened despot describe Catherine the Great? Explain.

Catherine the Great
1729–1796

The daughter of a minor German prince, Catherine was 15 when she was handed over to marry the Grand Duke Peter, heir to the Russian throne.

Peter was mentally unstable. Catherine viewed her husband's weakness as her chance for power. She made important friends among Russia's army officers and became known as the most intelligent and best-informed person at court. In 1762, only months after her husband became czar, Catherine had him arrested and confined. Soon afterward, Peter conveniently died, probably by murder.

SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
- salon
- baroque
- neoclassical
- enlightened despot
- Catherine the Great

USING YOUR NOTES
2. What are two generalizations you could make about the spread of Enlightenment ideas?

art and literature — monarchy

Spread of Enlightenment Ideas

circulation of ideas
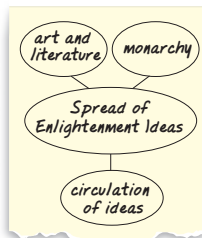
MAIN IDEAS
3. What were the defining aspects of neoclassical art?

4. What new form of literature emerged during the 18th century and what were its main characteristics?

5. Why were several rulers in 18th century Europe known as enlightened despots?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
6. **DRAWING CONCLUSIONS** What advantages did salons have over earlier forms of communication in spreading ideas?

7. **ANALYZING ISSUES** In what way were the enlightened despots less than true reformers? Cite specific examples from the text.

8. **MAKING INFERENCES** How did the *Encyclopedia* project reflect the age of Enlightenment?

9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** POWER AND AUTHORITY Imagine you are a public relations consultant for an enlightened despot. Write a **press release** explaining why your client is "Most Enlightened Despot of the 1700s."

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY **WRITING A CHARACTER SKETCH**

21ST CENTURY Use the Internet to find out more about a composer or writer mentioned in this section. Then write a brief **character sketch** on that artist, focusing on interesting pieces of information about his or her life.

INTERNET KEYWORDS
biography European Enlightenment

The American Revolution

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
REVOLUTION Enlightenment ideas helped spur the American colonies to shed British rule and create a new nation.	The revolution created a republic, the United States of America, that became a model for many nations of the world.	• Declaration of Independence • Thomas Jefferson • checks and balances • federal system • Bill of Rights

SETTING THE STAGE Philosophes such as Voltaire considered England's government the most progressive in Europe. The Glorious Revolution of 1688 had given England a constitutional monarchy. In essence, this meant that various laws limited the power of the English king. Despite the view of the philosophes, however, a growing number of England's colonists in North America accused England of tyrannical rule. Emboldened by Enlightenment ideas, they would attempt to overthrow what was then the mightiest power on earth and create their own nation.

Britain and Its American Colonies

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TAKING NOTES

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the problems American colonists faced in shaping their republic and the solutions they found.

Throughout the 1600s and 1700s, British colonists had formed a large and thriving settlement along the eastern shore of North America. When George III became king of Great Britain in 1760, his North American colonies were growing by leaps and bounds. Their combined population soared from about 250,000 in 1700 to 2,150,000 in 1770, a nearly ninefold increase. Economically, the colonies thrived on trade with the nations of Europe.

Along with increasing population and prosperity, a new sense of identity was growing in the colonists' minds. By the mid-1700s, colonists had been living in America for nearly 150 years. Each of the 13 colonies had its own government, and people were used to a great degree of independence. Colonists saw themselves less as British and more as Virginians or Pennsylvanians. However, they were still British subjects and were expected to obey British law.

In 1651, the British Parliament passed a trade law called the Navigation Act. This and subsequent trade laws prevented colonists from selling their most valuable products to any country except Britain. In addition, colonists had to pay high taxes on imported French and Dutch goods. Nonetheless, Britain's policies benefited both the colonies and the motherland. Britain bought American raw materials for low prices and sold manufactured goods to the colonists. And despite various British trade restrictions, colonial merchants also thrived. Such a spirit of relative harmony, however, soon would change.

▼ This French snuffbox pictures (left to right) Voltaire, Rousseau, and colonial statesman Benjamin Franklin.

Americans Win Independence

In 1754, war erupted on the North American continent between the English and the French. As you recall, the French had also colonized parts of North America throughout the 1600s and 1700s. The conflict was known as the French and Indian War. (The name stems from the fact that the French enlisted numerous Native American tribes to fight on their side.) The fighting lasted until 1763, when Britain and her colonists emerged victorious—and seized nearly all French land in North America.

The victory, however, only led to growing tensions between Britain and its colonists. In order to fight the war, Great Britain had run up a huge debt. Because American colonists benefited from Britain's victory, Britain expected the colonists to help pay the costs of the war. In 1765, Parliament passed the Stamp Act. According to this law, colonists had to pay a tax to have an official stamp put on wills, deeds, newspapers, and other printed material. **A**

American colonists were outraged. They had never paid taxes directly to the British government before. Colonial lawyers argued that the stamp tax violated colonists' natural rights, and they accused the government of "taxation without representation." In Britain, citizens consented to taxes through their representatives in Parliament. The colonists, however, had no representation in Parliament. Thus, they argued they could not be taxed.

Growing Hostility Leads to War Over the next decade, hostilities between the two sides increased. Some colonial leaders favored independence from Britain. In 1773, to protest an import tax on tea, a group of colonists dumped a large load of British tea into Boston Harbor. George III, infuriated by the "Boston Tea Party," as it was called, ordered the British navy to close the port of Boston.

Such harsh tactics by the British made enemies of many moderate colonists. In September 1774, representatives from every colony except Georgia gathered in Philadelphia to form the First Continental Congress. This group protested the treatment of Boston. When the king paid little attention to their complaints, the colonies decided to form the Second Continental Congress to debate their next move.

On April 19, 1775, British soldiers and American militiamen exchanged gunfire on the village green in Lexington, Massachusetts. The fighting spread to nearby Concord. The Second Continental Congress voted to raise an army and organize for battle under the command of a Virginian named George Washington. The American Revolution had begun.

The Influence of the Enlightenment Colonial leaders used Enlightenment ideas to justify independence. The colonists had asked for the same political rights as people in Britain, they said, but the king had stubbornly refused. Therefore, the colonists were justified in rebelling against a tyrant who had broken the social contract.

In July 1776, the Second Continental Congress issued the **Declaration of Independence**. This document, written by political leader **Thomas Jefferson**,

History Makers

**Thomas Jefferson
1743–1826**

The author of the Declaration of Independence, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, was a true figure of the Enlightenment. As a writer and statesman, he supported free speech, religious freedom, and other civil liberties. At the same time, he was also a slave owner.

Jefferson was a man of many talents. He was an inventor as well as one of the great architects of early America. He designed the Virginia state capitol building in Richmond and many buildings for the University of Virginia. Of all his achievements, Jefferson wanted to be most remembered for three: author of the Declaration of Independence, author of the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, and founder of the University of Virginia.

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INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to create a time line of Jefferson's major achievements.

Changing Idea: Colonial Attachment to Britain	
Old Idea	**New Idea**
American colonists considered themselves to be subjects of the British king.	After a long train of perceived abuses by the king, the colonists asserted their right to declare independence.

was firmly based on the ideas of John Locke and the Enlightenment. The Declaration reflected these ideas in its eloquent argument for natural rights. "We hold these truths to be self-evident," states the beginning of the Declaration, "that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

Since Locke had asserted that people had the right to rebel against an unjust ruler, the Declaration of Independence included a long list of George III's abuses. The document ended by declaring the colonies' separation from Britain. The colonies, the Declaration said, "are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown."

Success for the Colonists The British were not about to let their colonies leave without a fight. Shortly after the publication of the Declaration of Independence, the two sides went to war. At first glance, the colonists seemed destined to go down in quick defeat. Washington's ragtag, poorly trained army faced the well-trained forces of the most powerful country in the world. In the end, however, the Americans won their war for independence.

Several reasons explain the colonists' success. First, the Americans' motivation for fighting was much stronger than that of the British, since their army was defending their homeland. Second, the overconfident British generals made several mistakes. Third, time itself was on the side of the Americans. The British could win battle after battle, as they did, and still lose the war. Fighting an overseas war, 3,000 miles from London, was terribly expensive. After a few years, tax-weary British citizens called for peace.

Finally, the Americans did not fight alone. Louis XVI of France had little sympathy for the ideals of the American Revolution. However, he was eager to weaken France's rival, Britain. French entry into the war in 1778 was decisive. In 1781, combined forces of about 9,500 Americans and 7,800 French trapped a British army commanded by Lord Cornwallis near Yorktown, Virginia. Unable to escape, Cornwallis eventually surrendered. The Americans had shocked the world and won their independence.

North America, 1783

ALASKA
UNCLAIMED
Hudson Bay
CANADA
Quebec
Boston
New York
UNITED STATES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Charleston
FLORIDA
New Orleans
BAHAMAS
PUERTO RICO
NEW SPAIN
Gulf of Mexico
CUBA
JAMAICA
Mexico City
HISPANIOLA
Caribbean Sea
HONDURAS
SOUTH AMERICA
PACIFIC OCEAN
Missouri R.
Colorado R.
Mississippi R.
Ohio R.
LOUISIANA TERRITORY
Rio Grande
Tropic of Cancer
Arctic Circle

0   500 Miles
0   1,000 Kilometers

Legend:
- British
- French
- Russian
- Spanish
- U.S. and Great Britain
- U.S. and Spain

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Region** What feature formed the western border of the United States?
2. **Human-Environment Interaction** What European countries had claims on the North American continent in 1783?

Democracy

Ancient Greece and Rome were strong influences on the framers of the U.S. system of government. Democracy as it is practiced today, however, is different from the Greek and Roman models.

The most famous democracy today is the United States. The type of government the United States uses is called a federal republic. "Federal" means power is divided between the national and state governments. In a republic, the people vote for their representatives. Two key components of democracy in the United States are the Constitution and voting.

Enlightenment Ideas and the U.S. Constitution

Many of the ideas contained in the Constitution are built on the ideas of Enlightenment thinkers.

Enlightenment Idea	U.S. Constitution
Locke A government's power comes from the consent of the people.	• Preamble begins "We the people of the United States" to establish legitimacy. • Creates representative government • Limits government powers
Montesquieu Separation of powers	• Federal system of government • Powers divided among three branches • System of checks and balances
Rousseau Direct democracy	• Public election of president and Congress
Voltaire Free speech, religious toleration	• Bill of Rights provides for freedom of speech and religion.
Beccaria Accused have rights, no torture	• Bill of Rights protects rights of accused and prohibits cruel and unusual punishment.

Who Votes?

Voting is an essential part of democracy. Universal suffrage means that all adult citizens can vote. Universal suffrage is part of democracy in the United States today, but that was not always the case. This chart shows how the United States gradually moved toward giving all citizens the right to vote.

Eligible Voters

1789	1870	1920	1924	1971
Only white, male property owners can vote.	The 15th Amendment stated African-American men could vote; however, many were still prevented.	The 19th Amendment was ratified, giving women the right to vote.	Citizenship and the vote was extended to include Native Americans.	The 26th Amendment is ratified, changing the legal voting age from 21 to 18. Today all citizens, 18 or older, can vote.

↗ hmhsocialstudies.com

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on democracy.

Voters in the 2008 U.S. Presidential Election

Total Pop. of Eligible Voters	206,000,000 (100%)
Reported Number of Registered Voters	146,000,000 (71%)
Number of Registered Voters Who Actually Voted	131,000,000 (64%)

0   40   80   120   160   200
Population (in millions)
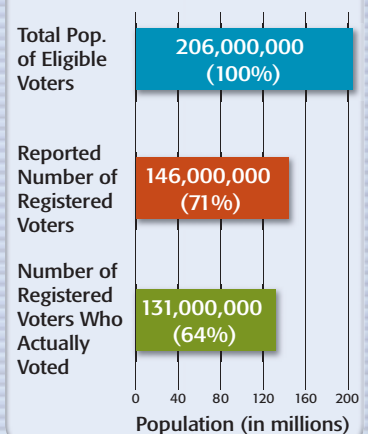
Source: U.S. Census Bureau.

Connect to Today

1. **Synthesizing** If so much of the U.S. Constitution can be found in European ideas, why were the framers of the U.S. Constitution so important?
   See Skillbuilder Handbook, Page R21.

2. **Hypothesizing** Why is it important that every citizen has, and exercises, his or her right to vote?

The French Revolution

The American Revolution inspired the growing number of French people who sought reform in their own country. They saw the new government of the United States as the fulfillment of Enlightenment ideals, and longed for such a government in France.

   The Declaration of Independence was widely circulated and admired in France. French officers like the Marquis de Lafayette (shown here), who fought for American independence, captivated his fellow citizens with accounts of the war. One Frenchman remarked about this time period, "We talked of nothing but America." Less than a decade after the American Revolution ended, an armed struggle to topple the government would begin in France.

Americans Create a Republic

Shortly after declaring their independence, the 13 individual states recognized the need for a national government. As victory became certain, all 13 states ratified a constitution in 1781. This plan of government was known as the Articles of Confederation. The Articles established the United States as a republic, a government in which citizens rule through elected representatives.

A Weak National Government To protect their authority, the 13 states created a loose confederation in which they held most of the power. Thus, the Articles of Confederation deliberately created a weak national government. There were no executive or judicial branches. Instead, the Articles established only one body of government, the Congress. Each state, regardless of size, had one vote in Congress. Congress could declare war, enter into treaties, and coin money. It had no power, however, to collect taxes or regulate trade. Passing new laws was difficult because laws needed the approval of 9 of the 13 states.

   These limits on the national government soon produced many problems. Although the new national government needed money to operate, it could only request contributions from the states. Angry Revolutionary War veterans bitterly complained that Congress still owed them back pay for their services. Meanwhile, several states issued their own money. Some states even put tariffs on goods from neighboring states. **B**

A New Constitution Colonial leaders eventually recognized the need for a strong national government. In February 1787, Congress approved a Constitutional Convention to revise the Articles of Confederation. The Constitutional Convention held its first session on May 25, 1787. The 55 delegates were experienced statesmen who were familiar with the political theories of Locke, Montesquieu, and Rousseau.

   Although the delegates shared basic ideas on government, they sometimes disagreed on how to put them into practice. For almost four months the delegates argued over important questions. Who should be represented in Congress? How many representatives should each state have? The delegates' deliberations produced not only compromises but also new approaches to governing. Using the political ideas of the Enlightenment, the delegates created a new system of government.

The Federal System Like Montesquieu, the delegates distrusted a powerful central government controlled by one person or group. They therefore established

MAIN IDEA

Making Inferences
B What was the main cause of the nation's problems under the Articles?

three separate branches—legislative, executive, and judicial. This setup provided a built-in system of **checks and balances**, with each branch checking the actions of the other two. For example, the president received the power to veto legislation passed by Congress. However, the Congress could override a presidential veto with the approval of two-thirds of its members.

Although the Constitution created a strong central government, it did not eliminate local governments. Instead, the Constitution set up a **federal system** in which power was divided between national and state governments.

The Bill of Rights The delegates signed the new Constitution on September 17, 1787. In order to become law, however, the Constitution required approval by conventions in at least 9 of the 13 states. These conventions were marked by sharp debate. Supporters of the Constitution were called Federalists. They argued in their famous work, the *Federalist Papers*, that the new government would provide a better balance between national and state powers. Their opponents, the Antifederalists, feared that the Constitution gave the central government too much power. They also wanted a bill of rights to protect the rights of individual citizens. **C**

In order to gain support, the Federalists promised to add a bill of rights to the Constitution. This promise cleared the way for approval. Congress formally added to the Constitution the ten amendments known as the **Bill of Rights**. These amendments protected such basic rights as freedom of speech, press, assembly, and religion. Many of these rights had been advocated by Voltaire, Rousseau, and Locke.

The Constitution and Bill of Rights marked a turning point in people's ideas about government. Both documents put Enlightenment ideas into practice. They expressed an optimistic view that reason and reform could prevail and that progress was inevitable. Such optimism swept across the Atlantic. However, the monarchies and the privileged classes didn't give up power and position easily. As Chapter 23 explains, the struggle to attain the principles of the Enlightenment led to violent revolution in France.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Issues

C What were the opposing views regarding ratification of the Constitution?

▼ Early copy of the U.S. Constitution

SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Declaration of Independence   • Thomas Jefferson   • checks and balances   • federal system   • Bill of Rights

USING YOUR NOTES	**MAIN IDEAS**	**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**
2. Which of the solutions that you recorded represented a compromise?	**3.** Why did the colonists criticize the Stamp Act as "taxation without representation"?	**6. MAKING INFERENCES** Why might it be important to have a Bill of Rights that guarantees basic rights of citizens?
	4. How did John Locke's notion of the social contract influence the American colonists?	**7. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS** Do you think the American Revolution would have happened if there had not been an Age of Enlightenment?
	5. Why were the colonists able to achieve victory in the American Revolution?	**8. ANALYZING CAUSES** Why do you think the colonists at first created such a weak central government?
		9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION Summarize in several **paragraphs** the ideas from the American Revolution concerning separation of powers, basic rights of freedom, and popular sovereignty.

Problem / Solution table:

Problem	Solution
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

CONNECT TO TODAY   CELEBRATING AMERICA'S BIRTHDAY

Create a **birthday poster** to present to the United States this July 4th. The poster should include images or quotes that demonstrate the ideals upon which the nation was founded.

Enlightenment and Revolution **645**

TERMS & NAMES

For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to European history from 1550–1789.

1. heliocentric theory
2. Isaac Newton
3. social contract
4. philosophe
5. salon
6. enlightened despot
7. Declaration of Independence
8. federal system

MAIN IDEAS

The Scientific Revolution Section 1 (pages 623–628)

9. According to Ptolemy, what was the earth's position in the universe? How did Copernicus's view differ?
10. What are the four steps in the scientific method?
11. What four new instruments came into use during the Scientific Revolution? What was the purpose of each one?

The Enlightenment in Europe Section 2 (pages 629–635)

12. How did the ideas of Hobbes and Locke differ?
13. What did Montesquieu admire about the government of Britain?
14. How did the Enlightenment lead to a more secular outlook?

The Enlightenment Spreads Section 3 (pages 636–639)

15. What were three developments in the arts during the Enlightenment?
16. What sorts of reforms did the enlightened despots make?

The American Revolution Section 4 (pages 640–645)

17. Why did the Articles of Confederation result in a weak national government?
18. How did the writers of the U.S. Constitution put into practice the idea of separation of powers? A system of checks and balances?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. **USING YOUR NOTES**
   List in a table important new ideas that arose during the Scientific Revolution and Enlightenment. In the right column, briefly explain why each idea was revolutionary.

New Idea	Why Revolutionary

2. **RECOGNIZING EFFECTS**
   SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY What role did technology play in the Scientific Revolution?

3. **ANALYZING ISSUES**
   POWER AND AUTHORITY How did the U.S. Constitution reflect the ideas of the Enlightenment? Refer to specific Enlightenment thinkers to support your answer.

4. **CLARIFYING**
   How did the statement by Prussian ruler Frederick the Great that a ruler is only "the first servant of the state" highlight Enlightenment ideas about government?

VISUAL SUMMARY

Enlightenment and Revolution, 1550–1789

Scientific Revolution
- Heliocentric theory challenges geocentric theory.
- Mathematics and observation support heliocentric theory.
- Scientific method develops.
- Scientists make discoveries in many fields.

A new way of thinking about the world develops, based on observation and a willingness to question assumptions.

Enlightenment
- People try to apply the scientific approach to aspects of society.
- Political scientists propose new ideas about government.
- Philosophes advocate the use of reason to discover truths.
- Philosophes address social issues through reason.

Enlightenment writers challenge many accepted ideas about government and society.

Spread of Ideas
- Enlightenment ideas appeal to thinkers and artists across Europe.
- Salons help spread Enlightenment thinking.
- Ideas spread to literate middle class.
- Enlightened despots attempt reforms.

Enlightenment ideas sweep through European society and to colonial America.

American Revolution
- Enlightenment ideas influence colonists.
- Britain taxes colonists after French and Indian War.
- Colonists denounce taxation without representation.
- War begins in Lexington and Concord.

Colonists declare independence, defeat Britain, and establish republic.

Use the quotation and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

We the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution of the United States of America.

Preamble, *Constitution of the United States of America*

1. All of the following are stated objectives of the Constitution except

  A. justice.

  B. liberty.

  C. defense.

  D. prosperity.

2. With whom does the ultimate power in society lie, according to the Constitution?

  A. the church

  B. the military

  C. the citizens

  D. the monarchy

Use this engraving, entitled *The Sleep of Reason Produces Monsters,* and your knowledge of world history to answer question 3.

3. Which of the following statements best summarizes the main idea of this Enlightenment engraving?

  A. Nothing good comes from relaxation or laziness.

  B. A lack of reason fosters superstition and irrational fears.

  C. Dreams are not restricted by the boundaries of reason.

  D. Rulers that let down their guard risk rebellion and overthrow.

hmhsocialstudies.com | **TEST PRACTICE**

For additional test practice, go online for:
• Diagnostic tests
• Strategies
• Tutorials

Interact *with* History

On page 622, you examined how you would react to a different or revolutionary idea or way of doing things. Now that you have read the chapter, consider how such breakthroughs impacted society. Discuss in a small group what you feel were the most significant new ideas or procedures and explain why.

FOCUS ON WRITING

REVOLUTION Re-examine the material on the Scientific Revolution. Then write a three-paragraph **essay** summarizing the difference in scientific understanding before and after the various scientific breakthroughs. Focus on

• the ultimate authority on many matters before the Scientific Revolution.

• how and why that changed after the Revolution.

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY

21ST CENTURY

Writing an Internet-based Research Paper

Go to **hmhsocialstudies.com** to learn about conducting research on the Internet. Use the Internet to explore a recent breakthrough in science or medicine. Look for information that will help you explain why the discovery is significant and how the new knowledge changes what scientists had thought about the topic.

In a well-organized paper, compare the significance of the discovery you are writing about with major scientific or medical discoveries of the Scientific Revolution. Be sure to

• apply a search strategy when using directories and search engines to locate Web resources.

• judge the usefulness of each Web site.

• correctly cite your Web resources.

• revise and edit for correct use of language.

THE *American* REVOLUTION

The American Revolution led to the formation of the United States of America in 1776. Beginning in the 1760s, tensions grew between American colonists and their British rulers when Britain started passing a series of new laws and taxes for the colonies. With no representation in the British government, however, colonists had no say in these laws, which led to growing discontent. After fighting broke out in 1775, colonial leaders met to decide what to do. They approved the Declaration of Independence, announcing that the American colonies were free from British rule. In reality, however, freedom would not come until after years of fighting.

Explore some of the people and events of the American Revolution online. You can find a wealth of information, video clips, primary sources, activities, and more at ⤴ **hmhsocialstudies.com**.

"*I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!*"

— Patrick Henry

"Give Me Liberty or Give Me Death"
Read an excerpt from Patrick Henry's famous speech, which urged the colonists to fight against the British.

Seeds of Revolution
Watch the video to learn about colonial discontent in the years before the Revolutionary War.
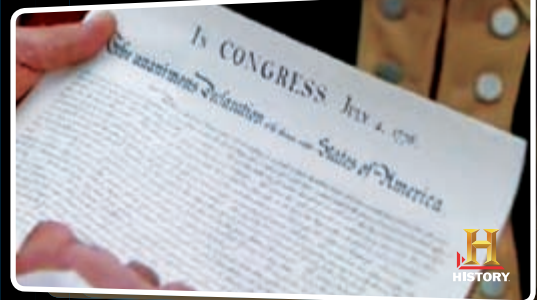
Independence!
Watch the video to learn about the origins of the Declaration of Independence.

Victory!
Watch the video to learn how the American colonists won the Revolutionary War.

23

The French Revolution and Napoleon, 1789–1815

Previewing Themes

ECONOMICS The gap between rich and poor in France was vast. The inequalities of the economy of France were a major cause of the French Revolution.

Geography *Why do you think the royal palace at Versailles became a focal point for the anger of the poor people of Paris during the Revolution?*

REVOLUTION Driven by the example of the American Revolution and such Enlightenment ideas as liberty, equality, and democracy, the French ousted the government of Louis XVI and established a new political order.

Geography *Why do you think some historians cite the "wind from America" as a cause of the French Revolution?*

POWER AND AUTHORITY After seizing power in 1799, Napoleon conquered a huge empire that included much of Western Europe. His attempt to conquer Russia, however, led to his downfall.

Geography *What challenges and hazards of invading Russia might be inferred from the map?*

EUROPE

1789 Storming of the Bastille ignites the French Revolution.

1793 King Louis XVI is executed by guillotine; Reign of Terror begins. ▶

1796 Directory appoints Napoleon commander of French forces in Italy.

1789

WORLD

1789 George Washington is inaugurated as first U.S. president. ▶

1795 Great Britain seizes the Cape Colony in South Africa from the Dutch.

Napoleon's Empire, 1810

Legend:
- French Empire
- Countries allied with Napoleon
- Countries controlled by Napoleon
- Countries at war with Napoleon

Map labels:

KINGDOM OF DENMARK AND NORWAY

KINGDOM OF SWEDEN

Baltic Sea

North Sea

REP. OF DANZIG

PRUSSIA
Berlin
Elbe River

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

Warsaw
GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW

UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
London

Brussels
Amiens
Paris
Versailles
Loire River

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE

Rhine River

Prague

ATLANTIC OCEAN

FRENCH EMPIRE

HELVETIC REPUBLIC

Danube River

Vienna

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

Milan KINGDOM OF ITALY
Po River

Marseille

ILLYRIAN PROVINCES

Adriatic Sea

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Black Sea

PORTUGAL
Lisbon
Madrid

Barcelona

SPAIN

CORSICA

KINGDOM OF SARDINIA

Rome
Naples
KINGDOM OF NAPLES

MONTENEGRO

Mediterranean Sea

KINGDOM OF SICILY

0   250   500 Miles
0   250   500 Kilometers
Conic Projection

Timeline:

1799
Napoleon overthrows the Directory through a coup d'état.

1804
Napoleon crowns himself emperor, begins to create a vast European empire. ▶

1815
Napoleon is defeated at the Battle of Waterloo.

1800

1815

1800
Opium trade begins in China.

1804
Saint Domingue gains independence. (Toussaint L'Ouverture) ▶

1810
Padre Hidalgo calls for Mexican independence.

1814
War of 1812 between Great Britain and the United States ends.

How would you change an unjust government?

You are living in France in the late 1700s. Your parents are merchants who earn a good living. However, after taxes they have hardly any money left. You know that other people, especially the peasants in the countryside, are even worse off than you. At the same time, the nobility lives in luxury and pays practically no taxes.

Many people in France are desperate for change. But they are uncertain how to bring about that change. Some think that representatives of the people should demand fair taxes and just laws. Others support violent revolution. In Paris, that revolution seems to have begun. An angry mob has attacked and taken over the Bastille, a royal prison. You wonder what will happen next.

1 One of the mob leaders triumphantly displays the keys to the Bastille.

2 Although they were in search of gunpowder and firearms, the conquerors of the Bastille took whatever they could find.

3 One man drags the royal standard behind him.

▲ The conquerors of the Bastille parade outside City Hall in Paris.

EXAMINING *the* ISSUES

- **How would you define an unjust government?**
- **What, if anything, would lead you to take part in a violent revolution?**

Discuss these questions with your classmates. In your discussion, remember what you've learned about the causes of revolutionary conflicts such as the American Revolution and the English Civil War. As you read about the French Revolution in this chapter, see what changes take place and how these changes came about.

The French Revolution Begins

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
ECONOMICS Economic and social inequalities in the Old Regime helped cause the French Revolution.	Throughout history, economic and social inequalities have at times led peoples to revolt against their governments.	• Old Regime • estate • Louis XVI • Marie Antoinette • Estates-General • National Assembly • Tennis Court Oath • Great Fear

SETTING THE STAGE In the 1700s, France was considered the most advanced country of Europe. It had a large population and a prosperous foreign trade. It was the center of the Enlightenment, and France's culture was widely praised and imitated by the rest of the world. However, the appearance of success was deceiving. There was great unrest in France, caused by bad harvests, high prices, high taxes, and disturbing questions raised by the Enlightenment ideas of Locke, Rousseau, and Voltaire.

The Old Order

In the 1770s, the social and political system of France—the **Old Regime**—remained in place. Under this system, the people of France were divided into three large social classes, or **estates**.

The Privileged Estates Two of the estates had privileges, including access to high offices and exemptions from paying taxes, that were not granted to the members of the third. The Roman Catholic Church, whose clergy formed the First Estate, owned 10 percent of the land in France. It provided education and relief services to the poor and contributed about 2 percent of its income to the government. The Second Estate was made up of rich nobles. Although they accounted for just 2 percent of the population, the nobles owned 20 percent of the land and paid almost no taxes. The majority of the clergy and the nobility scorned Enlightenment ideas as radical notions that threatened their status and power as privileged persons.

The Third Estate About 97 percent of the people belonged to the Third Estate. The three groups that made up this estate differed greatly in their economic conditions. The first group—the bourgeoisie (BUR•zhwah•ZEE), or middle class—were bankers, factory owners, merchants, professionals, and skilled artisans. Often, they were well educated and believed strongly in the Enlightenment ideals of liberty and equality. Although some of the bourgeoisie were as rich as nobles, they paid high taxes and, like the rest of the Third Estate, lacked privileges. Many felt that their wealth entitled them to a greater degree of social status and political power.

The workers of France's cities formed the second, and poorest, group within the Third Estate. These urban workers included tradespeople, apprentices, laborers, and domestic servants. Paid low wages and frequently out of work, they often

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TAKING NOTES
Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the causes of the French Revolution.

A FAUT ESPERE Q'EU JEU LA FINIRA BEN TOT

The Three Estates

A First Estate
- made up of clergy of Roman Catholic Church
- scorned Enlightenment ideas

B Second Estate
- made up of rich nobles
- held highest offices in government
- disagreed about Enlightenment ideas

C Third Estate
- included bourgeoisie, urban lower class, and peasant farmers
- had no power to influence government
- embraced Enlightenment ideas
- resented the wealthy First and Second Estates.

Population of France, 1787

97% (Third Estate)

less than 1% (First Estate)

2% (Second Estate)
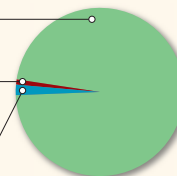
Percent of Income Paid in Taxes

2% (First Estate)

0% (Second Estate)

50% (Third Estate)

0%   20%   40%   60%   80%   100%
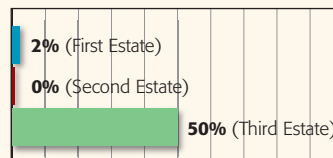
SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts and Political Cartoons
1. **Drawing Conclusions** *How do the chart and the graphs help explain the political cartoon?*
2. **Making Inferences** *Why might the First and Second Estates be opposed to change?*

went hungry. If the cost of bread rose, mobs of these workers might attack grain carts and bread shops to steal what they needed.

Peasants formed the largest group within the Third Estate, more than 80 percent of France's 26 million people. Peasants paid about half their income in dues to nobles, tithes to the Church, and taxes to the king's agents. They even paid taxes on such basic staples as salt. Peasants and the urban poor resented the clergy and the nobles for their privileges and special treatment. The heavily taxed and discontented Third Estate was eager for change.

The Forces of Change

In addition to the growing resentment among the lower classes, other factors contributed to the revolutionary mood in France. New ideas about government, serious economic problems, and weak and indecisive leadership all helped to generate a desire for change.

Enlightenment Ideas New views about power and authority in government were spreading among the Third Estate. Members of the Third Estate were inspired by the success of the American Revolution. They began questioning long-standing notions about the structure of society. Quoting Rousseau and Voltaire, they began to demand equality, liberty, and democracy. The Comte D'Antraigues, a friend of Rousseau, best summed up their ideas on what government should be:

PRIMARY SOURCE
The Third Estate is the People and the People is the foundation of the State; it is in fact the State itself; the . . . People is everything. Everything should be subordinated to it. . . . It is in the People that all national power resides and for the People that all states exist.
COMTE D'ANTRAIGUES, quoted in *Citizens: A Chronicle of the French Revolution*

Economic Troubles By the 1780s, France's once prosperous economy was in decline. This caused alarm, particularly among the merchants, factory owners, and

bankers of the Third Estate. On the surface, the economy appeared to be sound, because both production and trade were expanding rapidly. However, the heavy burden of taxes made it almost impossible to conduct business profitably within France. Further, the cost of living was rising sharply. In addition, bad weather in the 1780s caused widespread crop failures, resulting in a severe shortage of grain. The price of bread doubled in 1789, and many people faced starvation.

During the 1770s and 1780s, France's government sank deeply into debt. Part of the problem was the extravagant spending of **Louis XVI** and his queen, **Marie Antoinette**. Louis also inherited a considerable debt from previous kings. And he borrowed heavily in order to help the American revolutionaries in their war against Great Britain, France's chief rival. This nearly doubled the government's debt. In 1786, when bankers refused to lend the government any more money, Louis faced serious problems.

A Weak Leader Strong leadership might have solved these and other problems. Louis XVI, however, was indecisive and allowed matters to drift. He paid little attention to his government advisers, and had little patience for the details of governing. The queen only added to Louis's problems. She often interfered in the government, and frequently offered Louis poor advice. Further, since she was a member of the royal family of Austria, France's long-time enemy, Marie Antoinette had been unpopular from the moment she set foot in France. Her behavior only made the situation worse. As queen, she spent so much money on gowns, jewels, gambling, and gifts that she became known as "Madame Deficit."

Vocabulary
deficit: debt

Rather than cutting expenses, Louis put off dealing with the emergency until he practically had no money left. His solution was to impose taxes on the nobility. However, the Second Estate forced him to call a meeting of the **Estates-General**— an assembly of representatives from all three estates—to approve this new tax. The meeting, the first in 175 years, was held on May 5, 1789, at Versailles.

History Makers

Louis XVI
1754–1793

Louis XVI's tutors made little effort to prepare him for his role as king—and it showed. He was easily bored with affairs of state, and much preferred to spend his time in physical activities, particularly hunting. He also loved to work with his hands, and was skilled in several trades, including lock-making, metalworking, and bricklaying.

Despite these shortcomings, Louis was well intentioned and sincerely wanted to improve the lives of the common people. However, he lacked the ability to make decisions and the determination to see policies through. When he did take action, it often was based on poor advice from ill-informed members of his court. As one politician of the time noted, "His reign was a succession of feeble attempts at doing good, shows of weakness, and clear evidence of his inadequacy as a leader."

Marie Antoinette
1755–1793

Marie Antoinette was a pretty, lighthearted, charming woman. However, she was unpopular with the French because of her spending and her involvement in controversial court affairs. She referred to Louis as "the poor man" and sometimes set the clock forward an hour to be rid of his presence.

Marie Antoinette refused to wear the tight-fitting clothing styles of the day and introduced a loose cotton dress for women. The elderly, who viewed the dress as an undergarment, thought that her clothing was scandalous. The French silk industry was equally angry.

In constant need of entertainment, Marie Antoinette often spent hours playing cards. One year she lost the equivalent of $1.5 million by gambling in card games.

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette.

Dawn of the Revolution

The clergy and the nobles had dominated the Estates-General throughout the Middle Ages and expected to do so in the 1789 meeting. Under the assembly's medieval rules, each estate's delegates met in a separate hall to vote, and each estate had one vote. The two privileged estates could always outvote the Third Estate.

The National Assembly The Third Estate delegates, mostly members of the bourgeoisie whose views had been shaped by the Enlightenment, were eager to make changes in the government. They insisted that all three estates meet together and that each delegate have a vote. This would give the advantage to the Third Estate, which had as many delegates as the other two estates combined. **A**

Siding with the nobles, the king ordered the Estates-General to follow the medieval rules. The delegates of the Third Estate, however, became more and more determined to wield power. A leading spokesperson for their viewpoint was a clergyman sympathetic to their cause, Emmanuel-Joseph Sieyès (syay•YEHS). In a dramatic speech, Sieyès suggested that the Third Estate delegates name themselves the **National Assembly** and pass laws and reforms in the name of the French people.

After a long night of excited debate, the delegates of the Third Estate agreed to Sieyès's idea by an overwhelming majority. On June 17, 1789, they voted to establish the National Assembly, in effect proclaiming the end of absolute monarchy and the beginning of representative government. This vote was the first deliberate act of revolution.

Three days later, the Third Estate delegates found themselves locked out of their meeting room. They broke down a door to an indoor tennis court, pledging to stay until they had drawn up a new constitution. This pledge became known as the **Tennis Court Oath**. Soon after, nobles and members of the clergy who favored reform joined the Third Estate delegates. In response to these events, Louis stationed his mercenary army of Swiss guards around Versailles.

▼The attack on the Bastille claimed the lives of about 100 people.

Storming the Bastille In Paris, rumors flew. Some people suggested that Louis was intent on using military force to dismiss the National Assembly. Others charged that the foreign troops were coming to Paris to massacre French citizens.

People began to gather weapons in order to defend the city against attack. On July 14, a mob searching for gunpowder and arms stormed the Bastille, a Paris prison. The mob overwhelmed the guard and seized control of the building. The angry attackers hacked the prison commander and several guards to death, and then paraded around the streets with the dead men's heads on pikes.

The fall of the Bastille became a great symbolic act of revolution to the French people. Ever since, July 14—Bastille Day—has been a French national holiday, similar to the Fourth of July in the United States.

A Great Fear Sweeps France

Before long, rebellion spread from Paris into the countryside. From one village to the next, wild rumors circulated that the nobles were hiring outlaws to terrorize the peasants. A wave of senseless panic called the **Great Fear** rolled through France. The peasants soon became outlaws themselves. Armed with pitchforks and other farm tools, they broke into nobles' manor houses and destroyed the old legal papers that bound them to pay feudal dues. In some cases, the peasants simply burned down the manor houses.

In October 1789, thousands of Parisian women rioted over the rising price of bread. Brandishing knives, axes, and other weapons, the women marched on Versailles. First, they demanded that the National Assembly take action to provide bread. Then they turned their anger on the king and queen. They broke into the palace, killing some of the guards. The women demanded that Louis and Marie Antoinette return to Paris. After some time, Louis agreed.

A few hours later the king, his family, and servants left Versailles, never again to see the magnificent palace. Their exit signaled the change of power and radical reforms about to overtake France. **B**

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

B How did the women's march mark a turning point in the relationship between the king and the people?

Social History

Bread

Bread was a staple of the diet of the common people of France. Most families consumed three or four 4-pound loaves a day. And the purchase of bread took about half of a worker's wages—when times were good. So, when the price of bread jumped dramatically, as it did in the fall of 1789, people faced a real threat of starvation.

On their march back from Versailles, the women of Paris happily sang that they were bringing "the baker, the baker's wife, and the baker's lad" with them. They expected the "baker"—Louis—to provide the cheap bread that they needed to live.

SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Old Regime • estates • Louis XVI • Marie Antoinette • Estates-General • National Assembly • Tennis Court Oath • Great Fear

USING YOUR NOTES
2. Select one of the causes you listed and explain how it contributed to the French Revolution.

Causes of Revolution
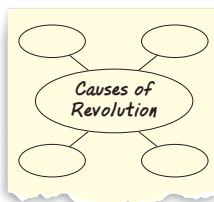
MAIN IDEAS
3. Why were members of the Third Estate dissatisfied with life under the Old Regime?

4. How did Louis XVI's weak leadership contribute to the growing crisis in France?

5. How did the purpose of the meeting of the Estates-General in 1789 change?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
6. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS Do you think that changes in the French government were inevitable? Explain.

7. ANALYZING MOTIVES Why do you think some members of the First and Second Estates joined the National Assembly and worked to reform the government?

8. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING How were the storming of the Bastille and the women's march on Versailles similar? How were they different?

9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY In the role of a member of the Third Estate, write a brief **speech** explaining why the French political system needs to change.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A COLLAGE

Conduct research on how Bastille Day is celebrated in France today. Use your findings to create an **annotated collage** titled "Celebrating the Revolution."

Revolution Brings Reform and Terror

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
REVOLUTION The revolutionary government of France made reforms but also used terror and violence to retain power.	Some governments that lack the support of a majority of their people still use fear to control their citizens.	• Legislative Assembly • guillotine • émigré • Maximilien • sans-culotte Robespierre • Jacobin • Reign of Terror

SETTING THE STAGE Peasants were not the only members of French society to feel the Great Fear. Nobles and officers of the Church were equally afraid. Throughout France, bands of angry peasants struck out against members of the upper classes, attacking and destroying many manor houses. In the summer of 1789, a few months before the women's march to Versailles, some nobles and members of clergy in the National Assembly responded to the uprisings in an emotional late-night meeting.

The Assembly Reforms France

Throughout the night of August 4, 1789, noblemen made grand speeches, declaring their love of liberty and equality. Motivated more by fear than by idealism, they joined other members of the National Assembly in sweeping away the feudal privileges of the First and Second Estates, thus making commoners equal to the nobles and the clergy. By morning, the Old Regime was dead.

The Rights of Man Three weeks later, the National Assembly adopted a statement of revolutionary ideals, the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen. Reflecting the influence of the Declaration of Independence, the document stated that "men are born and remain free and equal in rights." These rights included "liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression." The document also guaranteed citizens equal justice, freedom of speech, and freedom of religion.

In keeping with these principles, revolutionary leaders adopted the expression "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity" as their slogan. Such sentiments, however, did not apply to everyone. When writer Olympe de Gouges (aw•LIMP duh GOOZH) published a declaration of the rights of women, her ideas were rejected. Later, in 1793, she was declared an enemy of the Revolution and executed.

A State-Controlled Church Many of the National Assembly's early reforms focused on the Church. The assembly took over Church lands and declared that Church officials and priests were to be elected and paid as state officials. Thus, the Catholic Church lost both its lands and its political independence. The reasons for the assembly's actions were largely economic. Proceeds from the sale of Church lands helped pay off France's huge debt.

The assembly's actions alarmed millions of French peasants, who were devout Catholics. The effort to make the Church a part of the state offended them, even

◄ One of the people who stopped Louis from escaping said that he recognized the king from his portrait on a French bank note.

though it was in accord with Enlightenment philosophy. They believed that the pope should rule over a church independent of the state. From this time on, many peasants opposed the assembly's reforms.

Louis Tries to Escape As the National Assembly restructured the relationship between church and state, Louis XVI pondered his fate as a monarch. Some of his advisers warned him that he and his family were in danger. Many supporters of the monarchy thought France unsafe and left the country. Then, in June 1791, the royal family tried to escape from France to the Austrian Netherlands. As they neared the border, however, they were apprehended and returned to Paris under guard. Louis's attempted escape increased the influence of his radical enemies in the government and sealed his fate.

Divisions Develop

For two years, the National Assembly argued over a new constitution for France. By 1791, the delegates had made significant changes in France's government and society.

A Limited Monarchy In September 1791, the National Assembly completed the new constitution, which Louis reluctantly approved. The constitution created a limited constitutional monarchy. It stripped the king of much of his authority. It also created a new legislative body—the **Legislative Assembly**. This body had the power to create laws and to approve or reject declarations of war. However, the king still held the executive power to enforce laws.

Factions Split France Despite the new government, old problems, such as food shortages and government debt, remained. The question of how to handle these problems caused the Legislative Assembly to split into three general groups, each of which sat in a different part of the meeting hall. Radicals, who sat on the left side of the hall, opposed the idea of a monarchy and wanted sweeping changes in the way the government was run. Moderates sat in the center of the hall and wanted some changes in government, but not as many as the radicals. Conservatives sat on the right side of the hall. They upheld the idea of a limited monarchy and wanted few changes in government. **A**

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

A How did differences of opinion on how to handle such issues as food shortages and debt affect the Legislative Assembly?

Connect *to* Today

Left, Right, and Center

The terms we use today to describe where people stand politically derive from the factions that developed in the Legislative Assembly in 1791.

- People who want to radically change government are called left wing or are said to be on the left.
- People with moderate views often are called centrist or are said to be in the center.
- People who want few or no changes in government often are called right wing or are said to be on the right.

In addition, factions outside the Legislative Assembly wanted to influence the direction of the government too. **Émigrés** (EHM•ih•GRAYZ), nobles and others who had fled France, hoped to undo the Revolution and restore the Old Regime. In contrast, some Parisian workers and small shopkeepers wanted the Revolution to bring even greater changes to France. They were called **sans-culottes** (SANZ-kyoo•LAHTS), or "those without knee breeches." Unlike the upper classes, who wore fancy knee-length pants, sans-culottes wore regular trousers. Although they did not have a role in the assembly, they soon discovered ways to exert their power on the streets of Paris.

War and Execution

Monarchs and nobles in many European countries watched the changes taking place in France with alarm. They feared that similar revolts might break out in their own countries. In fact, some radicals were keen to spread their revolutionary ideas across Europe. As a result, some countries took action. Austria and Prussia, for example, urged the French to restore Louis to his position as an absolute monarch. The Legislative Assembly responded by declaring war in April 1792.

France at War The war began badly for the French. By the summer of 1792, Prussian forces were advancing on Paris. The Prussian commander threatened to destroy Paris if the revolutionaries harmed any member of the royal family. This enraged the Parisians. On August 10, about 20,000 men and women invaded the Tuileries, the palace where the royal family was staying. The mob massacred the royal guards and imprisoned Louis, Marie Antoinette, and their children.

Shortly after, the French troops defending Paris were sent to reinforce the French army in the field. Rumors began to spread that supporters of the king held in Paris prisons planned to break out and seize control of the city. Angry and fearful citizens responded by taking the law into their own hands. For several days in early September, they raided the prisons and murdered over 1,000 prisoners. Many nobles, priests, and royalist sympathizers fell victim to the angry mobs in these September Massacres. **B**

Under pressure from radicals in the streets and among its members, the Legislative Assembly set aside the Constitution of 1791. It declared the king deposed, dissolved the assembly, and called for the election of a new legislature. This new governing body, the National Convention, took office on September 21. It quickly abolished the monarchy and declared France a republic. Adult male citizens were granted the right to vote and hold office. Despite the important part they had already played in the Revolution, women were not given the vote.

Jacobins Take Control Most of the people involved in the governmental changes in September 1792 were members of a radical political organization, the Jacobin (JAK•uh•bihn) Club. One of the most prominent **Jacobins**, as club members were called, was Jean-Paul Marat (mah•RAH). During the Revolution, he edited a newspaper called *L'Ami du Peuple* (Friend of the People). In his fiery editorials, Marat called for

History Makers
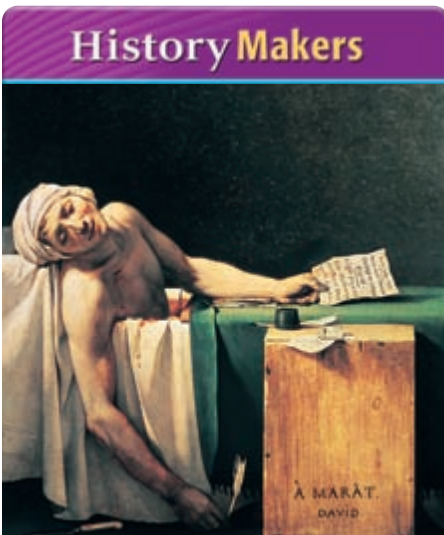
Jean-Paul Marat
1743–1793

Marat was a thin, high-strung, sickly man whose revolutionary writings stirred up the violent mood in Paris. Because he suffered from a painful skin disease, he often found comfort by relaxing in a cold bath—even arranging things so that he could work in his bathtub!

During the summer of 1793, Charlotte Corday, a supporter of a rival faction whose members had been jailed, gained an audience with Marat by pretending to have information about traitors. Once inside Marat's private chambers, she fatally stabbed him as he bathed. For her crime, Corday went to the guillotine.

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Causes
B What did the September Massacres show about the mood of the people?

The Guillotine

If you think the guillotine was a cruel form of capital punishment, think again. Dr. Joseph Ignace Guillotin proposed a machine that satisfied many needs—it was efficient, humane, and democratic. A physician and member of the National Assembly, Guillotin claimed that those executed with the device "wouldn't even feel the slightest pain."

Prior to the guillotine's introduction in 1792, many French criminals had suffered through horrible punishments in public places. Although public punishments continued to attract large crowds, not all spectators were pleased with the new machine. Some witnesses felt that death by the guillotine occurred much too quickly to be enjoyed by an audience.

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on the guillotine.

Once the executioner cranked the blade to the top, a mechanism released it. The sharp weighted blade fell, severing the victim's head from his or her body.

Some doctors believed that a victim's head retained its hearing and eyesight for up to 15 minutes after the blade's deadly blow. All remains were eventually gathered and buried in simple graves.

Tricoteuses, or "woman knitters," were regular spectators at executions and knitted stockings for soldiers as they sat near the base of the scaffold.

Before each execution, bound victims traveled from the prison to the scaffold in horse-drawn carts during a one and one-half hour procession through city streets.

Beheading by Class

More than 2,100 people were executed during the last 132 days of the Reign of Terror. The pie graph below displays the breakdown of beheadings by class.

- **First Estate**
- **Second Estate**
- **Third Estate**

Connect *to* Today

1. **Synthesizing** In what ways was the guillotine an efficient means of execution?

   See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R21.

2. **Comparing** France continued to use the guillotine until 1977. Four years later, France abolished capital punishment. Conduct research to identify countries where capital punishment is still used. Use your findings to create a map titled "Countries Using Capital Punishment."

the death of all those who continued to support the king. Georges Danton (zhawrzh-dahn•TAWN), a lawyer, was among the club's most talented and passionate speakers. He also was known for his devotion to the rights of Paris's poor people.

The National Convention had reduced Louis XVI's role from that of a king to that of a common citizen and prisoner. Now, guided by radical Jacobins, it tried Louis for treason. The Convention found him guilty, and, by a very close vote, sentenced him to death. On January 21, 1793, the former king walked with calm dignity up the steps of the scaffold to be beheaded by a machine called the **guillotine** (GIHL•uh•TEEN). (See the Science & Technology feature on page 659.)

The War Continues The National Convention also had to contend with the continuing war with Austria and Prussia. At about the time the Convention took office, the French army won a stunning victory against the Austrians and Prussians at the Battle of Valmy. Early in 1793, however, Great Britain, Holland, and Spain joined Prussia and Austria against France. Forced to contend with so many enemies, the French suffered a string of defeats. To reinforce the French army, Jacobin leaders in the Convention took an extreme step. At their urging, in February 1793 the Convention ordered a draft of 300,000 French citizens between the ages of 18 and 40. By 1794, the army had grown to 800,000 and included women.

The Terror Grips France

Foreign armies were not the only enemies of the French republic. The Jacobins had thousands of enemies within France itself. These included peasants who were horrified by the king's execution, priests who would not accept government control, and rival leaders who were stirring up rebellion in the provinces. How to contain and control these enemies became a central issue.

Robespierre Assumes Control In the early months of 1793, one Jacobin leader, **Maximilien Robespierre** (ROHBZ•peer), slowly gained power. Robespierre and his supporters set out to build a "republic of virtue" by wiping out every trace of France's past. Firm believers in reason, they changed the calendar, dividing the year into 12 months of 30 days and renaming each month. This calendar had no Sundays because the radicals considered religion old-fashioned and dangerous. They even closed all churches in Paris, and cities and towns all over France soon did the same.

In July 1793, Robespierre became leader of the Committee of Public Safety. For the next year, Robespierre governed France virtually as a dictator, and the period of his rule became known as the **Reign of Terror**. The Committee of Public Safety's chief task was to protect the Revolution from its enemies. Under Robespierre's leadership, the committee often had these "enemies" tried in the morning and guillotined in the afternoon. Robespierre justified his use of terror by suggesting that it enabled French citizens to remain true to the ideals of the Revolution. He also saw a connection between virtue and terror:

PRIMARY SOURCE Ⓒ

The first maxim of our politics ought to be to lead the people by means of reason and the enemies of the people by terror. If the basis of popular government in time of peace is virtue, the basis of popular government in time of revolution is both virtue and terror: virtue without which terror is murderous, terror without which virtue is powerless. Terror is nothing else than swift, severe, indomitable justice; it flows, then, from virtue.

MAXIMILIEN ROBESPIERRE, "On the Morals and Political Principles of Domestic Policy" (1794)

The "enemies of the Revolution" who troubled Robespierre the most were fellow radicals who challenged his leadership. In 1793 and 1794, many of those who had led the Revolution received death sentences. Their only crime was that they were

considered less radical than Robespierre. By early 1794, even Georges Danton found himself in danger. Danton's friends in the National Convention, afraid to defend him, joined in condemning him. On the scaffold, he told the executioner, "Don't forget to show my head to the people. It's well worth seeing."

The Terror claimed not only the famous, such as Danton and Marie Antoinette, the widowed queen. Thousands of unknown people also were sent to their deaths, often on the flimsiest of charges. For example, an 18-year-old youth was sentenced to die for cutting down a tree that had been planted as a symbol of liberty. Perhaps as many as 40,000 were executed during the Terror. About 85 percent were peasants or members of the urban poor or middle class— for whose benefit the Revolution had been launched.

End of the Terror

In July 1794, fearing for their own safety, some members of the National Convention turned on Robespierre. They demanded his arrest and execution. The Reign of Terror, the radical phase of the French Revolution, ended on July 28, 1794, when Robespierre went to the guillotine.

French public opinion shifted dramatically after Robespierre's death. People of all classes had grown weary of the Terror. They were also tired of the skyrocketing prices for bread, salt, and other necessities of life. In 1795, moderate leaders in the National Convention drafted a new plan of government, the third since 1789. It placed power firmly in the hands of the upper middle class and called for a two-house legislature and an executive body of five men, known as the Directory. These five were moderates, not revolutionary idealists. Some of them were corrupt and made themselves rich at the country's expense. Even so, they gave their troubled country a period of order. They also found the right general to command France's armies—Napoleon Bonaparte.

▲ At his trial, Georges Danton defended himself so skillfully that the authorities eventually denied him the right to speak.

SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Legislative Assembly   • émigré   • sans-culotte   • Jacobin   • guillotine   • Maximilien Robespierre   • Reign of Terror

USING YOUR NOTES
2. Do you think this chain of events could have been changed in any way? Explain.

Assembly Creates a Constitution
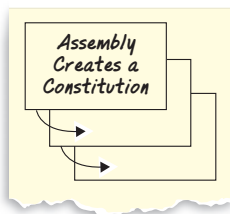
MAIN IDEAS
3. What major reforms did the National Assembly introduce?
4. What did the divisions in the Legislative Assembly say about the differences in French society?
5. How did the Reign of Terror come to an end?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
6. SYNTHESIZING How did the slogan "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity" sum up the goals of the Revolution?
7. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING What similarities and differences do you see between the political factions in the Legislative Assembly and those in the U.S. government today?
8. ANALYZING CAUSES What factors led to Robespierre becoming a dictator?
9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION Working in small teams, write short **biographies** of three revolutionary figures mentioned in this section.

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY **PREPARING AN ORAL REPORT**

21ST CENTURY

Use the Internet to conduct research on governments that use terrorism against their own people. Prepare an **oral report** on the methods these countries use.

INTERNET KEYWORD
human rights

The French Revolution

Over time, people have expressed a wide variety of opinions about the causes and outcomes of the French Revolution. The following excerpts, dating from the 1790s to 1859, illustrate this diversity of opinion.

A SECONDARY SOURCE

Charles Dickens

In 1859, the English writer Dickens wrote *A Tale of Two Cities,* a novel about the French Revolution for which he did much research. In the following scene, Charles Darnay—an aristocrat who gave up his title because he hated the injustices done to the people—has returned to France and been put on trial.

His judges sat upon the bench in feathered hats; but the rough red cap and tricolored cockade was the headdress otherwise prevailing. Looking at the jury and the turbulent audience, he might have thought that the usual order of things was reversed, and that the felons were trying the honest men. The lowest, cruelest, and worst populace of a city, never without its quantity of low, cruel, and bad, were the directing spirits of the scene. . . .

Charles Evrémonde, called Darnay, was accused by the public prosecutor as an emigrant, whose life was forfeit to the Republic, under the decree which banished all emigrants on pain of Death. It was nothing that the decree bore date since his return to France. There he was, and there was the decree; he had been taken in France, and his head was demanded.

"Take off his head!" cried the audience. "An enemy to the Republic!"

B PRIMARY SOURCE

Edmund Burke

Burke, a British politician, was one of the earliest and most severe critics of the French Revolution. In 1790, he expressed this opinion.

[The French have rebelled] against a mild and lawful monarch, with more fury, outrage, and insult, than ever any people has been known to rise against the most illegal usurper, or the most [bloodthirsty] tyrant. . . .

They have found their punishment in their success. Laws overturned; tribunals subverted; . . . the people impoverished; a church pillaged, and . . . civil and military anarchy made the constitution of the kingdom. . . .

Were all these dreadful things necessary?

C PRIMARY SOURCE

Thomas Paine

In 1790, Paine—a strong supporter of the American Revolution—defended the French Revolution against Burke and other critics.

It is no longer the paltry cause of kings or of this or of that individual, that calls France and her armies into action. It is the great cause of all. It is the establishment of a new era, that shall blot despotism from the earth, and fix, on the lasting principles of peace and citizenship, the great Republic of Man.

The scene that now opens itself to France extends far beyond the boundaries of her own dominions. Every nation is becoming her ally, and every court has become her enemy. It is now the cause of all nations, against the cause of all courts.

▶ In this illustration from *A Tale of Two Cities*, Sidney Carton goes to the guillotine in Darnay's place.

Document-Based QUESTIONS

1. In your own words, summarize the attitude toward the French Revolution expressed in each of these excerpts.

2. Why might Edmund Burke (Source B) be so against the French Revolution?

3. In Source C, what is the distinction Thomas Paine is making between nations and courts?

Napoleon Forges an Empire

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
POWER AND AUTHORITY Napoleon Bonaparte, a military genius, seized power in France and made himself emperor.	In times of political turmoil, military dictators often seize control of nations.	• Napoleon Bonaparte • coup d'état • plebiscite • lycée • concordat • Napoleonic Code • Battle of Trafalgar

SETTING THE STAGE Napoleon Bonaparte was quite a short man—just five feet three inches tall. However, he cast a long shadow over the history of modern times. He would come to be recognized as one of the world's greatest military geniuses, along with Alexander the Great of Macedonia, Hannibal of Carthage, and Julius Caesar of Rome. In only four years, from 1795 to 1799, Napoleon rose from a relatively obscure position as an officer in the French army to become master of France.

Napoleon Seizes Power

Napoleon Bonaparte was born in 1769 on the Mediterranean island of Corsica. When he was nine years old, his parents sent him to a military school. In 1785, at the age of 16, he finished school and became a lieutenant in the artillery. When the Revolution broke out, Napoleon joined the army of the new government.

Hero of the Hour In October 1795, fate handed the young officer a chance for glory. When royalist rebels marched on the National Convention, a government official told Napoleon to defend the delegates. Napoleon and his gunners greeted the thousands of royalists with a cannonade. Within minutes, the attackers fled in panic and confusion. Napoleon Bonaparte became the hero of the hour and was hailed throughout Paris as the savior of the French republic.

In 1796, the Directory appointed Napoleon to lead a French army against the forces of Austria and the Kingdom of Sardinia. Crossing the Alps, the young general swept into Italy and won a series of remarkable victories. Next, in an attempt to protect French trade interests and to disrupt British trade with India, Napoleon led an expedition to Egypt. But he was unable to repeat the successes he had achieved in Europe. His army was pinned down in Egypt, and the British admiral Horatio Nelson defeated his naval forces. However, Napoleon managed to keep stories about his setbacks out of the newspapers and thereby remained a great hero to the people of France.

Coup d'État By 1799, the Directory had lost control of the political situation and the confidence of the French people. When Napoleon returned from Egypt, his friends urged him to seize political power. Napoleon took action in early November 1799. His troops surrounded the national legislature and drove out most of its members. The remaining lawmakers voted to dissolve the Directory.

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TAKING NOTES
Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on the events that led to Napoleon's crowning as emperor of France.

The French Revolution and Napoleon **663**

Napoleon Bonaparte
1769–1821

Because of his small stature and thick Corsican accent, Napoleon was mocked by his fellow students at military school. Haughty and proud, Napoleon refused to grace his tormentors' behavior with any kind of response. He simply ignored them, preferring to lose himself in his studies. He showed a particular passion for three subjects—classical history, geography, and mathematics.

In 1784, Napoleon was recommended for a career in the army and he transferred to the Ecole Militaire (the French equivalent of West Point) in Paris. There, he proved to be a fairly poor soldier, except when it came to artillery. His artillery instructor quickly noticed Napoleon's abilities: "He is most proud, ambitious, aspiring to everything. This young man merits our attention."

In its place, they established a group of three consuls, one of whom was Napoleon. Napoleon quickly took the title of first consul and assumed the powers of a dictator. A sudden seizure of power like Napoleon's is known as a *coup*—from the French phrase **coup d'état** (KOO day•TAH), or "blow to the state." **A**

At the time of Napoleon's coup, France was still at war. In 1799, Britain, Austria, and Russia joined forces with one goal in mind, to drive Napoleon from power. Once again, Napoleon rode from Paris at the head of his troops. Eventually, as a result of war and diplomacy, all three nations signed peace agreements with France. By 1802, Europe was at peace for the first time in ten years. Napoleon was free to focus his energies on restoring order in France.

Napoleon Rules France

At first, Napoleon pretended to be the constitutionally chosen leader of a free republic. In 1800, a **plebiscite** (PLEHB•ih•SYT), or vote of the people, was held to approve a new constitution. Desperate for strong leadership, the people voted overwhelmingly in favor of the constitution. This gave all real power to Napoleon as first consul.

Restoring Order at Home Napoleon did not try to return the nation to the days of Louis XVI. Rather, he kept many of the changes that had come with the Revolution. In general, he supported laws that would both strengthen the central government and achieve some of the goals of the Revolution.

His first task was to get the economy on a solid footing. Napoleon set up an efficient method of tax collection and established a national banking system. In addition to ensuring the government a steady supply of tax money, these actions promoted sound financial management and better control of the economy. Napoleon also took steps to end corruption and inefficiency in government. He dismissed corrupt officials and, in order to provide the government with trained officials, set up **lycées**, or government-run public schools. These lycées were open to male students of all backgrounds. Graduates were appointed to public office on the basis of merit rather than family connections.

One area where Napoleon disregarded changes introduced by the Revolution was religion. Both the clergy and many peasants wanted to restore the position of the Church in France. Responding to their wishes, Napoleon signed a **concordat**, or agreement, with Pope Pius VII. This established a new relationship between church and state. The government recognized the influence of the Church, but rejected Church control in national affairs. The concordat gained Napoleon the support of the organized Church as well as the majority of the French people.

Napoleon thought that his greatest work was his comprehensive system of laws, known as the **Napoleonic Code**. This gave the country a uniform set of laws and eliminated many injustices. However, it actually limited liberty and promoted order and authority over individual rights. For example, freedom of speech and of the press, established during the Revolution, were restricted under the code. The code also restored slavery in the French colonies of the Caribbean.

Napoleon Crowned as Emperor In 1804, Napoleon decided to make himself emperor, and the French voters supported him. On December 2, 1804, dressed in a splendid robe of purple velvet, Napoleon walked down the long aisle of Notre Dame Cathedral in Paris. The pope waited for him with a glittering crown. As thousands watched, the new emperor took the crown from the pope and placed it on his own head. With this gesture, Napoleon signaled that he was more powerful than the Church, which had traditionally crowned the rulers of France. **B**

Napoleon Creates an Empire

Napoleon was not content simply to be master of France. He wanted to control the rest of Europe and to reassert French power in the Americas. He envisioned his western empire including Louisiana, Florida, French Guiana, and the French West Indies. He knew that the key to this area was the sugar-producing colony of Saint Domingue (now called Haiti) on the island of Hispaniola.

Loss of American Territories In 1789, when the ideas of the Revolution reached the planters in Saint Domingue, they demanded that the National Assembly give them the same privileges as the people of France. Eventually, enslaved Africans in the colony demanded their rights too—in other words, their freedom. A civil war erupted, and enslaved Africans under the leadership of Toussaint L'Ouverture seized control of the colony. In 1801, Napoleon decided to take back the colony and restore its productive sugar industry. However, the French forces were devastated by disease. And the rebels proved to be fierce fighters.

After the failure of the expedition to Saint Domingue, Napoleon decided to cut his losses in the Americas. He offered to sell all of the Louisiana Territory to the United States, and in 1803 President Jefferson's administration agreed to purchase the land for $15 million. Napoleon saw a twofold benefit to the sale. First, he would gain money to finance operations in Europe. Second, he would punish the British. "The sale assures forever the power of the United States," he observed, "and I have given England a rival who, sooner or later, will humble her pride." **C**

Conquering Europe Having abandoned his imperial ambitions in the New World, Napoleon turned his attention to Europe. He had already annexed the Austrian Netherlands and parts of Italy to France and set up a puppet government in Switzerland. Now he looked to expand his influence further. Fearful of his ambitions, the British persuaded Russia, Austria, and Sweden to join them against France.

Napoleon met this challenge with his usual boldness. In a series of brilliant battles, he crushed the opposition. (See the map on page 666.) The commanders of the enemy armies could never predict his next move and often took heavy losses. After the Battle of Austerlitz in 1805, Napoleon issued a proclamation expressing his pride in his troops:

PRIMARY SOURCE

Soldiers! I am pleased with you. On the day of Austerlitz, you justified everything that I was expecting of [you]. . . . In less than four hours, an army of 100,000 men, commanded by the emperors of Russia and Austria, was cut up and dispersed. . . . 120 pieces of artillery, 20 generals, and more than 30,000 men taken prisoner—such are the results of this day which will forever be famous. . . . And it will be enough for you to say, "I was at Austerlitz," to hear the reply: "There is a brave man!"

NAPOLEON, quoted in *Napoleon* by André Castelot

▼ This painting by Jacques Louis David shows Napoleon in a heroic pose.
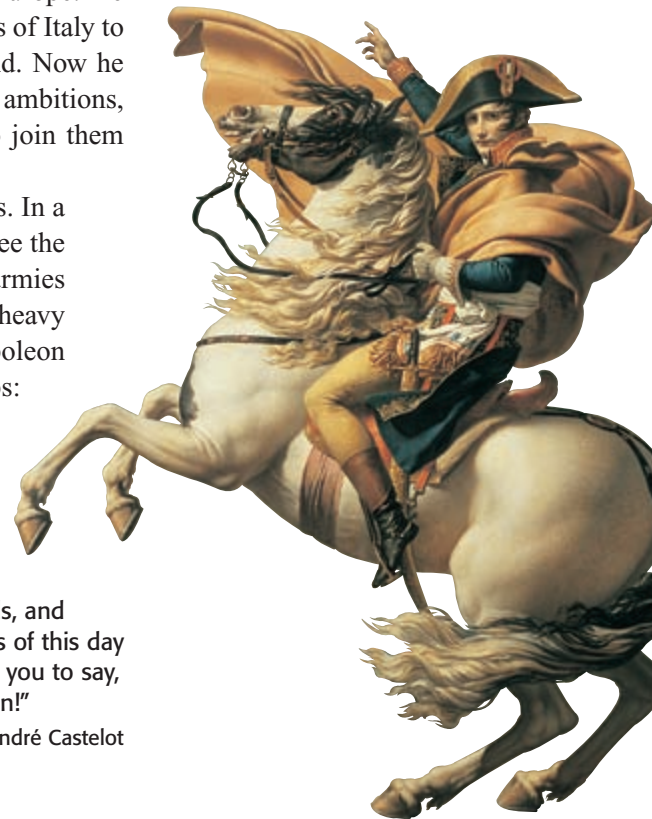
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INTERACTIVE MAP

Legend:
- French Empire
- Controlled by Napoleon
- French victory
- French defeat
- British blockade

Labels on map:

KINGDOM OF DENMARK AND NORWAY
KINGDOM OF SWEDEN
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND
North Sea
Baltic Sea
REP. OF DANZIG
Neman R.
PRUSSIA
Berlin
GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
Moscow (1812)
Borodino (1812)
Friedland (1807)
Leipzig (1813)
Jena (1806)
Austerlitz (1805)
London
Brussels
Amiens
Paris
Versailles
Seine R.
Elbe R.
Rhine R.
CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE
Ulm (1805)
Wagram (1809)
Aspern (1809)
Vienna
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
La Coruña (1809)
Loire R.
FRENCH EMPIRE
HELVETIC REPUBLIC
Milan
KINGDOM OF ITALY
Po R.
ILLYRIAN PROVINCES
Adriatic Sea
Danube R.
Black Sea
Vitoria (1813)
Ebro R.
Talavera (1809)
Madrid (1808)
Tagus R.
Marseille
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Valencia (1808)
CORSICA
Rome
SARDINIA
Naples
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
MONTENEGRO
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Trafalgar (1805)
Gibraltar
Mediterranean Sea
SICILY

0 500 Miles
0 1,000 Kilometers

Battle of Trafalgar, Oct. 21, 1805

- British fleet
- French and Spanish fleet
- British thrust

Villeneuve
Nelson
Álava
Collingwood
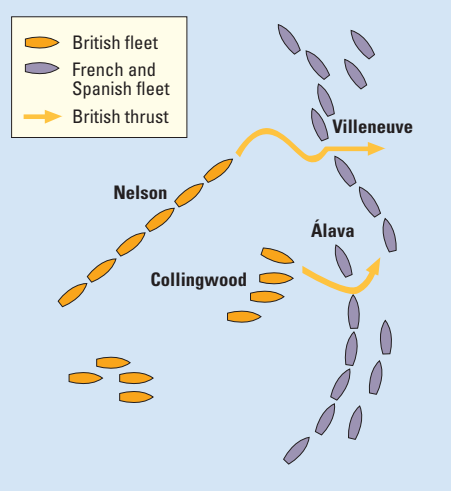
By dividing Villeneuve's formation, Admiral Nelson captured nearly two-thirds of the enemy fleet.

Battle of Austerlitz, Dec. 2, 1805

- French forces
- Allied Russian, Prussian, and Austrian forces
- French thrust
- Allied thrust

Bernadotte
Lannes
Bagration
Austerlitz
Soult
Pratzen Plateau
Kollowrat
NAPOLEÓN (About 70,000 troops)
Doctorov
CZAR ALEXANDER I (About 85,000 troops)
Goldbach Creek
Davout

0 2 Miles
0 4 Kilometers

By drawing an Allied attack on his right flank, Napoleon was able to split the Allied line at its center.

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Region** What was the extent of the lands under Napoleon's control?
2. **Location** Where was the Battle of Trafalgar fought? What tactic did Nelson use in the battle, and why was it successful?

In time, Napoleon's battlefield successes forced the rulers of Austria, Prussia, and Russia to sign peace treaties. These successes also enabled him to build the largest European empire since that of the Romans. France's only major enemy left undefeated was the great naval power, Britain.

The Battle of Trafalgar In his drive for a European empire, Napoleon lost only one major battle, the **Battle of Trafalgar** (truh•FAL•guhr). This naval defeat, however, was more important than all of his victories on land. The battle took place in 1805 off the southwest coast of Spain. The British commander, Horatio Nelson, was as brilliant in warfare at sea as Napoleon was in warfare on land. In a bold maneuver, he split the larger French fleet, capturing many ships. (See the map inset on the opposite page.)

The destruction of the French fleet had two major results. First, it ensured the supremacy of the British navy for the next 100 years. Second, it forced Napoleon to give up his plans of invading Britain. He had to look for another way to control his powerful enemy across the English Channel. Eventually, Napoleon's extravagant efforts to crush Britain would lead to his own undoing.

The French Empire During the first decade of the 1800s, Napoleon's victories had given him mastery over most of Europe. By 1812, the only areas of Europe free from Napoleon's control were Britain, Portugal, Sweden, and the Ottoman Empire. In addition to the lands of the French Empire, Napoleon also controlled numerous supposedly independent countries. (See the map on the opposite page.) These included Spain, the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, and a number of German kingdoms in Central Europe. The rulers of these countries were Napoleon's puppets; some, in fact, were members of his family. Furthermore, the powerful countries of Russia, Prussia, and Austria were loosely attached to Napoleon's empire through alliances. Although not totally under Napoleon's control, they were easily manipulated by threats of military action. **D**

The French Empire was huge but unstable. Napoleon was able to maintain it at its greatest extent for only five years—from 1807 to 1812. Then it quickly fell to pieces. Its sudden collapse was caused in part by Napoleon's actions.

MAIN IDEA

Drawing Conclusions

D By 1805, how successful had Napoleon been in his efforts to build an empire?

SECTION **3** **ASSESSMENT**

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Napoleon Bonaparte • coup d'état • plebiscite • lycée • concordat • Napoleonic Code • Battle of Trafalgar

USING YOUR NOTES
2. Which of these events do you think had the greatest impact on Napoleon's rise to power?

1789   1804
French   Napoleon
Revolution   crowned
breaks out.   emperor.
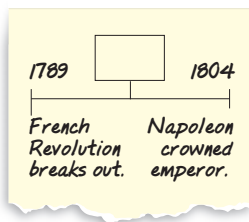
MAIN IDEAS
3. How did Napoleon become a hero in France?
4. What did Napoleon consider his greatest triumph in domestic policy?
5. How was Napoleon able to control the countries neighboring the French Empire?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
6. FORMING OPINIONS In your opinion, was Napoleon the creator or the creation of his times?
7. ANALYZING ISSUES Napoleon had to deal with forces both inside and outside the French Empire. In your judgment, which area was more important to control?
8. MAKING INFERENCES If you had been a member of the bourgeoisie, would you have been satisfied with the results of Napoleon's actions? Explain.
9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY Look at the painting on page 665. Write a **paragraph** discussing why the painter portrayed Napoleon in this fashion.

CONNECT TO TODAY **CREATING A VENN DIAGRAM**

Identify and conduct research on a present-day world leader who has used dictatorial powers to rule his or her country. Use your findings to create a **Venn diagram** comparing this leader's use of power to Napoleon's use of power.

Napoleon's Empire Collapses

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
POWER AND AUTHORITY Napoleon's conquests aroused nationalistic feelings across Europe and contributed to his downfall.	In the 1990s, nationalistic feelings contributed to the breakup of nations such as Yugoslavia.	• blockade • Continental System • guerrilla • Peninsular War • scorched-earth policy • Waterloo • Hundred Days

SETTING THE STAGE Napoleon worried about what would happen to his vast empire after his death. He feared it would fall apart unless he had an heir whose right to succeed him was undisputed. His wife, Josephine, had failed to bear him a child. He, therefore, divorced her and formed an alliance with the Austrian royal family by marrying Marie Louise, the grandniece of Marie Antoinette. In 1811, Marie Louise gave birth to a son, Napoleon II, whom Napoleon named king of Rome.

Napoleon's Costly Mistakes

Napoleon's own personality proved to be the greatest danger to the future of his empire. His desire for power had raised him to great heights, and the same love of power led him to his doom. In his efforts to extend the French Empire and crush Great Britain, Napoleon made three disastrous mistakes.

The Continental System In November 1806, Napoleon set up a **blockade**—a forcible closing of ports—to prevent all trade and communication between Great Britain and other European nations. Napoleon called this policy the **Continental System** because it was supposed to make continental Europe more self-sufficient. Napoleon also intended it to destroy Great Britain's commercial and industrial economy.

Napoleon's blockade, however, was not nearly tight enough. Aided by the British, smugglers managed to bring cargo from Britain into Europe. At times, Napoleon's allies also disregarded the blockade. Even members of Napoleon's family defied the policy, including his brother, Louis, whom he had made king of Holland. While the blockade weakened British trade, it did not destroy it. In addition, Britain responded with its own blockade. And because the British had a stronger navy, they were better able than the French to make the blockade work.

To enforce the blockade, the British navy stopped neutral ships bound for the continent and forced them to sail to a British port to be searched and taxed. American ships were among those stopped by the British navy. Angered, the U.S.

▼ "Little Johnny Bull"—Great Britain—waves a sword at Napoleon as the emperor straddles the globe.

A STOPPAGE to a STRIDE over the GLOBE

Congress declared war on Britain in 1812. Even though the War of 1812 lasted two years, it was only a minor inconvenience to Britain in its struggle with Napoleon.

The Peninsular War In 1808, Napoleon made a second costly mistake. In an effort to get Portugal to accept the Continental System, he sent an invasion force through Spain. The Spanish people protested this action. In response, Napoleon removed the Spanish king and put his own brother, Joseph, on the throne. This outraged the Spanish people and inflamed their nationalistic feelings. The Spanish, who were devoutly Catholic, also worried that Napoleon would attack the Church. They had seen how the French Revolution had weakened the Catholic Church in France, and they feared that the same thing would happen to the Church in Spain.

For six years, bands of Spanish peasant fighters, known as **guerrillas**, struck at French armies in Spain. The guerrillas were not an army that Napoleon could defeat in open battle. Rather, they worked in small groups that ambushed French troops and then fled into hiding. The British added to the French troubles by sending troops to aid the Spanish. Napoleon lost about 300,000 men during this **Peninsular War**—so called because Spain lies on the Iberian Peninsula. These losses weakened the French Empire.

In Spain and elsewhere, nationalism, or loyalty to one's own country, was becoming a powerful weapon against Napoleon. People who had at first welcomed the French as their liberators now felt abused by a foreign conqueror. Like the Spanish guerrillas, Germans and Italians and other conquered peoples turned against the French. **A**

The Invasion of Russia Napoleon's most disastrous mistake of all came in 1812. Even though Alexander I had become Napoleon's ally, the Russian czar refused to stop selling grain to Britain. In addition, the French and Russian rulers suspected each other of having competing designs on Poland. Because of this breakdown in their alliance, Napoleon decided to invade Russia.

In June 1812, Napoleon and his Grand Army of more than 420,000 soldiers marched into Russia. As Napoleon advanced, Alexander pulled back his troops, refusing to be lured into an unequal battle. On this retreat, the Russians practiced a **scorched-earth policy**. This involved burning grain fields and slaughtering livestock so as to leave nothing for the enemy to eat.
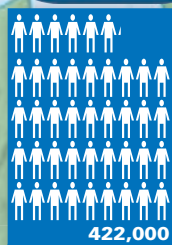
MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

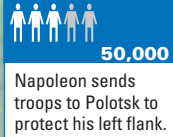**A** How could the growing feelings of nationalism in European countries hurt Napoleon?

▼ Francisco Goya's painting *The Third of May, 1808* shows a French firing squad executing Spanish peasants suspected of being guerrillas.

Napoleon's Russian Campaign, 1812

130,000
Sept. 7, 1812 Napoleon's army fights the Battle of Borodino and suffers 30,000 casualties.

50,000
Napoleon sends troops to Polotsk to protect his left flank.

175,000
Reduced by desertion, disease, starvation, and capture, an army of 175,000 arrives in Smolensk. Another 30,000 die there.

422,000
June 1812
Napoleon and his troops march across the Neman River and into Russia.

Sept. 14, 1812 Napoleon enters Moscow to find it in ashes, torched by the czar. He waits, hoping to induce the czar to surrender.

Oct. 18, 1812 Frustrated and starving, having waited too long for the czar, the 100,000 survivors of the Grand Army begin their hellish retreat through the cruel Russia winter.

November 1812
The army returns to Smolensk and finds famine. The remaining 24,000 march on, abandoning their wounded.
37,000

Dec. 6, 1812
Troops march for the Neman River. Only 10,000 make it out of Russia.
28,000

The 30,000 in Polotsk join the 20,000 survivors. Thousands drown while crossing the Berezina River.
50,000

Advancing troops
Retreating troops
= 10,000 soldiers
= 10,000 lost troops

0 — 100 Miles
0 — 200 Kilometers
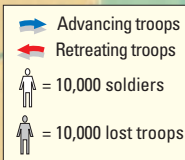
GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Movement** How long did it take the Grand Army to cover the distance between the Russian border and Moscow?
2. **Place** Why was it a mistake for Napoleon to stay in Moscow until mid-October?

On September 7, 1812, the two armies finally clashed in the Battle of Borodino. (See the map on this page.) After several hours of indecisive fighting, the Russians fell back, allowing Napoleon to move on Moscow. When Napoleon entered Moscow seven days later, the city was in flames. Rather than surrender Russia's "holy city" to the French, Alexander had destroyed it. Napoleon stayed in the ruined city until the middle of October, when he decided to turn back toward France.

As the snows—and the temperature—began to fall in early November, Russian raiders mercilessly attacked Napoleon's ragged, retreating army. Many soldiers were killed in these clashes or died of their wounds. Still more dropped in their tracks from exhaustion, hunger, and cold. Finally, in the middle of December, the last survivors straggled out of Russia. The retreat from Moscow had devastated the Grand Army—only 10,000 soldiers were left to fight.

Napoleon's Downfall

Napoleon's enemies were quick to take advantage of his weakness. Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Sweden joined forces against him. Austria also declared war on Napoleon, despite his marriage to Marie Louise. All of the main powers of Europe were now at war with France.

Napoleon Suffers Defeat In only a few months, Napoleon managed to raise another army. However, most of his troops were untrained and ill prepared for battle. He faced the allied armies of the European powers outside the German city of Leipzig (LYP•sihg) in October 1813. The allied forces easily defeated his inexperienced army and French resistance crumbled quickly. By January of 1814, the allied armies were pushing steadily toward Paris. Some two months later, King

Frederick William III of Prussia and Czar Alexander I of Russia led their troops in a triumphant parade through the French capital.

Napoleon wanted to fight on, but his generals refused. In April 1814, he accepted the terms of surrender and gave up his throne. The victors gave Napoleon a small pension and exiled, or banished, him to Elba, a tiny island off the Italian coast. The allies expected no further trouble from Napoleon, but they were wrong.

The Hundred Days Louis XVI's brother assumed the throne as Louis XVIII. (The executed king's son, Louis XVII, had died in prison in 1795.) However, the new king quickly became unpopular among his subjects, especially the peasants. They suspected him of wanting to undo the Revolution's land reforms.

The news of Louis's troubles was all the incentive Napoleon needed to try to regain power. He escaped from Elba and, on March 1, 1815, landed in France. Joyous crowds welcomed him on the march to Paris. And thousands of volunteers swelled the ranks of his army. Within days, Napoleon was again emperor of France. **B**

In response, the European allies quickly marshaled their armies. The British army, led by the Duke of Wellington, prepared for battle near the village of **Waterloo** in Belgium. On June 18, 1815, Napoleon attacked. The British army defended its ground all day. Late in the afternoon, the Prussian army arrived. Together, the British and the Prussian forces attacked the French. Two days later, Napoleon's exhausted troops gave way, and the British and Prussian forces chased them from the field.

This defeat ended Napoleon's last bid for power, called the **Hundred Days**. Taking no chances this time, the British shipped Napoleon to St. Helena, a remote island in the South Atlantic. There, he lived in lonely exile for six years, writing his memoirs. He died in 1821 of a stomach ailment, perhaps cancer.

Without doubt, Napoleon was a military genius and a brilliant administrator. Yet all his victories and other achievements must be measured against the millions of lives that were lost in his wars. The French writer Alexis de Tocqueville summed up Napoleon's character by saying, "He was as great as a man can be without virtue." Napoleon's defeat opened the door for the freed European countries to establish a new order.

▲ British soldiers who fought at the battle of Waterloo received this medal.

SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- blockade
- Continental System
- guerrilla
- Peninsular War
- scorched-earth policy
- Waterloo
- Hundred Days

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which of Napoleon's mistakes was the most serious? Why?

Napoleon's Mistakes	Effect on Empire

MAIN IDEAS

3. How did Great Britain combat Napoleon's naval blockade?

4. Why did Napoleon have trouble fighting the enemy forces in the Peninsular War?

5. Why was Napoleon's delay of the retreat from Moscow such a great blunder?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

6. ANALYZING MOTIVES Why did people in other European countries resist Napoleon's efforts to build an empire?

7. EVALUATING COURSES OF ACTION Napoleon had no choice but to invade Russia. Do you agree with this statement? Why or why not?

8. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS Do you think that Napoleon was a great leader? Explain.

9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY In the role of a volunteer in Napoleon's army during the Hundred Days, write a **letter** to a friend explaining why you are willing to fight for the emperor.

CONNECT TO TODAY **CREATING A MAP**

Conduct research on how nationalist feelings affect world affairs today. Create a **map** showing the areas of the world where nationalist movements are active. Annotate the map with explanations of the situation in each area.

The Congress of Vienna

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
POWER AND AUTHORITY After exiling Napoleon, European leaders at the Congress of Vienna tried to restore order and reestablish peace.	International bodies such as the United Nations play an active role in trying to maintain world peace and stability today.	• Congress of Vienna • Klemens von Metternich • balance of power • legitimacy • Holy Alliance • Concert of Europe

SETTING THE STAGE European heads of government were looking to establish long-lasting peace and stability on the continent after the defeat of Napoleon. They had a goal of the new European order—one of collective security and stability for the entire continent. A series of meetings in Vienna, known as the **Congress of Vienna**, were called to set up policies to achieve this goal. Originally, the Congress of Vienna was scheduled to last for four weeks. Instead, it went on for eight months.

Metternich's Plan for Europe

Most of the decisions made in Vienna during the winter of 1814–1815 were made in secret among representatives of the five "great powers"—Russia, Prussia, Austria, Great Britain, and France. By far the most influential of these representatives was the foreign minister of Austria, Prince **Klemens von Metternich** (MEHT•uhr•nihk).

Metternich distrusted the democratic ideals of the French Revolution. Like most other European aristocrats, he felt that Napoleon's behavior had been a natural outcome of experiments with democracy. Metternich wanted to keep things as they were and remarked, "The first and greatest concern for the immense majority of every nation is the stability of laws—never their change." Metternich had three goals at the Congress of Vienna. First, he wanted to prevent future French aggression by surrounding France with strong countries. Second, he wanted to restore a **balance of power**, so that no country would be a threat to others. Third, he wanted to restore Europe's royal families to the thrones they had held before Napoleon's conquests.

The Containment of France The Congress took the following steps to make the weak countries around France stronger:

- The former Austrian Netherlands and Dutch Republic were united to form the Kingdom of the Netherlands.
- A group of 39 German states were loosely joined as the newly created German Confederation, dominated by Austria.
- Switzerland was recognized as an independent nation.
- The Kingdom of Sardinia in Italy was strengthened by the addition of Genoa.

These changes enabled the countries of Europe to contain France and prevent it from overpowering weaker nations. (See the map on page 674.)

Balance of Power Although the leaders of Europe wanted to weaken France, they did not want to leave it powerless. If they severely punished France, they might encourage the French to take revenge. If they broke up France, then another country might become so strong that it would threaten them all. Thus, the victorious powers did not exact a great price from the defeated nation. As a result, France remained a major but diminished European power. Also, no country in Europe could easily overpower another.

Legitimacy The great powers affirmed the principle of **legitimacy**—agreeing that as many as possible of the rulers whom Napoleon had driven from their thrones be restored to power. The ruling families of France, Spain, and several states in Italy and Central Europe regained their thrones. The participants in the Congress of Vienna believed that the return of the former monarchs would stabilize political relations among the nations.

The Congress of Vienna was a political triumph in many ways. For the first time, the nations of an entire continent had cooperated to control political affairs. The settlements they agreed upon were fair enough that no country was left bearing a grudge. Therefore, the Congress did not sow the seeds of future wars. In that sense, it was more successful than many other peace meetings in history.

By agreeing to come to one another's aid in case of threats to peace, the European nations had temporarily ensured that there would be a balance of power on the continent. The Congress of Vienna, then, created a time of peace in Europe. It was a lasting peace. None of the five great powers waged war on one another for nearly 40 years, when Britain and France fought Russia in the Crimean War. **A**

Political Changes Beyond Vienna

The Congress of Vienna was a victory for conservatives. Kings and princes resumed power in country after country, in keeping with Metternich's goals. Nevertheless, there were important differences from one country to another. Britain and France now had constitutional monarchies. Generally speaking, however, the governments in Eastern and Central Europe were more conservative. The rulers of Russia, Prussia, and Austria were absolute monarchs.

▲ Delegates at the Congress of Vienna study a map of Europe.

MAIN IDEA

Drawing Conclusions

A In what ways was the Congress of Vienna a success?

The French Revolution and Napoleon **673**

Europe, 1810

KINGDOM OF DENMARK AND NORWAY

KINGDOM OF SWEDEN

UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

North Sea

London
Brussels
Amiens
Versailles • Paris

PRUSSIA

Berlin

GRAND DUCHY OF WARSAW

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

ATLANTIC OCEAN

FRENCH EMPIRE SWITZ.

Vienna

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

Milan • ITALY

ILLYRIAN PROVINCES

Madrid

SPAIN

CORSICA

Rome KINGDOM OF NAPLES

SARDINIA Naples

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Gibraltar

Mediterranean Sea

SICILY

N

0   400 Miles

0   800 Kilometers

- French Empire
- Countries controlled by Napoleon
- Countries allied with Napoleon
- Countries at war with Napoleon
- Neutral countries

Europe, 1817

KINGDOM OF NORWAY AND SWEDEN

UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND

North Sea

DENMARK

London
Brussels
Amiens
Versailles • Paris

NETHERLANDS
HANOVER
PRUSSIA
Berlin
SAXONY

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

ATLANTIC OCEAN

FRANCE

BAVARIA

SWITZ.
Milan

PARMA

Vienna

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

LUCCA —
TUSCANY

MODENA

PAPAL STATES

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

PORTUGAL

Madrid

SPAIN

KINGDOM OF SARDINIA

CORSICA

Rome • Naples

Gibraltar

Mediterranean Sea

KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES

N

0   400 Miles

0   800 Kilometers

- Small German states
- Boundary of the German Confederation

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps

1. **Region** What parts of Napoleon's French Empire did France lose as a result of the Congress of Vienna?
2. **Region** In what sense did the territorial changes of 1815 reflect a restoration of order and balance?

Conservative Europe The rulers of Europe were very nervous about the legacy of the French Revolution. They worried that the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity might encourage revolutions elsewhere. Late in 1815, Czar Alexander I, Emperor Francis I of Austria, and King Frederick William III of Prussia signed an agreement called the **Holy Alliance**. In it, they pledged to base their relations with other nations on Christian principles in order to combat the forces of revolution. Finally, a series of alliances devised by Metternich, called the **Concert of Europe**, ensured that nations would help one another if any revolutions broke out.

Across Europe, conservatives held firm control of the governments, but they could not contain the ideas that had emerged during the French Revolution. France after 1815 was deeply divided politically. Conservatives were happy with the monarchy of Louis XVIII and were determined to make it last. Liberals, however, wanted the king to share more power with the legislature. And many people in the lower classes remained committed to the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity. Similarly, in other countries there was an explosive mixture of ideas and factions that would contribute directly to revolutions in 1830 and 1848. **B**

Despite their efforts to undo the French Revolution, the leaders at the Congress of Vienna could not turn back the clock. The Revolution had given Europe its first experiment in democratic government. Although the experiment had failed, it had set new political ideas in motion. The major political upheavals of the early 1800s had their roots in the French Revolution.

Revolution in Latin America The actions of the Congress of Vienna had consequences far beyond events in Europe. When Napoleon deposed the king of Spain during the Peninsular War, liberal Creoles (colonists born in Spanish America)

MAIN IDEA

Making Inferences

B What seeds of democracy had been sown by the French Revolution?

seized control of many colonies in the Americas. When the Congress of Vienna restored the king to the Spanish throne, royalist *peninsulares* (colonists born in Spain) tried to regain control of these colonial governments. The Creoles, however, attempted to retain and expand their power. In response, the Spanish king took steps to tighten control over the American colonies.

This action angered the Mexicans, who rose in revolt and successfully threw off Spain's control. Other Spanish colonies in Latin America also claimed independence. At about the same time, Brazil declared independence from Portugal. (See Chapter 24.)

Long-Term Legacy The Congress of Vienna left a legacy that would influence world politics for the next 100 years. The continent-wide efforts to establish and maintain a balance of power diminished the size and the power of France. At the same time, the power of Britain and Prussia increased.

Nationalism began to spread in Italy, Germany, Greece, and to other areas that the Congress had put under foreign control. Eventually, the nationalistic feelings would explode into revolutions, and new nations would be formed. European colonies also responded to the power shift. Spanish colonies took advantage of the events in Europe to declare their independence and break away from Spain.

At the same time, ideas about the basis of power and authority had changed permanently as a result of the French Revolution. More and more, people saw democracy as the best way to ensure equality and justice for all. The French Revolution, then, changed the social attitudes and assumptions that had dominated Europe for centuries. A new era had begun. **C**

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects

C How did the French Revolution affect not only Europe but also other areas of the world?

Connect *to* Today

Congress of Vienna and the United Nations

The Congress of Vienna and the Concert of Europe tried to keep the world safe from war. The modern equivalent of these agreements is the United Nations (UN), an international organization established in 1945 and continuing today, whose purpose is to promote world peace.

Like the Congress of Vienna, the United Nations was formed by major powers after a war—World War II. These powers agreed to cooperate to reduce tensions and bring greater harmony to international relations. Throughout its history, the United Nations has used diplomacy as its chief method of keeping the peace.

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INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to create a graphic organizer to show the major agencies and functions of the United Nations.

SECTION 5 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Congress of Vienna   • Klemens von Metternich   • balance of power   • legitimacy   • Holy Alliance   • Concert of Europe

USING YOUR NOTES	MAIN IDEAS	CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
2. What was the overall effect of Metternich's plan on France?	**3.** What were the three points of Metternich's plan for Europe?	**6. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS** From France's point of view, do you think the Congress of Vienna's decisions were fair?
Metternich's Plan **Problem / Solution**	**4.** Why was the Congress of Vienna considered a success?	**7. ANALYZING ISSUES** Why did liberals and conservatives differ over who should have power?
	5. What was the long-term legacy of the Congress of Vienna?	**8. MAKING INFERENCES** What do you think is meant by the statement that the French Revolution let the "genie out of the bottle"?
		9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY In the role of a newspaper editor in the early 1800s, write an **editorial**—pro or con—on the Congress of Vienna and its impact on politics in Europe.

CONNECT TO TODAY **CREATING A SCRAPBOOK**

Work in pairs to locate recent articles in newspapers and magazines on the peacekeeping efforts of the UN. Photocopy or clip the articles and use them to create a **scrapbook** titled "The UN as Peacekeeper."

VISUAL SUMMARY

The French Revolution and Napoleon

Long-Term Causes

- Social and economic injustices of the Old Regime
- Enlightenment ideas—liberty and equality
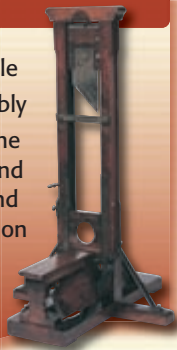- Example furnished by the American Revolution

Immediate Causes

- Economic crisis—famine and government debt
- Weak leadership
- Discontent of the Third Estate

Revolution

- Fall of the Bastille
- National Assembly
- Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen and a new constitution

Immediate Effects

- End of the Old Regime
- Execution of monarch
- War with other European nations
- Reign of Terror
- Rise of Napoleon

Long-Term Effects

- Conservative reaction
- Decline in French power
- Spread of Enlightenment ideas
- Growth of nationalism
- Revolutions in Latin America

TERMS & NAMES

For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to the French Revolution or the rise and fall of Napoleon.

1. estate
2. Great Fear
3. guillotine
4. Maximilien Robespierre
5. coup d'état
6. Napoleonic Code
7. Waterloo
8. Congress of Vienna

MAIN IDEAS

The French Revolution Begins Section 1 (pages 651–655)

9. Why were the members of the Third Estate dissatisfied with their way of life under the Old Regime?
10. Why was the fall of the Bastille important to the French people?

Revolution Brings Reform and Terror Section 2 (pages 656–662)

11. What political reforms resulted from the French Revolution?
12. What was the Reign of Terror, and how did it end?

Napoleon Forges an Empire Section 3 (pages 663–667)

13. What reforms did Napoleon introduce?
14. What steps did Napoleon take to create an empire in Europe?

Napoleon's Empire Collapses Section 4 (pages 668–671)

15. What factors led to Napoleon's defeat in Russia?
16. Why were the European allies able to defeat Napoleon in 1814 and again in 1815?

The Congress of Vienna Section 5 (pages 672–675)

17. What were Metternich's three goals at the Congress of Vienna?
18. How did the Congress of Vienna ensure peace in Europe?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. **USING YOUR NOTES**

   Copy the chart of dates and events in Napoleon's career into your notebook. For each event, draw an arrow up or down to show whether Napoleon gained or lost power because of the event.

Defense of National Convention	Coup	Emperor	Winning battles	Trafalgar	Large empire	Russia	Elba	Waterloo
1795	1799	1804	1805	1805	1810	1812	1814	1815

2. **COMPARING AND CONTRASTING**

   ECONOMICS How were the economic conditions in France and the American colonies before their revolutions similar? How were they different?

3. **ANALYZING ISSUES**

   REVOLUTION There is a saying: "Revolutions devour their own children." What evidence from this chapter supports that statement?

4. **RECOGNIZING EFFECTS**

   POWER AND AUTHORITY How did the Congress of Vienna affect power and authority in European countries after Napoleon's defeat? Consider who held power in the countries and the power of the countries themselves.

Use the excerpt—from the South American liberator Simón Bolívar, whose country considered giving refuge to Napoleon after Waterloo—and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

PRIMARY SOURCE

If South America is struck by the thunderbolt of Bonaparte's arrival, misfortune will ever be ours if our country accords him a friendly reception. His thirst for conquest is insatiable [cannot be satisfied]; he has mowed down the flower of European youth . . . in order to carry out his ambitious projects. The same designs will bring him to the New World.

SIMÓN BOLÍVAR

1. In Bolívar's opinion, if his country gave Napoleon a friendly reception it would
   A. be beset by misfortune.
   B. become a great power in South America.
   C. become a part of the French Empire.
   D. be attacked by the United States.

2. Which of the following gives Bolívar's view of Napoleon?
   A. His desire for power cannot be satisfied.
   B. He is not ambitious.
   C. He cares for the lives of others.
   D. He does not want to come to the New World.

Use the map, which shows Great Britain and the French Empire in 1810, and your knowledge of world history to answer question 3.

Great Britain and France, 1810

3. What geographical barrier helped to protect Britain from an invasion by Napoleon?
   A. Mediterranean Sea   C. Alps
   B. English Channel   D. Pyrenees

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For additional test practice, go online for:
• Diagnostic tests
• Strategies
• Tutorials

Interact *with* History

On page 650, you considered how to bring about change in the French government in the late 1700s. Now that you have read the chapter, reevaluate your thoughts on how to change an unjust government. Was violent revolution justified? effective? Would you have advised different actions? Discuss your opinions with a small group.

FOCUS ON WRITING

Imagine that you lived in Paris throughout the French Revolution. Write **journal entries** on several of the major events of the Revolution. Include the following events:
• the storming of the Bastille
• the women's march on Versailles
• the trial of Louis XVI
• the Reign of Terror
• the rise of Napoleon

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY

NetExplorations: The French Revolution

Go to *NetExplorations* at **hmhsocialstudies.com** to learn more about the French Revolution. Then plan a virtual field trip to sites in France related to the revolution. Be sure to include sites outside Paris. Begin your research by exploring the Web sites recommended at *NetExplorations*. Include the following in your field trip plan:
• a one-paragraph description of each site and the events that happened there
• specific buildings, statues, or other items to view at each site
• documents and other readings to help visitors prepare for each stop on the field trip
• topics to discuss at each site
• a list of Web sites used to create your virtual field trip

Nationalist Revolutions Sweep the West,
1789–1900

Previewing Themes

REVOLUTION Inspired by Enlightenment ideas, the people of Latin America rebelled against European rule in the early 19th century. Rebels in Europe responded to nationalistic calls for independence.

Geography *Study the time line. What were the first two countries in Latin America and the Caribbean to work toward independence?*

POWER AND AUTHORITY Challenges by nationalist groups created unrest in Europe. Strong leaders united Italian lands and German-speaking lands.

Geography *Based on the map, in which area of Europe did the greatest number of revolts occur?*

CULTURAL INTERACTION Artists and intellectuals created new schools of thought. Romanticism and realism changed the way the world was viewed.

Geography *Which event shown on the time line involves a realistic way to view the world?*

LATIN AMERICA AND EUROPE

1804 Haiti wins freedom from France.

1810 Padre Hidalgo calls for Mexican independence. ▶

1837 Louis Daguerre perfects a method for photography.

1800

1825

WORLD

1804 Napoleon crowned Emperor. ▶

1815 Napoleon defeated and exiled.

Revolutions, 1848

Legend:
— Boundary of German Confederation
▮ Small German states
✶ Revolution in 1848–49

HISTORY

Miguel Hidalgo's Call to Arms

hmhsocialstudies.com **VIDEO**

NORWAY

North Sea

UNITED KINGDOM

DENMARK

NETHERLANDS

Hamburg

PRUSSIA

Berlin

Warsaw

RUSSIAN EMPIRE

London

BELGIUM

Brussels

POLAND

Prague

Paris

LUX.

Stuttgart

ATLANTIC OCEAN

FRANCE

SWITZ.

Vienna

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE

Buda

Milan

ITALY

ILLYRIAN PROVINCES

PORTUGAL

Madrid

SPAIN

PAPAL STATES

Adriatic Sea

OTTOMAN EMPIRE

Rome

Naples

KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES

GREECE

Mediterranean Sea
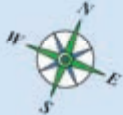
Scale:
0 — 200 — 400 Miles
0 — 200 — 400 Kilometers
Conic Projection

Timeline:

1848 Revolts shake Europe.

1861 Russia frees serfs.

1870 Italy unites.

1871 Wilhelm I crowned Kaiser of united Germany. ▶

1850 — 1875 — 1900
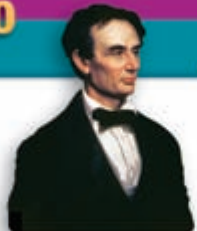
1863 ◀ Lincoln's Emancipation Proclamation frees enslaved persons in Confederate states.

1869 Suez Canal completed.

1884–1885 Berlin Conference divides Africa among European nations.

679

What symbolizes your country's values?

You are an artist in a nation that has just freed itself from foreign rule. The new government is asking you to design a symbol that will show what your country stands for. It's up to you to design the symbol that best suits the spirit and values of your people. Look at the symbols below. Will your symbol be peaceful or warlike, dignified or joyful? Or will it be a combination of these and other qualities?

Botswana

Industry and livestock are connected by water, the key to the country's prosperity. *Pula* in the Setswana language means "rain." But to a Setswana speaker, it is also a common greeting meaning luck, life, and prosperity.

Austria

The eagle was the symbol of the old Austrian Empire. The shield goes back to medieval times. The hammer and sickle symbolize agriculture and industry. The broken chains celebrate Austria's liberation from Germany at the end of World War II.

United States

The 13 original colonies are symbolized in the stars, stripes, leaves, and arrows. The Latin phrase *E pluribus unum* means "Out of many, one," expressing unity of the states. The American bald eagle holds an olive branch and arrows to symbolize a desire for peace but a readiness for war.

EXAMINING *the* ISSUES

- **What values and goals of your new country do you want to show?**

- **Will your symbols represent your country's past or future?**

As a class, discuss these questions. During the discussion, think of the role played by symbols in expressing a country's view of itself and the world. As you read about the rise of new nations in Latin America and Europe, think of how artists encourage national pride.

Latin American Peoples Win Independence

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
REVOLUTION Spurred by discontent and Enlightenment ideas, peoples in Latin America fought colonial rule.	Sixteen of today's Latin American nations gained their independence at this time.	• *peninsulare* • José de San Martín • creole • Miguel Hidalgo • mulatto • José María Morelos • Simón Bolívar

SETTING THE STAGE The successful American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Enlightenment changed ideas about who should control government. Ideas of liberty, equality, and democratic rule found their way across the seas to European colonies. In Latin America, most of the population resented the domination of European colonial powers. The time seemed right for the people who lived there to sweep away old colonial masters and gain control of the land.

Colonial Society Divided

In Latin American colonial society, class dictated people's place in society and jobs. At the top of Spanish-American society were the **_peninsulares_** (peh•neen•soo•LAH•rehs), people who had been born in Spain, which is on the Iberian peninsula. They formed a tiny percentage of the population. Only *peninsulares* could hold high office in Spanish colonial government. **Creoles**, Spaniards born in Latin America, were below the *peninsulares* in rank. Creoles could not hold high-level political office, but they could rise as officers in

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TAKING NOTES

Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on Latin American independence movements.

The Divisions in Spanish Colonial Society, 1789

Mestizos (7.3%) 1,034,000
Mulattos (7.6%) 1,072,000
Africans (6.4%) 902,000
EUROPEANS *Peninsulares* and Creoles (22.9%) 3,223,000
Indians (55.8%) 7,860,000
Total 14,091,000
Source: *Colonial Spanish America,* by Leslie Bethell
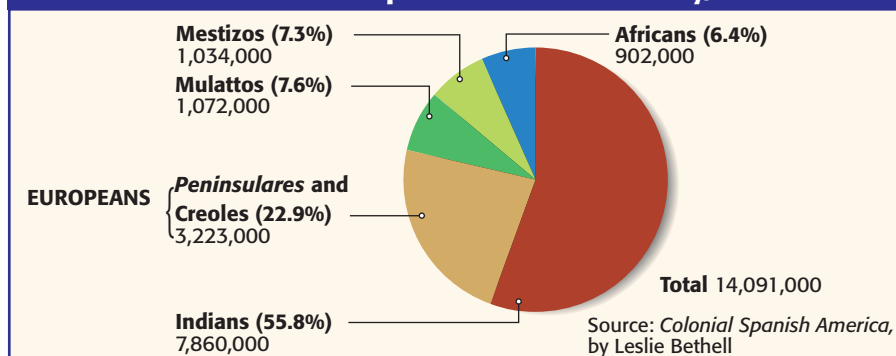
SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Graphs
1. **Clarifying** *Which two groups made up the vast majority of the population in Spanish America?*
2. **Making Inferences** *Of the Europeans, which group—peninsulares or creoles—probably made up a larger percentage?*

Spanish colonial armies. Together these two groups controlled land, wealth, and power in the Spanish colonies.

Below the *peninsulares* and creoles came the mestizos, persons of mixed European and Indian ancestry. Next were the **mulattos**, persons of mixed European and African ancestry, and enslaved Africans. Indians were at the bottom of the social ladder.

Revolutions in the Americas

By the late 1700s, colonists in Latin America, already aware of Enlightenment ideas, were electrified by the news of the American and French Revolutions. The success of the American Revolution encouraged them to try to gain freedom from their European masters.

Revolution in Haiti The French colony called Saint Domingue was the first Latin American territory to free itself from European rule. The colony, now known as Haiti, occupied the western third of the island of Hispaniola in the Caribbean Sea.

Nearly 500,000 enslaved Africans worked on French plantations, and they outnumbered their masters dramatically. White masters used brutal methods to terrorize them and keep them powerless.

While the French Revolution was taking place, oppressed people in the French colony of Haiti rose up against their French masters. In August 1791, 100,000 enslaved Africans rose in revolt. A leader soon emerged, Toussaint L'Ouverture (too•SAN-loo•vair•TOOR). Formerly enslaved, Toussaint was unfamiliar with military and diplomatic matters. Even so, he rose to become a skilled general and diplomat. By 1801, Toussaint had taken control of the entire island and freed all the enslaved Africans.

In January 1802, 30,000 French troops landed in Saint Domingue to remove Toussaint from power. In May, Toussaint agreed to halt the revolution if the French would end slavery. Despite the agreement, the French soon accused him of planning another uprising. They seized him and sent him to a prison in the French Alps, where he died in April 1803.

Haiti's Independence Toussaint's lieutenant, Jean-Jacques Dessalines (zhahn•ZHAHK day•sah•LEEN), took up the fight for freedom. On January 1, 1804, General Dessalines declared the colony an independent country. It was the first black colony to free itself from European control. Dessalines called the country Haiti, which in the language of the Arawak natives meant "mountainous land."

▼ Toussaint L'Ouverture led enslaved Africans in a revolt against the French that ended slavery and resulted in the new nation of Haiti.

Creoles Lead Independence

Even though they could not hold high public office, creoles were the least oppressed of those born in Latin America. They were also the best educated. In fact, many wealthy young creoles traveled to Europe for their education. In Europe, they read about and adopted Enlightenment ideas. When they returned to Latin America, they brought ideas of revolution with them.

Napoleon's conquest of Spain in 1808 triggered revolts in the Spanish colonies. Removing Spain's King Ferdinand VII, Napoleon made his brother Joseph king of Spain. Many creoles might have supported a Spanish king. However, they felt no loyalty to a king imposed by the French. Creoles, recalling Locke's idea of the consent of the governed, argued that when the real king was removed, power shifted to the people. In 1810, rebellion broke out in several parts of Latin America. The drive toward independence had begun. **Ⓐ**

MAIN IDEA

Recognizing Effects
Ⓐ How did the French Revolution affect the colonists in the Americas?

Simón Bolívar
1783–1830

Called *Libertador* (Liberator), Bolívar was a brilliant general, a visionary, a writer, and a fighter. He is called the "George Washington of South America." Bolívar planned to unite the Spanish colonies of South America into a single country called Gran Colombia. The area of upper Peru was renamed Bolivia in his honor.

Discouraged by political disputes that tore the new Latin American nations apart, he is reported to have said, "America is ungovernable. Those who have served the revolution have ploughed the sea."

José de San Martín
1778–1850

Unlike the dashing Bolívar, San Martín was a modest man. Though born in Argentina, he spent much of his youth in Spain as a career military officer. He fought with Spanish forces against Napoleon. He returned to Latin America to be a part of its liberation from Spain. Fighting for 10 years, he became the liberator of Argentina, Chile, and Peru.

Discouraged by political infighting, San Martín sailed for Europe. He died, almost forgotten, on French soil in 1850.

The South American wars of independence rested on the achievements of two brilliant creole generals. One was **Simón Bolívar** (see•MAWN boh•LEE•vahr), a wealthy Venezuelan creole. The other great liberator was **José de San Martín** (hoh•SAY day san mahr•TEEN), an Argentinian.

Bolívar's Route to Victory Simón Bolívar's native Venezuela declared its independence from Spain in 1811. But the struggle for independence had only begun. Bolívar's volunteer army of revolutionaries suffered numerous defeats. Twice Bolívar had to go into exile. A turning point came in August 1819. Bolívar led over 2,000 soldiers on a daring march through the Andes into what is now Colombia. (See the 1830 map on page 685.) Coming from this direction, he took the Spanish army in Bogotá completely by surprise and won a decisive victory.

By 1821, Bolívar had won Venezuela's independence. He then marched south into Ecuador. In Ecuador, Bolívar finally met José de San Martín. Together they would decide the future of the Latin American revolutionary movement.

San Martín Leads Southern Liberation Forces San Martín's Argentina had declared its independence in 1816. However, Spanish forces in nearby Chile and Peru still posed a threat. In 1817, San Martín led an army on a grueling march across the Andes to Chile. He was joined there by forces led by Bernardo O'Higgins, son of a former viceroy of Peru. With O'Higgins's help, San Martín finally freed Chile.

In 1821, San Martín planned to drive the remaining Spanish forces out of Lima, Peru. But to do so, he needed a much larger force. San Martín and Bolívar discussed this problem when they met at Guayaquil, Ecuador, in 1822.

No one knows how the two men reached an agreement. But San Martín left his army for Bolívar to command. With unified revolutionary forces, Bolívar's army went on to defeat the Spanish at the Battle of Ayacucho (Peru) on December 9, 1824. In this last major battle of the war for independence, the Spanish colonies in Latin America won their freedom. The future countries of Venezuela, Colombia, Panama, and Ecuador were united into a country called Gran Colombia.

Struggling Toward Democracy

Revolutions are as much a matter of ideas as they are of weapons. Simón Bolívar, the hero of Latin American independence, was both a thinker and a fighter. By 1800, Enlightenment ideas spread widely across the Latin American colonies. Bolívar combined Enlightenment political ideas, ideas from Greece and Rome, and his own original thinking. The result was a system of democratic ideas that would help spark revolutions throughout Latin America.

▲ After winning South American independence, Simón Bolívar realized his dream of Gran Colombia, a sort of United States of South America.

Enlightenment Ideas Spread to Latin America, 1789–1810

hmhsocialstudies.com **INTERACTIVE MAP**

John Locke, Thomas Paine
Voltaire, Baron de Montesquieu
Jean-Jacques Rousseau

Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin

NORTH AMERICA · Washington

Mexico City

ATLANTIC OCEAN

EUROPE · London · Paris · Madrid

AFRICA

Caracas
Bogotá

PACIFIC OCEAN

SOUTH AMERICA

Lima
La Paz
Ascunción
Santiago
Montevideo
Buenos Aires

1 Bolívar's 1807 return from Europe by way of the United States allowed him to study the American system of government.

2 In 1810, Bolívar went to London to seek support for the revolution in Latin America. At the same time, he studied British institutions of government.

Connect *to* Today

1. **Making Inferences** How are Enlightenment thought and the successes of the American and French Revolutions reflected in Bolívar's thinking?

   See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R10.

2. **Comparing** What recent events in today's world are similar to Simón Bolívar's movement for Latin American independence?

Mexico Ends Spanish Rule

In most Latin American countries, creoles led the revolutionary movements. But in Mexico, ethnic and racial groups mixed more freely. There, Indians and mestizos played the leading role.

A Cry for Freedom In 1810, Padre **Miguel Hidalgo** (mee•GEHL ee•THAHL•goh), a priest in the small village of Dolores, took the first step toward independence. Hidalgo was a poor but well-educated man. He firmly believed in Enlightenment ideals. On September 16, 1810, he rang the bells of his village church. When the peasants gathered in the church, he issued a call for rebellion against the Spanish. Today, that call is known as the *grito de Dolores* (the cry of Dolores).

The very next day, Hidalgo's Indian and mestizo followers began a march toward Mexico City. This unruly army soon numbered 80,000 men. The uprising of the lower classes alarmed the Spanish army and creoles, who feared the loss of their property, control of the land, and their lives. The army defeated Hidalgo in 1811. The rebels then rallied around another strong leader, Padre **José María Morelos** (moh•RAY•lohs). Morelos led the revolution for four years. However, in 1815, a creole officer, Agustín de Iturbide (ah•goos•TEEN day ee•toor•BEE•day), defeated him.

Mexico's Independence Events in Mexico took yet another turn in 1820 when a revolution in Spain put a liberal group in power there. Mexico's creoles feared the loss of their privileges in the Spanish-controlled colony. So they united in support of Mexico's independence from Spain. Ironically, Agustín de Iturbide—the man who had defeated the rebel Padre Morelos—proclaimed independence in 1821.

HISTORY

VIDEO
Miguel Hidalgo's Call to Arms
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INTERACTIVE MAP

Latin America, 1800

UNITED STATES
VICEROYALTY OF NEW SPAIN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Tropic of Cancer
Gulf of Mexico
SAINT-DOMINGUE
SANTO DOMINGO
Dolores
Mexico City
JAMAICA
CAPTAINCY-GENERAL OF VENEZUELA
BR. HONDURAS
Caribbean Sea
PACIFIC OCEAN
Caracas
DUTCH GUIANA
VICEROYALTY OF NEW GRANADA
Bogotá
FRENCH GUIANA
Quito
Guayaquil
Lima
VICEROYALTY OF BRAZIL
La Paz
Potosí
VICEROYALTY OF PERU
Asunción
Rio de Janeiro
Mendoza
Montevideo
Santiago
Buenos Aires
Tropic of Capricorn
VICEROYALTY OF RIO DE LA PLATA

- British colonies
- Dutch colonies
- French colonies
- Portuguese colonies
- Spanish colonies

40°S
N
0   2,000 Miles
0   4,000 Kilometers
120°W   80°W   40°W

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INTERACTIVE MAP

Latin America, 1830

40°N
UNITED STATES
MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Tropic of Cancer
Gulf of Mexico
CUBA (Sp.)
SANTO DOMINGO (Sp.)
HAITI
Mexico City
PUERTO RICO (Sp.)
BR. HONDURAS
JAMAICA (Br.)
PACIFIC OCEAN
UNITED PROVINCES OF CENTRAL AMERICA
Caribbean Sea
BRITISH GUIANA
Caracas
DUTCH GUIANA
Boyacá (1819)
GRAN COLOMBIA
FRENCH GUIANA
0° Equator
Pichincha (1822)
Bogotá
Quito
PERU
BRAZIL
Lima
Ayacucho (1824)
Rio de Janeiro
BOLIVIA
Tropic of Capricorn
PARAGUAY
CHILE
Chacabuco (1817)
Santiago
Buenos Aires
URUGUAY
Maipú (1818)
UNITED PROVINCES OF LA PLATA
40°S
FALKLAND ISLANDS (Br.)

- Independent countries
- San Martín
- Bolívar
- ✳ Major battle

N
0   2,000 Miles
0   4,000 Kilometers
120°W   80°W   40°W

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Region** *What two European countries held the largest colonial empires in Latin America in 1800?*
2. **Region** *Comparing the two maps, which independent countries had emerged by 1830 from Spanish territory in the Americas?*

Before the Mexican revolution, Central America was part of the viceroyalty of New Spain. It had been governed by the Spanish from the seat of colonial government in Mexico. In 1821, several Central American states declared their independence from Spain—and from Mexico as well. However, Iturbide (who had declared himself emperor), refused to recognize the declarations of independence. Iturbide was finally overthrown in 1823. Central America then declared its absolute independence from Mexico. It took the name the United Provinces of Central America. The future countries of Nicaragua, Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, and Costa Rica would develop in this region.

Brazil's Royal Liberator

Brazil's quest for independence was unique in this period of Latin American history because it occurred without violent upheavals or widespread bloodshed. In fact, a member of the Portuguese royal family actually played a key role in freeing Brazil from Portugal.

In 1807, Napoleon's armies invaded both Spain and Portugal. Napoleon's aim was to close the ports of these countries to British shipping. As French troops approached Lisbon, the Portuguese capital, Prince John (later King John VI) and the royal family boarded ships to escape capture. They took their court and royal treasury to Portugal's largest colony, Brazil. Rio de Janiero became the capital of the Portuguese empire. For 14 years, the Portuguese ran their empire from Brazil. After Napoleon's defeat in 1815, King John and the Portuguese government returned to Portugal six years later. Dom Pedro, King John's son, stayed behind in Brazil.

King John planned to make Brazil a colony again. However, many Brazilians could not accept a return to colonial status. In 1822, creoles demanded Brazil's independence from Portugal. Eight thousand Brazilians signed a petition asking Dom Pedro to rule. He agreed. On September 7, 1822, he officially declared Brazil's independence. Brazil had won its independence in a bloodless revolution. **B**

Meanwhile, the ideas of the French Revolution and the aftermath of the Napoleonic Wars were causing upheaval in Europe, as you will learn in Section 2.

MAIN IDEA

Making Inferences

B In what way did the presence of the royal family in Brazil help Portugal's largest colony?

SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• *peninsulare*   • creole   • mulatto   • Simón Bolívar   • José de San Martín   • Miguel Hidalgo   • José María Morelos

USING YOUR NOTES

2. Which independence movement was led by Toussaint L'Ouverture?

Who	Where
When	Why

MAIN IDEAS

3. How was Spanish colonial society structured?

4. How was the Haitian Revolution different from revolutions in the rest of Latin America?

5. Which groups led the quest for Mexican independence?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

6. COMPARING AND CONTRASTING Compare and contrast the leadership of the South American revolutions to the leadership of Mexico's revolution.

7. FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS Would creole revolutionaries tend to be democratic or authoritarian leaders? Explain.

8. ANALYZING CAUSES How were events in Europe related to the revolutions in Latin America?

9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION Write a **response** to this statement: "Through its policies, Spain gave up its right to rule in South America."

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY CREATING A MULTIMEDIA PRESENTATION

Use the Internet to find information on the Mexican Indian rebel group, the *Zapatistas*. Create a **multimedia presentation** describing the group and its goals.

INTERNET KEYWORD
Zapatistas

Europe Faces Revolutions

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
REVOLUTION Liberal and nationalist uprisings challenged the old conservative order of Europe.	The system of nation-states established in Europe during this period continues today.	• conservative • nation-state • liberal • the Balkans • radical • Louis-Napoleon • nationalism • Alexander II

SETTING THE STAGE As revolutions shook the colonies in Latin America, Europe was also undergoing dramatic changes. Under the leadership of Prince Metternich of Austria, the Congress of Vienna had tried to restore the old monarchies and territorial divisions that had existed before the French Revolution. (See Chapter 23.) On an international level, this attempt to turn back history succeeded. For the next century, European countries seldom turned to war to solve their differences. Within countries, however, the effort failed. Revolutions erupted across Europe between 1815 and 1848.

Clash of Philosophies

In the first half of the 1800s, three schools of political thought struggled for supremacy in European societies. Each believed that its style of government would best serve the people. Each attracted a different set of followers. The list below identifies the philosophies, goals, and followers.

- **Conservative**: usually wealthy property owners and nobility. They argued for protecting the traditional monarchies of Europe.
- **Liberal**: mostly middle-class business leaders and merchants. They wanted to give more power to elected parliaments, but only the educated and the landowners would vote.
- **Radical**: favored drastic change to extend democracy to all people. They believed that governments should practice the ideals of the French Revolution—liberty, equality, and brotherhood.

Nationalism Develops

As conservatives, liberals, and radicals debated issues of government, a new movement called nationalism emerged. **Nationalism** is the belief that people's greatest loyalty should not be to a king or an empire but to a nation of people who share a common culture and history. The nationalist movement would blur the lines that separated the three political theories.

When a nation had its own independent government, it became a **nation-state**. A nation-state defends the nation's territory and way of life, and it represents the nation to the rest of the world. In Europe in 1815, only

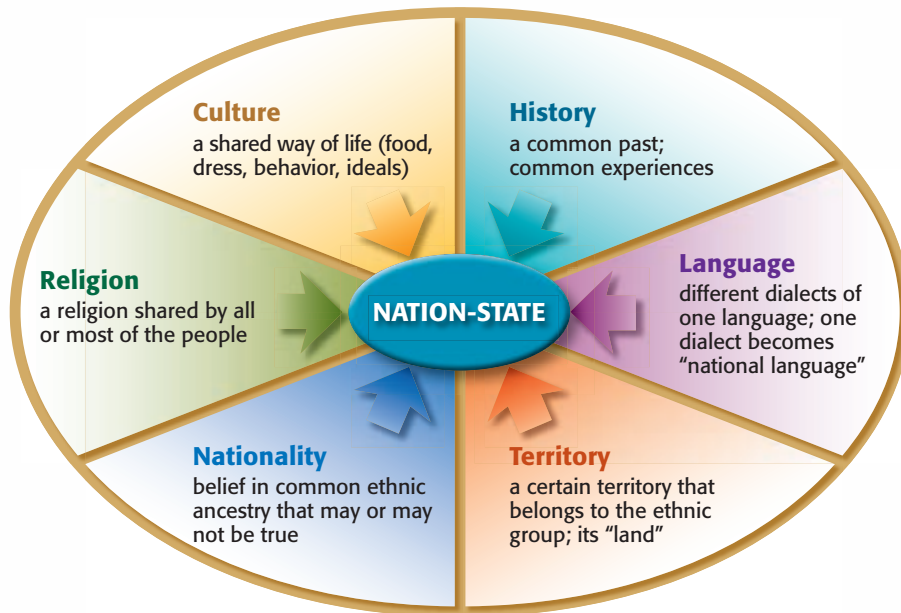▼Prince Clemens von Metternich shaped conservative control of Europe for almost 40 years.

hmhsocialstudies.com **TAKING NOTES** Use the graphic organizer online to take notes on major revolutions in Europe.

Nationalist Revolutions Sweep the West **687**

Nationalism

Nationalism—the belief that people should be loyal to their nation—was not widespread until the 1800s. The rise of modern nationalism is tied to the spread of democratic ideas and the growth of an educated middle class. People wanted to decide how they were governed, instead of having monarchs impose government on them.

Bonds That Create a Nation-State

Culture
a shared way of life (food, dress, behavior, ideals)

History
a common past; common experiences

Religion
a religion shared by all or most of the people

NATION-STATE

Language
different dialects of one language; one dialect becomes "national language"

Nationality
belief in common ethnic ancestry that may or may not be true

Territory
a certain territory that belongs to the ethnic group; its "land"

Positive and Negative Results of Nationalism

Nationalism has not always been a positive influence. For example, extremely strong nationalistic feelings sometimes lead a group to turn against outsiders. The chart below lists some positive and negative results of nationalism. Note how some results, such as competition, can be both positive and negative.

Positive Results	Negative Results
• People within a nation overcoming their differences for the common good	• Forced assimilation of minority cultures into a nation's majority culture
• The overthrow of colonial rule	• Ethnic cleansing, such as in Bosnia and Herzegovina in the 1990s
• Democratic governments in nations throughout the world	• The rise of extreme nationalistic movements, such as Nazism
• Competition among nations spurring scientific and technological advances	• Competition between nations leading to warfare

↗ **hmhsocialstudies.com**

RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on nationalism.

> **DATA FILE**

IMPACT OF NATIONALISM

• Between 1950 and 1980, 47 African countries overthrew colonial rulers and became independent nations.

• In the 1990s, the republics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Slovenia, and Macedonia broke away from Yugoslavia.

• In 2003, Yugoslavia changed its name to Serbia and Montenegro.

• Europe has 47 countries. (Some of those lie partially in Europe, partially in Asia.) About 50 languages are spoken in the region.

• In most of Latin America, Spanish or Portuguese is the official language. However, many native languages are still spoken. For example, Bolivia has three official languages: Spanish and the Indian languages of Aymara and Quechua.

Connect *to* Today

1. Forming and Supporting Opinions
Do you think nationalism has had more of a positive or negative impact on the world? Support your opinion with evidence.

📘 See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R20.

2. Comparing and Contrasting
Which of the bonds used to create nation-states are found in the United States?

France, England, and Spain could be called nation-states. But soon that would change as nationalist movements achieved success.

Most of the people who believed in nationalism were either liberals or radicals. In most cases, the liberal middle class—teachers, lawyers, and businesspeople—led the struggle for constitutional government and the formation of nation-states. In Germany, for example, liberals wanted to gather the many different German states into a single nation-state. Other liberals in large empires, such as the Hungarians in the Austrian Empire, wanted to split away and establish self-rule.

Nationalists Challenge Conservative Power

The first people to win self-rule during this period were the Greeks. For centuries, Greece had been part of the Ottoman Empire. The Ottomans controlled most of the Balkans. That region includes all or part of present-day Greece, Albania, Bulgaria, Romania, Turkey, and the former Yugoslavia. Greeks, however, had kept alive the memory of their ancient history and culture. Spurred on by the nationalist spirit, they demanded independence and rebelled against the Ottoman Turks in 1821.

Greeks Gain Independence The most powerful European governments opposed revolution. However, the cause of Greek independence was popular with people around the world. Russians, for example, felt a connection to Greek Orthodox Christians, who were ruled by the Muslim Ottomans. Educated Europeans and Americans loved and respected ancient Greek culture.

Eventually, as popular support for Greece grew, the powerful nations of Europe took the side of the Greeks. In 1827, a combined British, French, and Russian fleet destroyed the Ottoman fleet at the Battle of Navarino. In 1830, Britain, France, and Russia signed a treaty guaranteeing an independent kingdom of Greece. **A**

1830s Uprisings Crushed By the 1830s, the old order, carefully arranged at the Congress of Vienna, was breaking down. Revolutionary zeal swept across Europe. Liberals and nationalists throughout Europe were openly revolting against conservative governments.

Nationalist riots broke out against Dutch rule in the Belgian city of Brussels. In October 1830, the Belgians declared their independence from Dutch control. In Italy, nationalists worked to unite the many separate states on the Italian peninsula. Some were independent. Others were ruled by Austria, or by the pope. Eventually, Prince Metternich sent Austrian troops to restore order in Italy. The Poles living under the rule of Russia staged a revolt in Warsaw late in 1830. Russian armies took nearly an entire year to crush the Polish uprising. By the mid-1830s, the old order seemed to have reestablished itself. But the appearance of stability did not last long.

1848 Revolutions Fail to Unite In 1848, ethnic uprisings erupted throughout Europe. (See the map on page 679.) After an unruly mob in Vienna clashed with police, Metternich resigned and liberal uprisings broke out throughout the Austrian empire. In Budapest, nationalist leader Louis Kossuth called for a parliament and self-government

Social History

Nationalistic Music

As the force of nationalism began to rise in Europe, ethnic groups recognized their music as a unique element of their culture. Composers used folk melodies in their works. For example, Czech composer Antonin Dvořák (DVAWR•zhahk), pictured above, and the Norwegian composer Edvard Grieg incorporated popular melodies and legends into their works. These works became a source of pride and further encouraged the sense of nationalism. Richard Wagner created a cycle of four musical dramas called *Der Ring des Nibelungen*. His operas are considered the pinnacle of German nationalism.

▲In *Combat Before the Hotel de Ville, July 28th, 1830*, Victor Schnetz portrays the riots in Paris that forced Charles X to flee to Great Britain.

for Hungary. Meanwhile in Prague, Czech liberals demanded Bohemian independence.

European politics continued to seesaw. Many liberal gains were lost to conservatives within a year. In one country after another, the revolutionaries failed to unite themselves or their nations. Conservatives regained their nerve and their power. By 1849, Europe had practically returned to the conservatism that had controlled governments before 1848. **B**

Radicals Change France

Radicals participated in many of the 1848 revolts. Only in France, however, was the radical demand for democratic government the main goal of revolution. In 1830, France's King Charles X tried to stage a return to absolute monarchy. The attempt sparked riots that forced Charles to flee to Great Britain. He was replaced by Louis-Philippe, who had long supported liberal reforms in France.

The Third Republic However, in 1848, after a reign of almost 18 years, Louis-Philippe fell from popular favor. Once again, a Paris mob overturned a monarchy and established a republic. The new republican government began to fall apart almost immediately. The radicals split into factions. One side wanted only political reform. The other side also wanted social and economic reform. The differences set off bloody battles in Parisian streets. The violence turned French citizens away from the radicals. As a result, a moderate constitution was drawn up later in 1848. It called for a parliament and a strong president to be elected by the people.

France Accepts a Strong Ruler In December 1848, **Louis-Napoleon**, the nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, won the presidential election. Four years later, Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte took the title of Emperor Napoleon III. A majority of French voters accepted this action without complaint. The French were weary of instability. They welcomed a strong ruler who would bring peace to France. **C**

As France's emperor, Louis-Napoleon built railroads, encouraged industrialization, and promoted an ambitious program of public works. Gradually, because of Louis-Napoleon's policies, unemployment decreased in France, and the country experienced real prosperity.

Reform in Russia

Unlike France, Russia in the 1800s had yet to leap into the modern industrialized world. Under Russia's feudal system, serfs were bound to the nobles whose land they worked. Nobles enjoyed almost unlimited power over them. By the 1820s, many Russians believed that serfdom must end. In their eyes, the system was morally wrong. It also prevented the empire from advancing economically. The czars, however, were reluctant to free the serfs. Freeing them would anger the landowners, whose support the czars needed to stay in power.

MAIN IDEA

Hypothesizing
B Why weren't the revolutions of 1830 and 1848 successful?

MAIN IDEA

Summarizing
C How would you describe the political swings occurring in France between 1830 and 1852?

Defeat Brings Change Eventually, Russia's lack of development became obvious to Russians and to the whole world. In 1853, Czar Nicholas I threatened to take over part of the Ottoman Empire in the Crimean War. However, Russia's industries and transportation system failed to provide adequate supplies for the country's troops. As a result, in 1856, Russia lost the war against the combined forces of France, Great Britain, Sardinia, and the Ottoman Empire.

After the war, Nicholas's son, **Alexander II**, decided to move Russia toward modernization and social change. Alexander and his advisers believed that his reforms would allow Russia to compete with western Europe for world power.

Reform and Reaction The first and boldest of Alexander's reforms was a decree freeing the serfs in 1861. The abolition of serfdom, however, went only halfway. Peasant communities—rather than individual peasants—received about half the farmland in the country. Nobles kept the other half. The government paid the nobles for their land. Each peasant community, on the other hand, had 49 years to pay the government for the land it had received. So, while the serfs were legally free, the debt still tied them to the land.

Political and social reforms ground to a halt when terrorists assassinated Alexander II in 1881. His successor, Alexander III, tightened czarist control over the country. Alexander III and his ministers, however, encouraged industrial development to expand Russia's power. A major force behind Russia's drive toward industrial expansion was nationalism. Nationalism also stirred other ethnic groups. During the 1800s, such groups were uniting into nations and building industries to survive among other nation-states. **D**

MAIN IDEA

Analyzing Issues
D Why did czars push for industrialization?

History *in* Depth

Emancipation

In 1861, on the day before Abraham Lincoln became president of the United States, Czar Alexander II issued the Edict of Emancipation, freeing 20 million serfs. Less than two years later, President Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation, freeing enslaved peoples living under the Confederacy.

The emancipation edicts did not entirely fulfill the hopes of Russian serfs or former slaves in the United States. Russian peasant communities, like the one pictured above, were still tied to the land. And Lincoln did not free enslaved people in the border states.
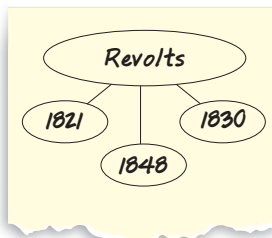

SECTION ② ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• conservative • liberal • radical • nationalism • nation-state • the Balkans • Louis-Napoleon • Alexander II

USING YOUR NOTES
2. Why did most of the revolts fail?

```
        Revolts
    ┌──────┴──────┐
  1821          1830
        1848
```

MAIN IDEAS
3. How were radicals different from liberals?

4. Why did France's Third Republic fail?

5. What was the driving force behind Russia's industrial expansion?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
6. MAKING INFERENCES Why might liberals and radicals join together in a nationalist cause?

7. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS Why did some liberals disapprove of the way Louis-Napoleon ruled France after the uprisings of 1848?

8. EVALUATING DECISIONS What consequences did Alexander's reforms have on Russia?

9. WRITING ACTIVITY REVOLUTION Imagine you live in Europe in 1848. Write a **letter** to a friend, stating your political position—conservative, liberal, or radical. Express your feelings about the uprisings and the future of Europe.

CONNECT TO TODAY WRITING A TV NEWS SCRIPT

Early in the 21st century, hostility between Greeks and Turks on the island of Cyprus was reduced. Prepare a **TV news script** about the current status of governing the island.

3

Nationalism

CASE STUDY: Italy and Germany

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES

POWER AND AUTHORITY Nationalism contributed to the formation of two new nations and a new political order in Europe.	Nationalism is the basis of world politics today and has often caused conflicts and wars.	• Russification • Junker
		• Camillo di • Otto von
		   Cavour Bismarck
		• Giuseppe • realpolitik
		   Garibaldi • kaiser

SETTING THE STAGE Nationalism was the most powerful idea of the 1800s. Its influence stretched throughout Europe and the Americas. It shaped countries by creating new ones or breaking up old ones. In Europe, it also upset the balance of power set up at the Congress of Vienna in 1815, affecting the lives of millions. Empires in Europe were made up of many different groups of people. Nationalism fed the desire of most of those groups to be free of the rule of empires and govern themselves in their traditional lands.

Nationalism: A Force for Unity or Disunity

During the 1800s, nationalism fueled efforts to build nation-states. Nationalists were not loyal to kings, but to their people—to those who shared common bonds. Nationalists believed that people of a single "nationality," or ancestry, should unite under a single government. However, people who wanted to restore the old order from before the French Revolution saw nationalism as a force for disunity.

Gradually, authoritarian rulers began to see that nationalism could also unify masses of people. They soon began to use nationalist feelings for their own purposes. They built nation-states in areas where they remained firmly in control.

Types of Nationalist Movements		
Type	**Characteristics**	**Examples**
Unification	• Mergers of politically divided but culturally similar lands	• 19th century Germany • 19th century Italy
Separation	• Culturally distinct group resists being added to a state or tries to break away	• Greeks in the Ottoman Empire • French-speaking Canadians
State-building	• Culturally distinct groups form into a new state by accepting a single culture	• The United States • Turkey

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts
1. **Categorizing** *What types of nationalist movements can evolve in lands with culturally distinct groups?*
2. **Drawing Conclusions** *What must be present for state-building to take place?*

In the chart on page 692, you can see the characteristics and examples of three types of nationalist movements. In today's world, groups still use the spirit of nationalism to unify, separate, or build up nation-states.

Nationalism Shakes Aging Empires

Three aging empires—the Austrian Empire of the Hapsburgs, the Russian Empire of the Romanovs, and the Ottoman Empire of the Turks—contained a mixture of ethnic groups. Control of land and ethnic groups moved back and forth between these empires, depending on victories or defeats in war and on royal marriages. When nationalism emerged in the 19th century, ethnic unrest threatened and eventually toppled these empires.

The Breakup of the Austrian Empire The Austrian Empire brought together Slovenes, Hungarians, Germans, Czechs, Slovaks, Croats, Poles, Serbs, and Italians. In 1866, Prussia defeated Austria in the Austro-Prussian War. With its victory, Prussia gained control of the newly organized North German Confederation, a union of Prussia and 21 smaller German political units. Then, pressured by the Hungarians, Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria split his empire in half, declaring Austria and Hungary independent states, with himself as ruler of both. The empire was now called Austria-Hungary or the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Nationalist disputes continued to weaken the empire for more than 40 years. Finally, after World War I, Austria-Hungary broke into several separate nation-states.

The Russian Empire Crumbles Nationalism also helped break up the 370-year-old empire of the czars in Russia. In addition to the Russians themselves, the czar ruled over 22 million Ukrainians, 8 million Poles, and smaller numbers of Lithuanians, Latvians, Estonians, Finns, Jews, Romanians, Georgians, Armenians, Turks, and others. Each group had its own culture.

The ruling Romanov dynasty of Russia was determined to maintain iron control over this diversity. They instituted a policy of **Russification**, forcing Russian culture on all the ethnic groups in the empire. This policy actually strengthened ethnic nationalist feelings and helped to disunify Russia. The weakened czarist empire finally could not withstand the double shock of World War I and the communist revolution. The last Romanov czar gave up his power in 1917. **A**

The Ottoman Empire Weakens The ruling Turks of the Ottoman Empire controlled Greeks, Slavs, Arabs, Bulgarians, and Armenians. In 1856, under pressure from the British and French, the Ottomans granted equal citizenship to all the people under their rule. That measure angered conservative Turks, who wanted no change in the situation, and caused tensions in the empire. For example, in response to nationalism in

◄ Driven from their homes, Armenians beg for bread at a refugee center.

Armenia, the Ottomans massacred and deported Armenians from 1894 to 1896 and again in 1915. Like Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire broke apart soon after World War I.

Cavour Unites Italy

While nationalism destroyed empires, it also built nations. Italy was one of the countries to form from the territory of crumbling empires. Between 1815 and 1848, fewer and fewer Italians were content to live under foreign rulers.

Cavour Leads Italian Unification Italian nationalists looked for leadership from the kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia, the largest and most powerful of the Italian states. The kingdom had adopted a liberal constitution in 1848. So, to the liberal Italian middle classes, unification under Piedmont-Sardinia seemed a good plan.

In 1852, Sardinia's king, Victor Emmanuel II, named Count **Camillo di Cavour** (kuh•VOOR) as his prime minister. Cavour was a cunning statesman who worked tirelessly to expand Piedmont-Sardinia's power. Using skillful diplomacy and well-chosen alliances he set about gaining control of northern Italy for Sardinia.

Cavour realized that the greatest roadblock to annexing northern Italy was Austria. In 1858, the French emperor Napoleon III agreed to help drive Austria out of the northern Italian provinces. Cavour then provoked a war with the Austrians. A combined French-Sardinian army won two quick victories. Sardinia succeeded in taking all of northern Italy, except Venetia.

Garibaldi Brings Unity As Cavour was uniting northern Italy, he secretly started helping nationalist rebels in southern Italy. In May 1860, a small army of Italian nationalists led by a bold and visionary soldier, **Giuseppe Garibaldi** (GAR•uh• BAWL•dee), captured Sicily. In battle, Garibaldi always wore a bright red shirt, as did his followers. As a result, they became known as the Red Shirts.

From Sicily, Garibaldi and his forces crossed to the Italian mainland and marched north. Eventually, Garibaldi agreed to unite the southern areas he had conquered with the kingdom of Piedmont-Sardinia. Cavour arranged for King Victor Emmanuel II to meet Garibaldi in Naples. "The Red One" willingly agreed to step aside and let the Sardinian king rule. **B**

In 1866, the Austrian province of Venetia, which included the city of Venice, became part of Italy. In 1870,

The Unification of Italy, 1858–1870

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INTERACTIVE MAP

FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
ALPS
AUSTRIAN EMPIRE
SAVOY
To France, 1860
Milan
Turin LOMBARDY
PIEDMONT PARMA
Genoa
NICE
LUCCA
Pisa
Florence
TUSCANY PAPAL STATES
CORSICA (Fr.)
Rome
Mediterranean Sea
SARDINIA
Tyrrhenian Sea
Naples
KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES
Palermo
SICILY
VENETIA
Venice
Po R.
MODENA
Arno R.
Tiber R.
Adriatic Sea
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
Drava R.
Sava R.
Danube R.
Loire R.
Rhône R.
50° N
42° N
8° E
16° E

Kingdom of Sardinia, 1858
Added to Sardinia, 1859–1860
Added to Italy, 1866
Added to Italy, 1870
Papal States

0   200 Miles
0   400 Kilometers
N

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Movement** *During what time period was the greatest share of territory unified in Italy?*
2. **Region** *Which territories did the Italians lose to France during their process of unification?*

MAIN IDEA

Hypothesizing
B What reasons might Garibaldi have had to step aside and let the Sardinian king rule?

"Right Leg in the Boot at Last"

In this 1860 British cartoon, the king of Sardinia is receiving control of lands taken by the nationalist Garibaldi. The act was one of the final steps in the unification of Italy.

SKILLBUILDER: Analyzing Political Cartoons

1. **Clarifying** *What symbol does the cartoonist use for the soon-to-be nation of Italy?*
2. **Making Inferences** *How is Garibaldi portrayed?*
3. **Analyzing Bias** *What does the title of the cartoon say about the cartoonist's view of Italian unification?*

See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R29

Italian forces took over the last part of a territory known as the Papal States. With this victory, the city of Rome came under Italian control. Soon after, Rome became the capital of the united kingdom of Italy. The pope, however, would continue to govern a section of Rome known as Vatican City.

CASE STUDY: GERMANY

Bismarck Unites Germany

Like Italy, Germany also achieved national unity in the mid-1800s. Beginning in 1815, 39 German states formed a loose grouping called the German Confederation. The Austrian Empire dominated the confederation. However, Prussia was ready to unify all the German states.

Prussia Leads German Unification Prussia enjoyed several advantages that would eventually help it forge a strong German state. First of all, unlike the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Prussia had a mainly German population. As a result, nationalism actually unified Prussia. In contrast, ethnic groups in Austria-Hungary tore the empire apart. Moreover, Prussia's army was by far the most powerful in central Europe. In 1848, Berlin rioters forced a constitutional convention to write up a liberal constitution for the kingdom, paving the way for unification.

Bismarck Takes Control In 1861, Wilhelm I succeeded Frederick William to the throne. The liberal parliament refused him money for reforms that would double the strength of the army. Wilhelm saw the parliament's refusal as a major challenge to his authority. He was supported in his view by the **Junkers** (YUNG•kuhrz), strongly conservative members of Prussia's wealthy landowning class. In 1862, Wilhelm chose a conservative Junker named **Otto von Bismarck** as his prime minister. Bismarck was a master of what came to be known as **realpolitik**. This

Otto von Bismarck
1815–1898

To some Germans, Bismarck was the greatest and noblest of Germany's statesmen. They say he almost single-handedly unified the nation and raised it to greatness. To others, he was nothing but a devious politician who abused his powers and led Germany into dictatorship.

His speeches, letters, and memoirs show him to be both crafty and deeply religious. At one moment, he could declare, "It is the destiny of the weak to be devoured by the strong." At another moment he might claim, "We Germans shall never wage aggressive war, ambitious war, a war of conquest."

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INTERNET ACTIVITY Go online to create an interactive time line of Bismarck's actions to unite Germany.

German term means "the politics of reality." The term is used to describe tough power politics with no room for idealism. With realpolitik as his style, Bismarck would become one of the commanding figures of German history.

With the king's approval, Bismarck declared that he would rule without the consent of parliament and without a legal budget. Those actions were in direct violation of the constitution. In his first speech as prime minister, he defiantly told members of the Prussian parliament, "It is not by means of speeches and majority resolutions that the great issues of the day will be decided—that was the great mistake of 1848 and 1849—but by blood and iron." **C**

Prussia Expands In 1864, Bismarck took the first step toward molding an empire. Prussia and Austria formed an alliance and went to war against Denmark to win two border provinces, Schleswig and Holstein.

A quick victory increased national pride among Prussians. It also won new respect from other Germans and lent support for Prussia as head of a unified Germany. After the victory, Prussia governed Schleswig, while Austria controlled Holstein.

Seven Weeks' War Bismarck purposely stirred up border conflicts with Austria over Schleswig and Holstein. The tensions provoked Austria into declaring war on Prussia in 1866. This conflict was known as the Seven Weeks' War. The Prussians used their superior training and equipment to win a devastating victory. They humiliated Austria. The Austrians lost the region of Venetia, which was given to Italy. They had to accept Prussian annexation of more German territory.

With its victory in the Seven Weeks' War, Prussia took control of northern Germany. For the first time, the eastern and western parts of the Prussian kingdom were joined. In 1867, the remaining states of the north joined the North German Confederation, which Prussia dominated completely.

The Franco-Prussian War By 1867, a few southern German states remained independent of Prussian control. The majority of southern Germans were Catholics. Many in the region resisted domination by a Protestant Prussia. However, Bismarck felt he could win the support of southerners if they faced a threat from outside. He reasoned that a war with France would rally the south.

Bismarck was an expert at manufacturing "incidents" to gain his ends. For example, he created the impression that the French ambassador had insulted the Prussian king. The French reacted to Bismarck's deception by declaring war on Prussia on July 19, 1870.

The Prussian army immediately poured into northern France. In September 1870, the Prussian army surrounded the main French force at Sedan. Among the 83,000 French prisoners taken was Napoleon III himself. Parisians withstood a German siege until hunger forced them to surrender.

The Franco-Prussian War was the final stage in German unification. Now the nationalistic fever also seized people in southern Germany. They finally accepted Prussian leadership. On January 18, 1871, at the captured French palace of
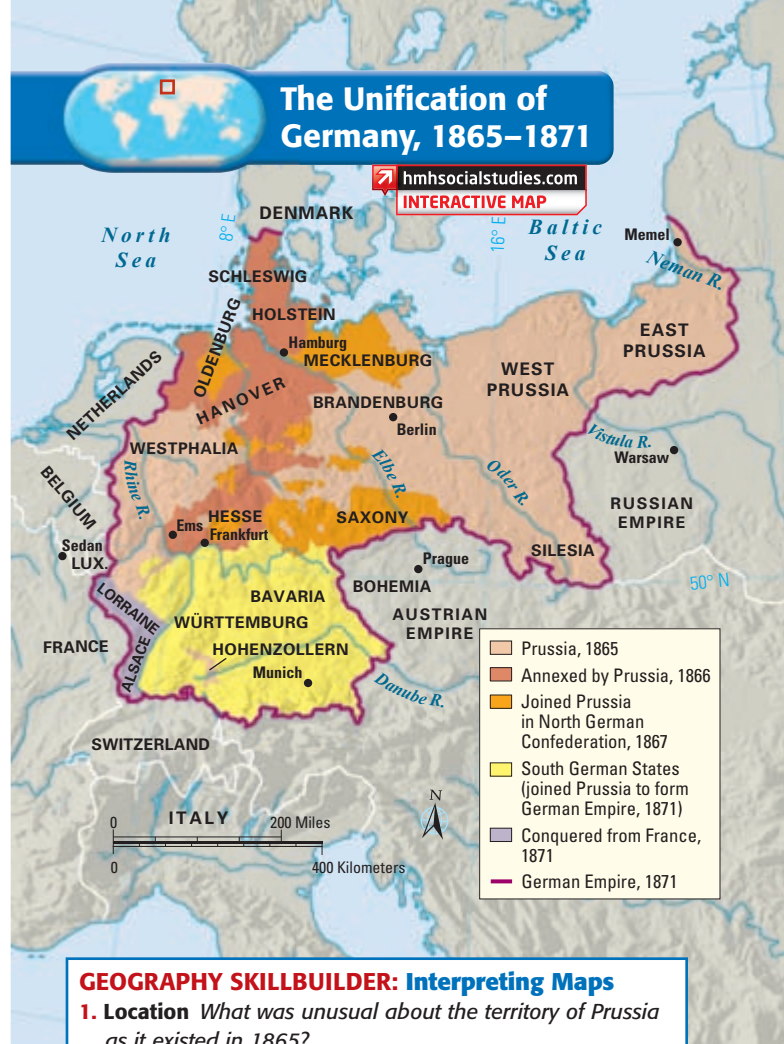
MAIN IDEA

Hypothesizing
C Bismarck ignored both the parliament and the constitution. How do you think this action would affect Prussian government?

Versailles, King Wilhelm I of Prussia was crowned **kaiser** (KY•zuhr), or emperor. Germans called their empire the Second Reich. (The Holy Roman Empire was the first.) Bismarck had achieved Prussian dominance over Germany and Europe "by blood and iron."

A Shift in Power

The 1815 Congress of Vienna had established five Great Powers in Europe—Britain, France, Austria, Prussia, and Russia. In 1815, the Great Powers were nearly equal in strength. The wars of the mid-1800s greatly strengthened one of the Great Powers, as Prussia joined with other German states to form Germany.

By 1871, Britain and Germany were clearly the most powerful, both militarily and economically. Austria and Russia lagged far behind. France struggled along somewhere in the middle. The European balance of power had broken down. This shift also found expression in the art of the period. In fact, during that century, artists, composers, and writers pointed to paths that they believed European society should follow.

The Unification of Germany, 1865–1871

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INTERACTIVE MAP

Legend:
- Prussia, 1865
- Annexed by Prussia, 1866
- Joined Prussia in North German Confederation, 1867
- South German States (joined Prussia to form German Empire, 1871)
- Conquered from France, 1871
- German Empire, 1871

GEOGRAPHY SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Maps
1. **Location** *What was unusual about the territory of Prussia as it existed in 1865?*
2. **Movement** *After 1865, what year saw the biggest expansion of Prussian territory?*

SECTION 3 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• Russification   • Camillo di Cavour   • Giuseppe Garibaldi   • Junker   • Otto von Bismarck   • realpolitik   • kaiser

USING YOUR NOTES
2. Identify an event that made the unification of Italy or Germany possible.

1800 _____ 1900
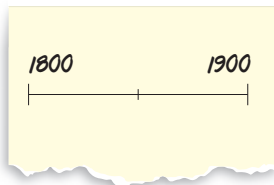
MAIN IDEAS
3. Which aging empires suffered from the forces of nationalism?

4. What role did Garibaldi play in the unification of Italy?

5. What advantages did Prussia have in leading the German states to unify?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING
6. CLARIFYING How can nationalism be both a unifying and a disunifying force?

7. FORMING GENERALIZATIONS Why did the Austrian, Russian, and Ottoman Empires face such great challenges to their control of land?

8. EVALUATING COURSES OF ACTION Many liberals wanted government by elected parliaments. How was Bismarck's approach to achieving his goals different?

9. WRITING ACTIVITY POWER AND AUTHORITY Write a one paragraph **biographical essay** on either Garibaldi or Cavour.

CONNECT TO TODAY CREATING A MAP AND DATABASE

Study the chart on page 692. Research the names of nations that have emerged in the last ten years. Categorize each nation's nationalist movement using the chart. Then create a **database** and **map** showing the location of the new nations and the category into which each new nation falls.

Revolutions in the Arts

MAIN IDEA	WHY IT MATTERS NOW	TERMS & NAMES
CULTURAL INTERACTION Artistic and intellectual movements both reflected and fueled changes in Europe during the 1800s.	Romanticism and realism are still found in novels, dramas, and films produced today.	• romanticism • impressionism • realism

SETTING THE STAGE During the first half of the 1800s, artists focused on ideas of freedom, the rights of individuals, and an idealistic view of history. After the great revolutions of 1848, political focus shifted to leaders who practiced realpolitik. Similarly, intellectuals and artists expressed a "realistic" view of the world. In this view, the rich pursued their selfish interests while ordinary people struggled and suffered. Newly invented photography became both a way to detail this struggle and a tool for scientific investigation.

The Romantic Movement

At the end of the 18th century, the Enlightenment idea of reason gradually gave way to another major movement in art and ideas: **romanticism**. This movement reflected deep interest both in nature and in the thoughts and feelings of the individual. In many ways, romantic thinkers and writers reacted against the ideals of the Enlightenment. They turned from reason to emotion, from society to nature. Romantics rejected the rigidly ordered world of the middle class. Nationalism also fired the romantic imagination. For example, George Gordon, Lord Byron, one of the leading romantic poets of the time, fought for Greece's freedom.

The Ideas of Romanticism Emotion, sometimes wild emotion, was a key element of romanticism. However, romanticism went beyond feelings. Romantics expressed a wide range of ideas and attitudes. In general, romantic thinkers and artists shared these beliefs:

- emphasized inner feelings, emotions, and imagination
- focused on the mysterious, the supernatural, and the exotic, grotesque, or horrifying
- loved the beauties of untamed nature
- idealized the past as a simpler and nobler time
- glorified heroes and heroic actions
- cherished folk traditions, music, and stories
- valued the common people and the individual
- promoted radical change and democracy

Romanticism in Literature Poetry, music, and painting were the most influential arts because they were able to capture the emotion of romanticism. To romantics, poetry was the highest

▼ Romantic poet Lord Byron fought with Greek nationalists. He did not live to see their victory.

form of expression. The British romantic poets William Wordsworth and Samuel Taylor Coleridge both honored nature as the source of truth and beauty. Later English romantic poets, such as Lord Byron, Percy Bysshe Shelley, and John Keats, wrote poems celebrating rebellious heroes, passionate love, and the mystery and beauty of nature. Like many romantics, many of these British poets lived stormy lives and died young. Byron, for example, died at the age of 36, while Shelley died at 29.

Germany produced one of the earliest and greatest romantic writers. In 1774, Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (YO•hahn-VUHLF•gahng-fuhn-GER•tuh) published *The Sorrows of Young Werther*. Goethe's novel told of a sensitive young man whose hopeless love for a virtuous married woman drives him to suicide. Also in Germany, the brothers Jakob and Wilhelm Grimm collected German fairy tales and created a dictionary and grammar of the German language. Both the tales and the dictionary celebrated the German spirit.

Victor Hugo led the French romantics. His works also reflect the romantic fascination with history and the individual. His novels *Les Misérables* and *The Hunchback of Notre Dame* show the struggles of individuals against a hostile society.

The Gothic Novel Gothic horror stories became hugely popular. These novels often took place in medieval Gothic castles. They were filled with fearful, violent, sometimes supernatural events. Mary Shelley, wife of the poet Percy Bysshe Shelley, wrote one of the earliest and most successful Gothic horror novels, *Frankenstein*. The novel told the story of a monster created from the body parts of dead human beings.

Composers Emphasize Emotion Emotion dominated the music produced by romantic composers. These composers moved away from the tightly controlled, formal compositions of the Enlightenment period. Instead, they celebrated heroism and national pride with a new power of expression.

As music became part of middle-class life, musicians and composers became popular heroes. Composer and pianist Franz Liszt (lihst), for example, achieved earnings and popularity comparable to those of today's rock stars.

One of the composers leading the way into the Romantic period was also its greatest: Ludwig van Beethoven (LOOD•vihg-vahn-BAY•toh•vuhn). His work evolved from the classical music of the Enlightenment into romantic compositions. His Ninth Symphony soars, celebrating freedom, dignity, and the triumph of the human spirit.

Later romantic composers also appealed to the hearts and souls of their listeners. Robert Schumann's compositions sparkle with merriment. Like many romantic composers, Felix Mendelssohn drew on literature, such as Shakespeare's A *Midsummer Night's Dream*, as the inspiration for his music. Polish composer and concert pianist Frederic Chopin (SHOH•pan) used Polish dance rhythms in his music. Guiseppe Verdi and Richard Wagner brought European opera to a dramatic and theatrical high point. **A**

MAIN IDEA

Summarizing

A What are some of the themes that are key to romantic literature and art?

History Makers

Ludwig van Beethoven
1770–1827

A genius of European music, Beethoven suffered the most tragic disability a composer can endure. At the age of 30, he began to go deaf. His deafness grew worse for 19 years. By 1819, it was total.

At first, Beethoven's handicap barely affected his career. By 1802, however, he knew that his hearing would only worsen. He suffered from bouts of depression. The depression would bring him to the brink of suicide. Nonetheless, he would rebound:

It seemed unthinkable for me to leave the world forever before I had produced all that I felt called upon to produce.

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on Ludwig van Beethoven.

The Shift to Realism in the Arts

By the middle of the 19th century, rapid industrialization deeply affected everyday life in Europe. The growing class of industrial workers lived grim lives in dirty, crowded cities. Industrialization began to make the dreams of the romantics seem pointless. In literature and the visual arts, **realism** tried to show life as it was, not as it should be. Realist painting reflected the increasing political importance of the working class in the 1850s. Along with paintings, novels proved especially suitable for describing workers' suffering.

Photographers Capture Reality As realist painters and writers detailed the lives of actual people, photographers could record an instant in time with scientific precision. The first practical photographs were called daguerreotypes (duh•GEHR•uh•TYPS). They were named after their French inventor, Louis Daguerre. The images in his daguerreotypes were startlingly real and won him worldwide fame.

British inventor William Talbot invented a light-sensitive paper that he used to produce photographic negatives. The advantage of paper was that many prints could be made from one negative. The Talbot process also allowed photos to be reproduced in books and newspapers. Mass distribution gained a wide audience for the realism of photography. With its scientific, mechanical, and mass-produced features, photography was the art of the new industrial age.

Writers Study Society Realism in literature flourished in France with writers such as Honoré de Balzac and Émile Zola. Balzac wrote a massive series of almost 100 novels entitled *The Human Comedy*. They describe in detail the brutal struggle for wealth and power among all levels of French society. Zola's novels exposed the

> Analyzing Photographs

Motion Studies

Eadweard Muybridge had a varied career as a photographer. He devoted part of his career to motion studies. These photographic studies froze the motion of an object at an instant in time. They allowed scientists to study motion and to better understand time. The equipment he built helped lead to the development of motion pictures.

This series of photographs taken in 1878, titled "The Horse in Motion," was designed to discover if all of a running horse's legs ever left the ground at the same time.

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Visual Sources

1. **Drawing Conclusions** *What do the series of photographs reveal about the question of whether all the legs of a horse ever left the ground at the same time?*
2. **Developing Historical Perspective** *What reaction do you think these pictures would have generated among the general public?*

See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R23.

MAIN IDEA

Forming Opinions

B Which do you think would be more effective in spurring reforms—photographs or a realist novel? Explain.

miseries of French workers in small shops, factories, and coal mines. His revelations shocked readers and spurred reforms of labor laws and working conditions in France. The famous English realist novelist Charles Dickens created unforgettable characters and scenes of London's working poor. Many of the scenes were humorous, but others showed the despair of London's poor. In his book *Little Dorrit*, Dickens described the life of a working-class person as sheer monotony set in a gloomy neighborhood. **B**

Impressionists React Against Realism

Beginning in the 1860s, a group of painters in Paris reacted against the realist style. Instead of showing life "as it really was," they tried to show their impression of a subject or a moment in time. For this reason, their style of art came to be known as **impressionism**. Fascinated by light, impressionist artists used pure, shimmering colors to capture a moment seen at a glance.

Life in the Moment Unlike the realists, impressionists showed a more positive view of the new urban society in western Europe. Instead of abused workers, they showed shop clerks and dock workers enjoying themselves in dance halls and cafés. They painted performers in theaters and circuses. And they glorified the delights of the life of the rising middle class. Claude Monet (moh•NAY), Edgar Degas (duh•GAH), and Pierre-Auguste Renoir (ruhn•WHAR) were leaders in the movement that became very popular.

Composers also created impressions of mood and atmosphere. By using different combinations of instruments, tone patterns, and music structures, they were able to create mental pictures of such things as flashing lights, the feel of a warm summer day, or the sight of the sea. French composers Maurice Ravel and Claude Debussy are the most notable members of the impressionist music movement.

Changes in political, social, artistic, and intellectual movements during the 19th century signaled important changes in daily life. One of the most significant causes of change was industrialization, which you will learn about in Chapter 25.

SECTION 4 ASSESSMENT

TERMS & NAMES **1.** For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
• romanticism   • realism   • impressionism

USING YOUR NOTES

2. What was the goal of realist writers?

> I. The Romantic Movement
> A.
> B.
> II. The Shift to Realism in the Arts

MAIN IDEAS

3. What was the key element of romanticism?

4. What characteristics did photography have that made it the art of the industrial age?

5. What was the goal of impressionist painters?

CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING

6. **COMPARING AND CONTRASTING** How are the movements of romanticism and realism alike and different?

7. **ANALYZING CAUSES** How might a realist novel bring about changes in society? Describe the ways by which this might happen.

8. **SUMMARIZING** How did nationalism influence the artistic movements you read about?

9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** | CULTURAL INTERACTION | Listen to a piece of music by Beethoven, and then listen to a piece of contemporary music that you like. Write a **comparison-and-contrast essay** on the two pieces of music.

CONNECT TO TODAY **Creating an Arts Chart**

Look at newspaper listings for films being shown today. Make a **chart** showing which of them might be categorized as romantic and which might be categorized as realistic. Present reasons why each film fell into the designated category.

Revolutions in Painting

European painting underwent revolutionary changes during the 1800s. In the early years, romanticism—which stressed emotion above all else—was the dominant style. As revolutions swept Europe in the 1840s, some artists rejected romanticism in favor of realism. They portrayed common people and everyday life in a realistic manner. Toward the end of the century, art underwent another revolution, influenced by scientific discoveries about vision. Impressionist painters experimented with light and color to capture their impressions of a passing moment.

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RESEARCH WEB LINKS Go online for more on 19th-century painting.

▼ Romanticism

In their eagerness to explore emotion, romantic artists had certain favorite subjects: nature, love, religion, and nationalism. This painting, *The Lion Hunt* by Eugène Delacroix, shows that violence and exotic cultures were also popular themes. The swirling capes, snarling lions, and bold reds and yellows help convey the ferocity of the hunt.

▲ Realism

The Stone Breakers by Gustave Courbet shows that realist artists tried to portray everyday life just as it was, without making it pretty or trying to tell a moralistic story. Notice how the workers' clothes are torn and shabby. The boy rests the heavy basket of stones on his knee to ease his burden, while the man bends to his task. The colors are dull and gritty, just as the job itself is.

▼ Impressionism

The impressionists wanted to record the perceptions of the human eye rather than physical reality. To do this, they tried to portray the effect of light on landscapes and buildings. They combined short strokes of many colors to create a shimmering effect. They also used brighter, lighter colors than the artists before them had used. As the painting *Ducal Palace, Venice* by Claude Monet shows, the impressionists often painted water because of its reflective nature.

Connect *to* Today

1. **Developing Historical Perspective** If you were a political revolutionary of the 1800s, which of these artistic styles would you use for your propaganda posters? Why?
   See Skillbuilder Handbook, page R12.

2. **Drawing Conclusions** Impressionism remains extremely popular more than a century after it was first developed. What do you think accounts for its popularity today?

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TERMS & NAMES

Briefly explain the importance of each of the following to the revolutions in Latin America or Europe.

1. conservative
2. liberal
3. nationalism
4. nation-state
5. realpolitik
6. romanticism
7. realism
8. impressionism

MAIN IDEAS

Latin American Peoples Win Independence
Section 1 (pages 681–686)

9. What caused the creoles in South America to rebel against Spain?
10. What role did Agustín de Iturbide play in the independence of Mexico?
11. Who was Dom Pedro, and what role did he play in Brazil's move to independence?

Europe Faces Revolutions Section 2 (pages 687–691)

12. How is a liberal different from a conservative?
13. How successful were the revolts of 1848? Explain.
14. Why did the French accept Louis-Napoleon as an emperor?

Case Study: Nationalism Section 3 (pages 692–697)

15. How did nationalism in the 1800s work as a force for both disunity and unity?
16. What approaches did Camillo di Cavour use to acquire more territory for Piedmont-Sardinia?
17. What strategy did Otto von Bismarck use to make Prussia the leader of a united Germany?

Revolutions in the Arts Section 4 (pages 698–703)

18. What are five elements of romanticism?
19. What are two ideas or attitudes of the romantic movement that reflect the ideals of nationalism?
20. What new conditions caused a change in the arts from romanticism to realism?

CRITICAL THINKING

1. **USING YOUR NOTES**
   Using a chart, describe the nationalist movement in each of the countries listed and the results of each movement.

Country	Nationalism and Its Results
Mexico	
Greece	
Italy	
Germany	

2. **EVALUATING DECISIONS**
   POWER AND AUTHORITY   Why do you think Giuseppe Garibaldi stepped aside to let Victor Emmanuel II rule areas that Garibaldi had conquered in southern Italy?

3. **ANALYZING MOTIVES**
   REVOLUTION How do you think nationalism might help revolutionaries overcome the disadvantages of old weapons and poor supplies to win a war for national independence? Explain.

4. **MAKING INFERENCES**
   Do you believe the Latin American revolutions would have occurred without a push from European events? Explain.

5. **SYNTHESIZING**
   CULTURAL INTERACTION   How did artistic and intellectual movements reflect and fuel changes in Europe in the 1800s?

VISUAL SUMMARY

Nationalist Revolutions Sweep the West

NATIONALISM

Latin America
- Enlightenment ideas
- Haiti: slave-led
- South America: creole-led, especially Bolívar and San Martín
- Brazil: royalty-led

1830 & 1848 Revolutions
- Reactions against conservatives
- A few reforms
- Most failed

Unification Movements
- Garibaldi begins in Italy.
- Prime Minister Cavour completes the task.
- Prime Minister Bismarck leads the way in Germany.

The Arts
- Romantics inspired by emotion
- Dedication to common people or the group
- Realists see flaws and set new goals for nation.
- Impressionists capture the moment.

Use the quotation and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.

PRIMARY SOURCE

When I say that we must strive continually to be ready for all emergencies, I advance the proposition that, on account of our geographical position, we must make greater efforts than other powers would be obliged to make in view of the same ends. We lie in the middle of Europe. We have at least three fronts on which we can be attacked. France has only an eastern boundary; Russia only its western, exposed to assault. . . . So we are spurred forward on both sides to endeavors which perhaps we would not make otherwise.

OTTO VON BISMARCK, *speech to the German parliament on February 6, 1888*

1. According to Bismarck, what key factor makes Germany a potential target for invasion?

   A. dangerous neighbors

   B. three borders to protect

   C. location in the middle of Europe

   D. massive supplies of coal and iron

2. Based on his remarks above, what actions might Bismarck take?

   A. form alliances with other nations in Europe

   B. make peace with France

   C. make peace with England

   D. expand industry

Use this 20th-century mural titled *Grito de Dolores* painted by Juan O'Gorman and your knowledge of world history to answer question 3.

3. Look at the people portrayed in the mural. What does the artist suggest about the Mexican revolt against the Spanish?

   A. It was condemned by the Catholic Church.

   B. Only the poor fought against Spanish rule.

   C. People of all classes fought against Spanish rule.

   D. Only Indians fought Spanish rule.

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For additional test practice, go online for:

• Diagnostic tests

• Strategies

• Tutorials

Interact *with* History

On page 680, you were asked to create a symbol for your newly independent country. Show your symbol to the class. Explain the elements of your design and what they are intended to express. With your classmates' comments in mind, what might you change in your design?

FOCUS ON WRITING

Write a **speech** that might have been delivered somewhere in Europe at a rally for Greek independence. Urge the country's leaders to help the Greeks in their struggle for independence from the Ottoman Empire. Consider the following:

• the connections of Greece to Europeans

• the women's march on Versailles

• reasons to support Greek revolutionaries

• the cause of democracy

MULTIMEDIA ACTIVITY

21ST CENTURY

Creating a Web Page

Use the Internet, newspapers, magazines, and your own experience to make a list of movies that portray social and political conditions. Then create a Web page that classifies each portrayal as either romantic or realistic. Remember to focus on the meanings of the terms romantic and realistic as they apply to the two movements in art and literature. You may want to include on your Web page:

• descriptions of movie plots or character portrayals

• still shots from movies that support your conclusions

• romantic or realistic quotations from movies

Revolutions Across Time

Revolution—which is a sudden or significant change in the old ways of doing things—can occur in many areas, such as government, technology, or art. In Unit 5, you studied political revolutions in Europe and the Americas, in which people rebelled against unjust rulers to gain more rights. Each revolution led to major changes in governmental, social, and economic structures. In these six pages, you will gain a better understanding of those revolutions by examining their similarities and differences.

English Civil War and Glorious Revolution ▶

In 1642, civil war broke out between those who supported Parliament and those who supported the king. Parliament won and set up a commonwealth, led by Oliver Cromwell. In time, he became a dictator. After his death, the monarchy returned, but tensions built anew. In 1688, Parliament ousted King James II, shown at right, in the Glorious Revolution and invited William and Mary to rule.

1642   **1776**   **1789**

◀ American Revolution

After 1763, Americans began to resent British rule. Clashes such as the Boston Massacre, shown at left, took place. The colonies declared their independence **in 1776.** War ensued, and the United States won its freedom by defeating Britain.

▼ French Revolution

Beginning in 1789, the French people rose up to overthrow their king. The uprisings included the march by hungry women shown below. Differing goals soon split the revolutionaries. Several years of terror followed. Napoleon restored order and eventually made himself emperor of France.

▲ **Latin American Revolutions**

From 1791 to 1824, revolutions took place in Haiti, Mexico, and the huge Spanish empire that spread across Central and South America. By the end of that period, nearly all of Latin America had gained its independence from European control. One of South America's great liberators was José de San Martín, shown in the painting above.

Model of a Revolution

From his study of the French Revolution, historian Crane Brinton developed a model of the stages that revolutions often go through. The model below is based on his work. Compare it with the revolutions you learned about in this unit.

Fall of the Old Order

Revolutions usually cannot occur until a ruler becomes weak. Often this weakness results in problems such as starvation and unfair taxes. Anger builds until the ruler is overthrown.

Rule by Moderates

The people relax because they think they have achieved their goal. A moderate group rules. But simply overthrowing the old order rarely solves the problems that led to the revolution.

The Terror

When people realize that the old problems still exist, they look for someone to blame. Radicals take control, push for more extreme changes, and execute "enemies of the revolution."

Turn from Radical Rule

In time, the violence sickens people, and the use of terror ends. The former radicals adopt a more gradual plan for effecting change.

Military Rule

The terror often kills most of a country's leaders. Then the turn from radicalism makes people doubt revolutionary ideals. A military leader steps into the gap and becomes dictator.

Restoration

When the dictatorship ends, through death or overthrow, a power vacuum results. The order that existed before the revolution is restored.

Comparing & Contrasting

1. Which of the revolutions on the time line, besides the French Revolution, is most like the model? Explain.
2. Which revolution is least like the model? Explain.

Causes of the Revolutions

Each of the revolutions you studied in this unit had political, economic, and social causes, as shown in the chart below. Some of the causes mentioned on the chart are the subjects of the primary sources located on the next page. Use the chart and the primary sources together to understand the causes of revolution more fully.

	England	North America	France	Latin America
Political	• King claimed divine right. • King dissolved Parliament. • Parliament sought guarantee of freedoms.	• Colonists accused British leaders of tyranny. • Colonists demanded the same rights as English citizens.	• Third Estate wanted greater representation. • Louis XVI was a weak ruler; his wife was unpopular. • American Revolution inspired political ideas.	• French Revolution inspired political ideas. • Royal officials committed injustices and repression. • Napoleon's conquest of Spain triggered revolts.
Economic	• King wanted money for wars. • King levied taxes and fines without Parliament's approval.	• Britain imposed mercantilism. • Britain expected colonies to pay for defense. • Colonists opposed taxation without representation.	• Wars and royal extravagance created debt. • Inflation and famine caused problems. • Peasants made little money but paid high taxes.	• Peninsulares and creoles controlled wealth. • Lower classes toiled as peasants with little income or as slaves.
Social	• Early Stuart kings refused to make Puritan reforms. • Parliament feared James II would restore Catholicism.	• Colonists began to identify as Americans. • Colonists were used to some independence. • Enlightenment ideas of equality and liberty spread.	• Third Estate resented the First and Second estates' privileges. • Enlightenment ideas of equality and liberty spread.	• Only peninsulares and creoles had power. • Mestizos, mulattos, Africans, and Indians had little status. • Educated creoles spread Enlightenment ideas.

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts
1. **Analyzing Causes** *What was the most frequent political cause of revolution? economic cause? social cause?*
2. **Contrasting** *How did the causes of the revolutions in Latin America differ from those of the other three revolutions?*

◄ In the 1780s, many French peasants could not afford bread to feed their families. At the same time, Marie Antoinette spent so much money on clothes that her enemies called her Madame Deficit. The harsh contrast between starvation and luxury sparked the anger that led to the Revolution.

PRIMARY SOURCE

Political Cartoon, 1789

This French political cartoon portrayed the way the privileges of the First and Second estates affected the Third Estate.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

Do you think a member of the First, Second, or Third Estate created this cartoon? Interpret the cartoon and explain who was most likely to hold the viewpoint conveyed.

PRIMARY SOURCE

The English Bill of Rights, 1689

This excerpt from the English Bill of Rights attempted to justify the Glorious Revolution by describing the injustices King James II committed.

The late King James the Second, by the assistance of diverse evil counselors, judges and ministers employed by him, did endeavor to subvert and extirpate [destroy] the Protestant religion and the laws and liberties of this kingdom;

By assuming and exercising a power of dispensing with and suspending of laws and the execution of laws without consent of Parliament; . . .

By levying money for and to the use of the Crown by pretense of prerogative [privilege] for other time and in other manner than the same was granted by Parliament;

By raising and keeping a standing army within this kingdom in time of peace without consent of Parliament; . . .

By violating the freedom of election of members to serve in Parliament; . . .

And excessive bail hath been required of persons committed in criminal cases to elude the benefit of the laws made for the liberty of the subjects;

And excessive fines have been imposed;

And illegal and cruel punishments inflicted.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

According to this document, how did King James II take away power from Parliament? How did he violate the rights of citizens?

PRIMARY SOURCE

Political Cartoon, 1765

This political cartoon expressed an opinion about the Stamp Act. The act was a British law that required all legal and commercial documents in the American colonies to carry a stamp showing that a tax had been paid.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION

What opinion does this cartoon express about the effect of the Stamp Act on the American economy?

Comparing & Contrasting

1. How are the opinions expressed by the three primary sources similar?

2. Reread the excerpt from the English Bill of Rights. Based on this document, what causes could you add to the chart on page 708?

Effects of Revolutions

The chart below shows political, economic, and social effects of the various revolutions. The primary sources on these two pages describe the political outcomes that three different revolutionaries expected to achieve. Use the chart and the primary sources together to understand the effects of revolution more fully.

	England	North America	France	Latin America
Political	• A constitutional monarchy was established. • The Bill of Rights increased Parliament's power and guaranteed certain rights. • The overthrow of a monarch helped inspire American revolutionaries.	• The United States gained independence. • The Constitution set up a republican government. • Revolutionary ideals continued to inspire groups seeking political equality. • The American Revolution inspired later revolutions.	• The Revolution led to a succession of governments: a republic, a dictatorship, a restored monarchy. • It created expectations for equality and freedom that sparked later uprisings in France. • It inspired later revolutions.	• Nearly all colonial rule in Latin America ended. • New countries were established. • Representative government was slow to develop. The military or the wealthy controlled much of the region until the late 1900s.
Economic	• Because it was answerable to taxpayers, Parliament encouraged trade.	• The removal of Britain's mercantilist policies allowed free enterprise to develop.	• The Revolution and ensuing wars with Europe devastated France's economy.	• Upper classes kept control of wealth. • Many places kept the plantation system.
Social	• England remained Protestant.	• The ideals of the Revolution continued to inspire groups seeking social equality.	• The French feudal system was abolished.	• Much of Latin America continued to have a strong class system.

> **SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts**
> 1. **Contrasting** *Which revolutions had positive economic effects, and which had negative? Explain.*
> 2. **Recognizing Effects** *What common political effect did the revolutions in North America and Latin America achieve?*

PRIMARY SOURCE

Thomas Paine

In this excerpt from the pamphlet *Common Sense,* Thomas Paine described the ideal government he wanted to see set up after the American Revolution.

But where, say some, is the king of America? I'll tell you, friend, he reigns above, and doth not make havoc of mankind like the Royal Brute of Great Britain. . . . Let a day be solemnly set apart for proclaiming the charter [constitution]; let it be brought forth placed on the divine law, the Word of God; let a crown be placed thereon, by which the world may know, that so far as we approve of monarchy, that in America THE LAW IS KING. For as in absolute governments the king is law, so in free countries the law *ought* to BE king, and there ought to be no other.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION
What did Paine believe should be the highest power in a new American government?

PRIMARY SOURCE

Simón Bolívar

"The Jamaica Letter" is one of Simón Bolívar's most important political documents. In this excerpt, he discussed his political goals for South America after the revolution—and his fear that South Americans were not ready to achieve those goals.

The role of the inhabitants of the American hemisphere has for centuries been purely passive. Politically they were non-existent. . . . We have been harassed by a conduct which has not only deprived us of our rights but has kept us in a sort of permanent infancy with regard to public affairs. . . . Americans today, and perhaps to a greater extent than ever before, who live within the Spanish system occupy a position in society no better than that of serfs destined for labor. . . . Although I seek perfection for the government of my country, I cannot persuade myself that the New World can, at the moment, be organized as a great republic.

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION
Why did Bolívar believe that South Americans were not ready for a republican form of government?

PRIMARY SOURCE

Maximilien Robespierre

In a speech given on February 5, 1794, Robespierre described his goals for the French Revolution. In this excerpt, he explained his reasons for using terror.

It is necessary to annihilate both the internal and external enemies of the republic or perish with its fall. Now, in this situation your first political maxim should be that one guides the people by reason, and the enemies of the people by terror.

If the driving force of popular government in peacetime is virtue, that of popular government during a revolution is both virtue and terror: virtue, without which terror is destructive; terror, without which virtue is impotent. Terror is only justice that is prompt, severe, and inflexible; it is thus an emanation of virtue; it is less a distinct principle than a consequence of the general principle of democracy applied to the most pressing needs of the patrie [nation].

DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTION
Why did Robespierre believe the use of terror against his enemies was necessary?

Comparing & Contrasting

1. Judging from the information on the chart, which revolutions resulted in the establishment of representative government, and which resulted in a return to tyrannical rule?
2. How do the political goals of the revolutionary leaders quoted here differ?
3. Compare the types of government set up in the United States, France, and Latin America after their revolutions. Did Paine, Robespierre, and Bolívar achieve the political goals quoted? Explain.

EXTENSION ACTIVITY
Revolutionary activity continued after the period covered by this unit. Two major 20th-century revolutions were the Russian Revolution (see Chapter 30) and the Chinese revolution and civil war (see Chapter 30 and Chapter 33). Read about one of these revolutions either in this textbook or in an encyclopedia. Then create a chart comparing that revolution with either the American Revolution or the French Revolution.