

CHAPTER 17

The Transformation of the West 1450-1750

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter is about big changes in western Europe during the early modern period. The core areas of Western civilization changed dramatically between 1450 and 1750. While remaining an agricultural society, the West became unusually commercially active and developed a strong manufacturing sector. Governments increased their powers. In intellectual life, science became the centerpiece for the first time in the history of any society. Ideas of the family and personality also altered. The changes resulted from overseas expansion and growing commercial dominance. The internal changes, such as the Renaissance and Enlightenment, were marked by considerable internal conflict, with focal points centered on the state, culture, and commerce, with support from technology.

The First Big Changes: Culture and Commerce. During the 15th century, Europe moved to a new role in world trade. Internally, the developments of the Renaissance continued, to be followed in the 16th century by the Protestant Reformation and Catholic response. A new commercial and social structure grew.

A New Spirit. The Renaissance brought a new spirit of discovery and achievement to Europe.

The Italian Renaissance. The Renaissance began in Italy during the 14th and 15th centuries as individuals challenged medieval intellectual values and styles. Italy's urban, commercial economy and competitive state politics stimulated the new movement. Petrarch and Boccaccio challenged established canons and wrote in Italian instead of Latin. They emphasized secular topics such as love and pride. New realism appeared in painting, and religion declined as a central focus. During the 15th century, the Renaissance blossomed further. In a great age of artistic accomplishment, da Vinci and Michelangelo changed styles in art and sculpture. In political theory, Machiavelli advanced ideas similar to those of the Chinese legalists. Historians favored critical thinking over divine intervention for explaining the past. Examples were drawn from Greece and Rome. Humanism, a focus on humanity as the center of endeavor, was a central focus. Renaissance ideas influenced politics and commerce. Merchants and bankers moved into profit-seeking capitalist ways; city-state rulers sought new forms dedicated to advancing well-being.

The Renaissance Moves Northward. By the 16th century, Italy declined as the center of the Renaissance. French and Spanish invasion cut political independence, while new Atlantic trade routes hurt the Mediterranean economy. The Northern Renaissance, centered in France, the Low Countries, Germany, and England, spread to eastern Europe. Northern humanists were more religious than the Italians. Writers—Shakespeare, Rabelais, and Cervantes—mixed classical themes with elements of medieval popular culture. Northern rulers became patrons of the arts, tried to control the church, and sponsored trading companies and colonial ventures. Interest in military conquest increased. In cultural life, classical styles replaced Gothic. Education changed to favor Greek and Roman classics, plus Christian morality. A spirit of individual excellence and defiance of tradition was widespread. Renaissance influence can be overstated. Feudal political forms remained strong. Ordinary people were little touched by the new values, and general economic life was not much altered.

Changes in Technology and Family. By 1500, fundamental changes were under way in Western society. Contacts with Asia led to improvements in technology. Printing helped to expand religious and technological thinking. A European-style family emerged. Ordinary people married at a later age, and a primary emphasis on the nuclear family developed. The changes influenced husband-wife relations and intensified links between families and individual property holdings. Later marriage was a form of birth control and helped to control population expansion.

The Protestant and Catholic Reformations. The Catholic church faced serious challenges. In 1517, Luther taught that only faith could gain salvation, and he challenged many Catholic beliefs, including papal authority, monasticism, and priestly celibacy. He said that the Bible should be translated into the vernacular. Luther resisted papal pressure and gained support in Germany, where papal authority and taxes were resented. Princes saw an opportunity to secure power at the expense of the Catholic Holy Roman emperor. They seized church lands and became Lutherans. Peasants interpreted Luther's actions—he vehemently disagreed—as a sanction for rebellion against landlords. Urban people thought Luther's views sanctioned money making and other secular pursuits. Other Protestant groups appeared. In England, Henry VIII established the Anglican church. Frenchman Jean Calvin, based in Geneva, insisted on the principle of predestination of those who would be saved. Calvinists wanted the participation of all believers in church affairs and thus influenced attitudes toward government. They also stressed education to enable believers to read the Bible. The Catholic church was unable to restore unity, but much of Europe remained under its authority. The Catholic Reformation worked against Protestant ideas, revived doctrine, and attacked popular beliefs. A new order, the Jesuits, spearheaded educational and missionary activity, including work in Asia and the Americas.

The End of Christian Unity in the West. The Protestant and Catholic quarrels caused a series of religious wars during the 16th and 17th centuries. In France, Calvinists and Catholics disputed until the edict of Nantes in 1598 gave Protestants tolerance. The Thirty Years War (1618-1648) pitted German and Swedish Protestants against the Holy Roman emperor and Spain. German power and prosperity did not recover for a century. The peace settlement allowed rulers and cities to choose their official religion. It also gave the Protestant Netherlands independence from Spain. During the 17th century, religion was an important issue in English civil strife; most Protestants, but not Catholics, gained toleration. The long religious wars led to very limited concepts of religious pluralism. The wars also affected the European power balance and political structure. France gained power, the Netherlands and England developed international trade, and Spain lost dominance. Some rulers benefited from the decline of papal authority, but in some states, Protestant theory encouraged parliamentary power. Popular mentalities changed as individuals became less likely to recognize a connection between God and nature. Religion and daily life were regarded as separate. Religious change also gave greater emphasis to family life; love between spouses was encouraged. Women, however, if unmarried, had fewer alternatives when Protestants abolished convents. Finally, literacy became more widespread.

The Commercial Revolution. Western economic structure underwent fundamental redefinition. Greater commercialization was spurred by substantial price inflation during the 16th century. New World gold and silver forced prices up, and product demand surpassed availability. Great trading companies formed to take advantage of colonial markets; the

increasing commerce stimulated manufacturing. Specialized agricultural regions emerged. All the developments stimulated population and urban growth. The prosperity was shared by all classes in western Europe, but there were victims of the changes. Commercialization created a new rural and urban proletariat that suffered from increased food prices. For the more prosperous, commercialization supported a more elaborate family life and demystification of nature. The many changes stimulated popular protest during the first half of the 17th century. Witchcraft hysteria reflected economic and religious uncertainties; women were the most common targets.

Social Protest. The Renaissance, Reformation, and economic change had produced many divisions within Europe by the 17th century. The Renaissance created a new wedge between the elite and the masses; the former pulled away from a shared popular culture. Popular rebellions demonstrated the social tension as groups called for a political voice or suppression of landlords and taxes. The risings failed because wealth and literacy had spread widely among classes who became suspicious of the poor.

Science and Politics: The Next Phase of Change. A revolution in science, peaking in the 17th century, sealed the cultural reorientation of the West. At the same time, more decisive forms of government arose, centering on the many varieties of the nation-state.

Did Copernicus Copy? Through astronomical observation and mathematics, Copernicus discredited the belief that the Earth was the center of the universe. His discovery set other scientific advances in motion. However, historians have recently discovered similar findings by two Arab scholars. We do not yet know whether Copernicus copied from them or came to his conclusions independently.

Science: The New Authority. In the 16th century, scientific research followed late medieval patterns. The appearance of new instruments allowed advances in biology and astronomy. Galileo publicized Copernicus's findings and Kepler later provided more accurate reaffirmation of his work. Galileo's condemnation by the Catholic church demonstrated the difficulty traditional religion had in dealing with the new scientific attitude. Harvey explained the circulatory system of animals. The advances were accompanied by improved scientific methodology. Bacon urged the value of empirical research, and Descartes established the importance of a skeptical review of all received wisdom. The capstone to the 17th-century Scientific Revolution was Newton's argument for a framework of natural laws. He established the principles of motion, defined the forces of gravity, and refined the principles of scientific methodology. The revolution in science spread quickly among the educated. Witchcraft hysteria declined and a belief grew that people could control their environment. New attitudes toward religion resulted. Deism argued that God did not regulate natural laws. Locke stated that people could learn all that was necessary through their senses and reason. Wider assumptions about the possibility of human progress emerged. In all, science had become central to Western intellectual life, a result not occurring in other civilizations.

Absolute and Parliamentary Monarchies. The feudal balance between monarchs and nobles came undone in the 17th century. Monarchs gained new powers in warfare and tax collection. France became the West's most important nation. Its rulers centralized authority and formed a professional bureaucracy and military. The system was called absolute monarchy; Louis XIV was its outstanding example. His nobles, kept busy with social functions at court, could not interfere in state affairs. Following the economic theory of mercantilism, Louis XIV supported

measures improving internal and international trade, manufacturing, and colonial development. Similar policies occurred in Spain, Prussia, and Austria-Hungary. Absolute monarchs pushed territorial expansion; Louis XIV did so from the 1680s, as did Prussia during the 18th century. Britain and the Netherlands formed parliamentary regimes. A final English political settlement occurred in 1688 and 1689; parliament won basic sovereignty over the king. A developing political theory built on this process; it was argued that power came from the people, not from a royal divine right, and that they had the right to revolt against unjust rule.

The Nation-State. Both absolute and parliamentary monarchies shared important characteristics. They ruled peoples with a common language and culture. Ordinary people did not have a role in government, but they did feel that it should act for their interests. The many competing nation-states kept the West politically divided and at war.

In Depth: Elites and Masses. During the 17th century, the era of witchcraft hysteria ended. One explanation is that elites, no longer believing in demonic disruptions, made new efforts to discipline mass impulses. Ordinary people also altered belief patterns, becoming more open to scientific thinking. The process, for both elites and the mass of people, raises a host of questions for social historians. The elite certainly were important agents pushing change, but ordinary individuals did not blindly follow their lead. The European-style family, with its many implications for relations between family members, was an innovation by ordinary people.

The West by 1750. The great currents of change—commercialization, cultural reorientation, the rise of the nation-state—continued after 1750, producing new ramifications furthering overall transformation of the West.

Political Patterns. Political changes were the least significant. England and France continued with their previous patterns. Developments were livelier in central European states under the rule of enlightened despots. Frederick the Great of Prussia introduced greater religious freedom, expanded state economic functions, encouraged agricultural methods, promoted greater commercial coordination and greater equity, and cut back harsh traditional punishments. The major Western states continually fought each other. France and Britain fought over colonial empires; Prussia and Austria fought over land.

Enlightenment Thought and Popular Culture. The aftermath of the Scientific Revolution was a new movement, the Enlightenment, centered in France. Thinkers continued scientific research and applied scientific methods to the study of human society. They believed that rational laws could describe both physical and social behavior. New schools of thought emerged in criminology and political science. Adam Smith maintained that governments should stand back and let individual effort and market forces operate for economic advance. More generally, the Enlightenment produced a basic set of principles concerning human affairs: humans are naturally good, reason was the key to truth, intolerant or blind religion was wrong. If people were free, progress was likely. A few Enlightenment thinkers argued for more specific goals, for economic equality and the abolition of private property and for women's rights. There were other important currents of thought. Methodism demonstrated the continuing power of spiritual faith. New ideas in all fields spread through reading clubs and coffeehouses. Attitudes toward children changed to favor less harsh discipline, a sign of a general new affection between family members.

Ongoing Change in Commerce and Manufacturing. The general economic changes brought the beginnings of mass consumerism to Western society. Paid, professional entertainment as part of popular leisure also reflected the change. In agriculture, the methods of medieval times altered. New methods of swamp drainage, use of nitrogen-fixing crops, improved stock breeding, and many new cultivation techniques appeared. New World crops, like the potato, increased the food supply. The agricultural advances, along with the growth of internal and international commerce, spurred manufacturing. The domestic system of household production gave farmers additional work. Important technological innovations, like the flying shuttle in weaving, improved efficiency. After 1730, the changes in economic activity caused a rapidly growing population. Many landless individuals found jobs in manufacturing. More people lived longer, resulting in later marriages.

Innovation and Instability. Western society had become increasingly accustomed to change in commercial, cultural, and political affairs. New currents affected family structure and roused political challenges. A new version of an agricultural civilization had appeared and was ready for more change.

Global Connections: Europe and the World. As Europe changed, its outlook toward the world changed as well. Increasingly, Europeans believed they were superior to other peoples. This development had a powerful effect on both Europeans and the other civilizations they encountered.

KEY TERMS

Italian Renaissance: 14th- and 15th-century intellectual and cultural movement in Europe that challenged medieval values and instigated the modern age.

Niccolo Machiavelli: Author of *The Prince*, a realistic discussion of seizing and maintaining power.

Humanism: A focus on humanity as the center of intellectual and artistic endeavor.

Northern Renaissance: Cultural and intellectual movement of northern Europe; influenced by earlier Italian Renaissance; centered in France, the Low Countries, England, and Germany; featured greater emphasis on religion than did the Italian Renaissance.

Francis I: King of France; a Renaissance monarch; patron of the arts; imposed new controls on the Catholic church; ally of the Ottoman sultan against the Holy Roman emperor.

Johannes Gutenberg: Introduced movable type to western Europe in the 15th century; greatly expanded the availability of printed materials.

European-style family: Emerged in 15th century; involved later marriage age and a primary emphasis on the nuclear family.

Martin Luther: German Catholic monk who initiated the Protestant Reformation; emphasized the primacy of faith in place of Catholic sacraments for gaining salvation; rejected papal authority.

Protestantism: General wave of religious dissent against the Catholic church; formally began with Martin Luther in 1517.

Anglican Church: Form of Protestantism in England established by Henry VIII.

Jean Calvin: French Protestant who stressed doctrine of predestination; established center of his group in Geneva; effect included wider public education and access to government.

Catholic Reformation: Catholic response to the Protestant Reformation; reformed and revived Catholic doctrine.

Jesuits: Catholic religious order founded during the Catholic Reformation; active in politics, education, and missionary work outside of Europe.

Edict of Nantes: 1598 grant of tolerance in France to French Protestants after lengthy civil wars between Catholics and Protestants.

Thirty Years War: War from 1618 to 1648 between German Protestants and their allies against the Holy Roman emperor and Spain; caused great destruction.

Treaty of Westphalia: Ended Thirty Years War in 1648; granted right of individual rulers and cities to choose their own religion for their people; the Netherlands gained independence.

English Civil War: Conflict from 1640 to 1660; included religious and constitutional issues concerning the powers of the monarchy; ended with restoration of a limited monarchy.

Proletariat: Class of people without access to producing property; usually manufacturing workers, paid laborers in agriculture, or urban poor; product of the economic changes of the 16th and 17th centuries.

Witchcraft hysteria: 17th-century European violence reflecting uncertainties about religion and about resentment against the poor; especially affected women.

Scientific Revolution: Process culminating in Europe during the 17th century; period of empirical advances associated with the development of wider theoretical generalizations; became a central focus of Western culture.

Copernicus: Polish monk and astronomer; discredited Hellenistic belief that the sun was at the center of the universe.

Johannes Kepler: Resolved basic issues of planetary motion and accomplished important work in optics.

Galileo: Publicized Copernicus's findings; used the telescope to study moon and planets; added discoveries concerning the laws of gravity; condemned by the Catholic church for his work.

John Harvey: English physician who demonstrated the circular movement of blood in animals and the function of the heart as a pump.

René Descartes: Philosopher who established the importance of the skeptical review of all received wisdom; argued that human wisdom could develop laws that would explain the fundamental workings of nature.

Isaac Newton: English scientist; author of *Principia Mathematica*; drew various astronomical and physical observations and wider theories together in a neat framework of natural laws; established principles of motion and defined forces of gravity.

Deism: A concept of God during the Scientific Revolution; the role of divinity was limited to setting natural laws in motion.

John Locke: English philosopher who argued that people could learn everything through their senses and reason; argued that the power of government came from the people, not from the divine right of kings; people had the right to overthrow tyrants.

Absolute monarchy: Concept of government developed during the rise of the nation-state in western Europe during the 17th century; monarchs held the absolute right to direct their state.

Louis XIV: Late 17th- and early 18th-century French king who personified absolute monarchy.

Mercantilism: 17th- and 18th-century economic theory that stressed government promotion of internal and international policies to strengthen the economic power of the state.

Glorious Revolution: English political settlement of 1688 and 1689 that affirmed that parliament had basic sovereignty over the king.

Frederick the Great: Prussian king who introduced Enlightenment reforms; included freedom of religion and increased state control of economy.

Enlightenment: Intellectual movement centered in France during the 18th century; argued for scientific advance, the application of scientific methods to study human society; believed that rational laws could describe social behavior.

Adam Smith: Established new school of economic thought; argued that governments should avoid regulation of economies in favor of the free play of market forces.

Mary Wollstonecraft: Enlightenment English feminist thinker; argued that political rights should be extended to women.

Indulgences: Roman Catholic theological tenant for the remission of sins.

Predestination: The belief that God has ordained all events to come.

Parliamentary monarchy: Originated in England and Holland, 17th century, with kings partially checked by significant legislative powers in parliaments.

Frederick the Great: Prussian king of the 18th century; attempted to introduce Enlightenment reforms into Germany; built on military and bureaucratic foundations of his predecessors; introduced freedom of religion; increased state control of economy.

LESSON SUGGESTIONS

Leader Analysis	Louis XIV
Conflict Analysis	Protestants and Catholics, peasant rebellions, Glorious Revolution
Change Analysis	Renaissance, Reformation, Commercial Revolution, Scientific Revolution, Enlightenment
Societal Comparison	In Depth: Elites and Masses
Document Analysis	Controversies About Women
Dialectical Journal	Part Four Introduction

LECTURE SUGGESTIONS

Compare the ways in which the Renaissance, Reformation, and Enlightenment had an effect on the political organization of Europe. All of the movements invoked changes in popular mentality that affected political organization. The Northern Renaissance attacked the authority of the church and allowed the state to control the church, increased interest in pomp and ceremony, and produced greater interest in military conquest and exploration. The Reformation included a concept of shared authority; thus Protestant regions were less likely to develop absolute monarchies and tended to form parliamentary governments. The success of the Reformation allowed Protestant rulers to seize control of possessions of the Catholic church. The Enlightenment implied the ability of the state to intervene to benefit all citizens; it contributed the concept of progress and improvement. In politics, it led to enlightened despotism, particularly in eastern Europe, where Prussia and Austria-Hungary sponsored state reforms. It also coincided with the development of more centralized governments with more all-encompassing powers.

Trace economic changes between 1450 and 1750 and how those changes altered the social organization of western Europe. Commercialization and inflation caused significant changes. Individuals who invested gained at the expense of others who simply possessed property. Thus, the aristocracy was challenged. At the lower end of the social scale, a proletariat emerged, people whose income and wealth was separated from possession of real property. They were associated with the rise of domestic manufacturing and urbanization. The process created new social classes and social tensions. There was a wave of popular protests against poverty up to 1650. Associated with the unrest was a hysteria over witchcraft, which demonstrated a distrust of the poor as a potentially revolutionary group.

CLASS DISCUSSION SUGGESTIONS

Describe the major changes in western Europe in this era.

While remaining an agricultural society, the West became unusually commercially active and developed a strong manufacturing sector. Governments increased their powers. In intellectual life, science became the centerpiece for the first time in the history of any society. Ideas of the family and personality also altered. The changes resulted from overseas expansion and growing commercial dominance. The internal changes, such as the Renaissance and Enlightenment, were marked by considerable internal conflict, with focal points centered on the state, culture, and commerce, with support from technology. All the while, Christian unity was coming to an end.

Compare the Italian Renaissance and the Northern Renaissance.

In the Italian Renaissance, humanism, a focus on humanity as the center of endeavor, was a central focus. The Northern Renaissance, centered in France, the Low Countries, Germany, and England, spread to eastern Europe. Northern humanists were more religious than the Italians. Writers such as Shakespeare, Rabelais, and Cervantes mixed classical themes with elements of medieval popular culture. Northern rulers tried to control the church, and sponsored trading companies and colonial ventures. Interest in military conquest increased. In cultural life, classical styles replaced Gothic. Education changed to favor Greek and Roman classics, plus Christian morality.

Describe the Protestant churches that were established because of the Reformation. Define the nature of religious warfare.

Protestant churches that can trace their roots to the Reformation include Lutherans, Presbyterians, and Anglicans. Calvinists and the Anabaptists reforms also started during this era. Protestant and Catholic disputes led to a series of religious wars during the 16th and 17th centuries. In France, Calvinists and Catholics disputed until the edict of Nantes in 1598 gave Protestants tolerance. The Thirty Years War (1618-1648) pitted German and Swedish Protestants against the Holy Roman emperor and Spain. German power and prosperity did not recover for a century. The peace settlement allowed rulers and cities to choose their official religion. During the 17th century, religion was an important issue in English civil strife; most Protestants, but not Catholics, gained toleration. The long religious wars led to very limited concepts of religious pluralism. The wars also affected the European power balance and political structure.

Appraise whether the religious differences between Europeans resemble the arguments between different groups of believers in the other major world religions.

These disputes do resemble disputes and arguments of followers of the other major world religions; for instance, the differences between Hindus and Buddhists, the divisions between Shi'a and Sunnis of the Muslim faith, and the factions of the Buddhist religion.

Generalize the causes and results of the commercial revolution.

Western economic structure underwent fundamental redefinition. Greater commercialization was spurred by substantial price inflation during the 16th century. New World gold and silver forced prices up, and product demand surpassed availability. Great trading companies formed to take advantage of colonial markets; the increasing commerce stimulated manufacturing. Specialized agricultural regions emerged. All the developments stimulated population and urban growth. The prosperity was shared by all classes in western Europe, but there were victims of the changes. Commercialization created a new rural and urban proletariat that suffered from increased food prices.

Define the Scientific Revolution. Describe some of its major discoveries.

The Scientific Revolution was a period in which the ancients were challenged and proven wrong. This was primarily accomplished through use of the scientific method of inquiry. Among the major discoveries were the heliocentric theory of the universe, the Three Laws of Planetary Motion, the correct circulation of blood, the human anatomy, calculus, and mechanics. There were several key inventions, such as the telescope, alcohol thermometer, the microscope, and the mercury barometer.

Identify the elements of absolute monarchy. Trace the development of absolute monarchs.

The feudal balance between monarchs and nobles came undone in the 17th century. Monarchs gained new powers in warfare and tax collection. France became the West's most important nation. Its rulers centralized authority and formed a professional bureaucracy and military. The system was called absolute monarchy; Louis XIV was its outstanding example. His nobles, kept busy with social functions at court, could not interfere in state affairs. Similar policies occurred in Spain, Prussia, and Austria-Hungary.

Define the Enlightenment. Describe its influence on the scientific revolution.

The Enlightenment, centered in France, saw thinkers who continued Scientific Research and applied scientific methods to the study of human society. They believed that rational laws could describe both physical and social behavior.

MULTIPLE CHOICE. Choose the one alternative that best completes the statement or answers the question.

1. Which of the following was associated with the Italian Renaissance?
 - A) Shakespeare
 - B) Galileo
 - C) Vesalius
 - D) Pirandello
 - E) Niccolo Machiavelli

2. Which of the following accounts, in part, for the decline of the Italian Renaissance?
 - A) The successful invasion of Italy circa 1500
 - B) The Protestant Reformation
 - C) The invasion of the peninsula by France and Spain
 - D) The economic depression that ended artistic patronage
 - E) The rejection of humanism

3. Who was responsible for the invention of movable type in the West?
 - A) Albrecht Durer
 - B) Nicolaus Copernicus
 - C) Erasmus
 - D) Johannes Gutenberg
 - E) John Harvey

4. Which of the following was NOT associated with the founding of a Protestant church in the 16th century?
 - A) Jean Calvin
 - B) Henry VIII
 - C) Ignatius Loyola
 - D) Martin Luther
 - E) *95 Theses*

5. Which of the following statements most accurately describes the nature of popular support for Luther's religious reform movement?
 - A) Luther failed to attract the support of the German princes because he advocated the overthrow of their authority in favor of unification under the Holy Roman Empire.
 - B) German princes who turned Protestant could increase their independence from the emperor, seize church lands, and control the church in their territories.
 - C) The poor supported Luther's movement in return for Luther's promise of redistribution of land and property.
 - D) German merchants refused to support Lutheranism, because the reform movement was less favorable to money making than Catholicism.
 - E) Support for Lutheranism was uniform across the Holy Roman Empire.

6. Commodities that many European peasants and artisans around 1600 ordinarily owned included
 - A) porcelain.
 - B) pewterware.
 - C) silver.
 - D) silk screens.
 - E) several feather beds.

7. Who was the author of the scientific treatise *Principia Mathematica*?
 - A) Andreas Vesalius
 - B) Isaac Newton
 - C) John Harvey
 - D) Francis Bacon
 - E) Decartes

8. What monarch was associated with the establishment of enlightened despotism in Prussia in the middle of the 18th century?
 - A) Joseph II
 - B) Catherine the Great
 - C) William III
 - D) Frederick the Great
 - E) Louis XIV

9. What Enlightenment social scientist advocated that government avoid regulation of the economy in favor of individual initiative and market forces?
 - A) John Keynes
 - B) Jacques Turgot
 - C) Adam Smith
 - D) David Hume
 - E) John Locke

10. What crop was introduced to Europe in the 17th century and substantially improved the food supply?
 - A) Cucumbers
 - B) Peas
 - C) Millet
 - D) Potatoes
 - E) Corn

SHORT ANSWER. Write the word or phrase that best completes each statement or answers the question.

1. Renaissance culture stressed themes of _____, a focus on humankind as the center of intellectual and artistic endeavor.
2. The _____ focused in France, the Low Countries, Germany, and England, opened up after 1450.
3. In 1517 a German monk named _____ nailed a document containing 95 theses to the door of the castle church in Wittenberg.
4. The general wave of religious dissent against the Catholic Church was called _____.
5. _____, a Frenchman who established a base in the Swiss city of Geneva, insisted on God's predestination as a basic religious principle.
6. Under the _____, church councils revived Catholic doctrine and refuted key Protestant tenets.
7. The _____ trials of the 16th century reflected new resentments against the poor and new uncertainties about religious truth.
8. The reigning economic theory called _____, held that governments should promote the internal economy in order to improve tax revenues and to limit imports from other nations.
9. The English civil wars produced a final political settlement in 1688, the so-called _____, in which parliament won basic sovereignty over the king.
10. The aftermath of the Scientific Revolution spilled over into a new movement known as the _____, centered particularly in France, but with adherents throughout the Western world.

TRUE/FALSE. Write 'T' if the statement is true and 'F' if the statement is false.

1. Northern humanists were more religious than their Italian counterparts, trying to blend a concern for people with continued Christian devotion.
2. Among other things, Martin Luther argued that priests should marry.
3. Mercantilism held that natural forces determined economic developments and that these laws would provide a natural price structure without state interference.
4. Peasant desire to win greater economic security and better nutrition led to widespread adoption of the potato from the late 17th century onward.
5. There was a large growth in the number of feminist thinkers, like Mary Wollstonecraft in England, who argued that new political rights and freedoms should extend to women.
6. The Scottish philosopher Adam Smith set forth a number of invariable principles of economic behavior, based on the belief that colonies should economically enhance their mother country.
7. In England Henry VIII set up the Anglican Church, initially because of his disagreement with many of the tenets of Catholicism.
8. In Prussia, Frederick the Great, building on the military and bureaucratic organization of his predecessors, introduced greater freedom of religion while expanding the economic functions of the state.
9. Growing commercialization created the beginnings of a new proletariat in the West, people without access to wealth-producing property.
10. The period of empirical advances associated with the development of wider theoretical generalizations culminating in the 17th century was called the Scientific Revolution.

ANSWER KEY

Multiple Choice

- | | |
|------|-------|
| 1. E | 6. B |
| 2. C | 7. B |
| 3. D | 8. D |
| 4. C | 9. C |
| 5. B | 10. D |

Short Answer

1. Answer: humanism
2. Answer: Northern Renaissance
3. Answer: Martin Luther
4. Answer: Protestantism
5. Answer: Jean Calvin
6. Answer: Catholic Reformation
7. Answer: witchcraft
8. Answer: mercantilism
9. Answer: Glorious Revolution
10. Answer: Enlightenment

True/False

- | | |
|------|-------|
| 1. T | 6. F |
| 2. T | 7. F |
| 3. F | 8. T |
| 4. T | 9. T |
| 5. F | 10. T |

CHAPTER 17

TIMELINE

Insert the following events into the timeline. This should help you to compare important historical events chronologically.

end of Thirty Years War
Luther initiates Protestant Reformation
Galileo dies
Kay introduces flying shuttle to weaving
Glorious Revolution in England
Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations*
____ 1517

____ 1642

____ 1648

____ 1688-1690

____ 1733

____ 1776

TERMS, PEOPLE, EVENTS

The following terms, people, and events are important to your understanding of the chapter. Define each one on a separate sheet of paper.

absolute monarchy	Louis XIV	Boccaccio
Adam Smith	Mary Wollstonecraft	Rabelais
Anglican church	Jean Calvin	predestination
Catholic Reformation	Jesuits	Edict of Nantes
Cervantes	95 Theses	indulgences
Enlightenment	Denis Diderot	Catherine the Great
social sciences	William Shakespeare	Frederick the Great
Johannes Gutenberg	Martin Luther	Protestantism
John Kay	liberty and equality	Isaac Newton
Deism	Lutheranism	Henry VIII
Marianne Ehrmann	<i>Encyclopaedia Britannica</i>	capitalism
mercantilism	Glorious Revolution	Leonardo da Vinci
Niccolo Machiavelli	humanism	Northern Renaissance
parliamentary monarchy	Frederick the Great	Elizabeth I
Scientific Revolution	witchcraft	René Descartes
Thirty Years War	Treaty of Westphalia	Copernicus

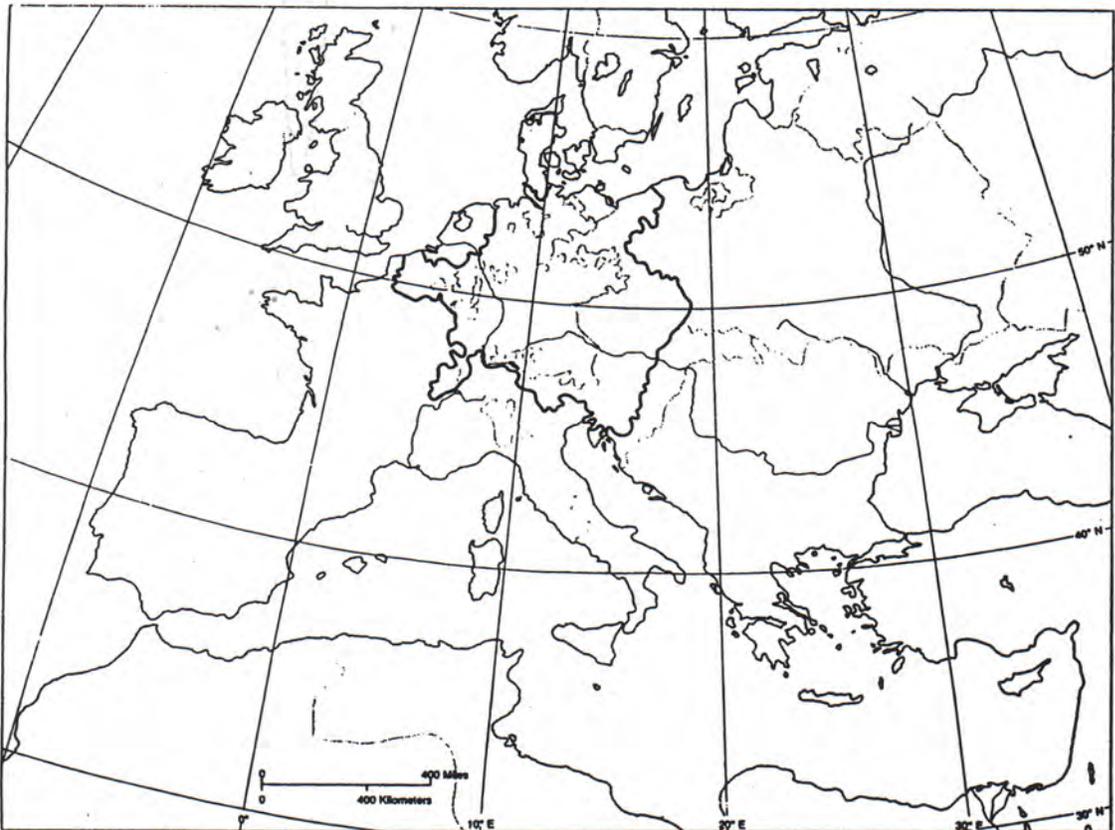
MAP EXERCISE

The following exercise is intended to clarify the geophysical environment and the spatial relationships among the important objects and places mentioned in the chapter. Locate the following places on the map.

Mark Protestant countries with a *P* and Catholic countries with a *C*.

Mark absolute monarchies with an *A* and parliamentary governments with a *P*.

Where were most Catholic countries located? Where were most Protestant nations? Is there any apparent connection between religious preference and the existence of absolute monarchy? Can you offer an explanation?



Chapter 17
The Transformation of the West

I. Introduction

- A. 1450-1750 dramatic changes
 - 1. Still agricultural
 - 2. Commercially active
 - 3. Manufacturing base
 - 4. Science at center of society
 - 5. Shifting ideas of family/nature
 - 6. Increased bureaucratization – sound familiar?
- B. Reasons for change
 - 1. Dominance of international trade
 - 2. Overseas expansion
 - 3. Combination of commerce, state, culture, and technology
 - 4. 1450-1650 – series of cultural shifts
 - 5. 1650-1750 – Scientific Revolution > Enlightenment

II. The First Big Changes: Culture and Commerce

- A. The Italian Renaissance
 - 1. Artistic movement
 - 2. Challenged medieval values/styles
 - a. Examine old truths
 - 3. Why in Italy?
 - a. Urban, commercial economy
 - b. Competitive city-states – an arts race?
 - 4. New themes
 - a. Writing in Latin
 - b. Secular subjects – love/pride
 - c. Classical/human-centered themes
 - d. Religion declined as focus
 - e. Humanism – humankind as focus of intellectual/artistic
 - 5. Political Theory – Niccolo Machiavelli
 - a. End justifies means – better to be feared than loved
 - 6. Other effects
 - a. Improved banking techniques
 - b. Merchants became more profit-seeking
 - c. Political rule based on ability to improve well-being/city's glory
 - d. Professional armies/improved tech. – conflict among city-states
 - e. Diplomacy – exchange of ambassadors
- B. The Renaissance Moves Northward
 - 1. Fall of Italian power
 - a. French/Spanish invasions
 - b. Atlantic trade routes reduced Mediterranean importance
 - 2. Spread to North – France, Germany, England
 - a. Classical art/architecture
 - b. Greek/Latin literature
 - c. Humanists wrote in vernacular – own language
 - d. Writers more popular culture – low-brow – Shakespeare
 - 1. bodily functions
 - 2. human passions
 - 3. Set new classics

3. Political Change > toward greater state power
 - a. Revenue increase > greater ceremony/pomp aka blowing \$
 - b. Kings – Francis I – patrons of arts/architecture
 - c. State-sponsored trading companies
 - d. Military conquest
 - e. Feudal/religious justifications not as important as state
4. Renaissance effects
 - a. Kings still restricted by power of local lords
 - b. Peasants not touched by Renaissance values
 - c. Economics same
 - d. Men more bravado – women more domestic
- C. Changes in Technology and Family
 1. Technological Changes
 - a. Learned from Asia
 1. Pulleys/pumps for mines
 2. Stronger iron
 - b. Printing press – Johannes Gutenberg – movable type
 1. Books helped expand Renaissance
 2. Literacy gained ground
 3. Source for new thinking
 2. Family structure
 - a. European-style family
 1. Late marriage
 2. Nuclear families not extended
 - b. Goals/reasons
 1. Limit birth/family size
 2. Husband/wife importance
 3. Linked family to property holdings – can't marry till own property
- D. The Protestant and Catholic Reformations
 1. Protestant Reformation
 - a. Martin Luther – 1517 – German monk 95 Theses
 1. Indulgences
 2. Only faith brings salvation – not Church
 3. Sacraments not important
 4. Monasticism wrong
 5. Translate Bible to vernacular
 - b. Why did people buy into Luther's views?
 1. Political Leaders
 - a. Nationalist – don't want pope's taxes
 - b. gain more power over Holy Roman Emperor
 - c. seize church lands
 - d. State control of church
 2. Ordinary People
 - a. Justification for rebellion against lords – Luther's response?
 - b. Notion of work – other careers seen as positives
 - c. Moneymaking OK
 - d. Christian bias against moneymaking – Christ's view of rich?
 2. Anglican Church
 - a. Henry VIII has marriage/fertility issues – takes his ball and goes home
 1. Women disposed of easily for political reasons
 2. Daughter Elizabeth I – Protestant
 3. Jean Calvin – Geneva, Switzerland – Predestination

- a. Priests as moral guiders
- b. Local believers participate in church administration
- c. Education to read Bible
- d. These would be your Puritans/Pilgrims with the Thanksgiving hats
- 4. Catholic Reformation – more severe or more open?
 - a. Special council meetings
 - b. Revived Catholic doctrine
 - c. Restated importance of sacraments
 - d. Tried to get rid of superstition/magical beliefs
 - e. Jesuits – politics, education, missionary work
- E. The End of Christian Unity in the West
 - 1. Series of religious wars
 - a. Germany – Thirty Years War – 1618 German Protestants vs. Holy Roman Emperor
 - 1. Destroyed German power/population
 - 2. Treaty of Westphalia 1648 – princes can choose
 - b. English Civil War – 1640s
 - 1. Religious problems combined with...
 - 2. Parliament wants power
 - 2. Effects of Religious Wars
 - a. Limited acceptance of religious pluralism
 - b. Religious doubts? Wait a second...there's more than one way to see God?
 - c. Shift in power – France, England, Netherlands up, Spain/Italy down
 - d. Philosophical changes
 - 1. Less connection between God and nature
 - 2. Focus on family life – love husband/woman
 - e. Women's Rights
 - 1. More emphasis on happy marriage
 - a. Emphasis on affection
 - 2. But...no more convents, fewer options – must get married
 - f. Growing literacy
- F. The Commercial Revolution
 - 1. New world economy – greater commercialization
 - a. Increased trade
 - b. New goods
 - 2. Causes
 - a. Increased inflation
 - b. Import of gold and silver – prices up
 - c. New wealth needs new products
 - d. Borrowing cheap – companies take more risks – easier to pay back
 - e. Great trading companies
 - 1. New profits
 - 2. New managerial skills
 - 3. Colonial markets
 - a. Agricultural specialty areas – not just self-sufficient
 - 1. Gradual switch to commercial farming
 - b. Specialization in villages/cities
 - 4. Increased purchasing power of ordinary citizens
 - a. 1600 West 5x as much as S. European
 - b. Furniture, wine
- G. Social Protest
 - 1. Growing proletariat – people without access to property
 - a. Population growth/inflation – had to sell property

- b. Became manufacturers
 - c. Became paid laborers
 - d. Cities – beggars/wandering poor
2. Popular protest results
 - a. Demanded protection from poverty/loss of property
 3. Effects of 17th century protests
 - a. Social tension
 - b. United peasants through songs, common causes
 4. Witchcraft persecution – 17th century
 - a. Europe/New England
 - b. Method of blaming poor
 - c. Conflict about family/role of women

III. Science and Politics: The Next Phase of Change

A. Scientific Revolution

1. Affected intellectual life
2. Promoted change in popular outlook

B. Did Copernicus Copy?

1. Copernicus – heliocentric theory – new thinking – proved Greeks
2. Copied from Muslims or Chinese, Indian, Mayan or independent?
3. Science becomes more a focus of Europe than anywhere else

C. Science: The New Authority

1. Scientific research can overrule/test existing theories
2. Galileo – conflict w/ Church over laws of gravity
3. William Harvey – circulatory system around heart
4. Rene Descartes – human reason can develop laws – accept nothing
5. 1687 – Isaac Newton – Principia Mathematica – summarized theories/observations
 - a. Laws of motion, gravity
 - b. Rational hypothesis + generalizations based on experiments
 - c. Laws not blind faith
6. Effects
 - a. Lectures/manuals for layman
 - b. Witchcraft seen as ridiculous
 - c. People control/calculate environment
 - d. Doctors based more on scientific diagnosis – no more nutjobs
 - e. Lost and found section of newspaper – huh?
 - f. Attacks on religion
 1. miracles don't make sense
 2. Deism – great clockmaker in the sky
 3. John Locke – faith irrelevant – jus need senses/reason
7. Why is this unique?
 - a. China/Muslim had science for practical reasons
 - b. Europe – more pure science, understanding world
 - c. West as center of advancement

D. Absolute and Parliamentary Monarchies

1. Feudal monarchies come to end
 - a. Nobles lose influence after wars
 - b. Heavy wars require more taxes/better administration
2. Absolute Monarchy
 - a. Modeled after France
 1. Parliament doesn't meet
 2. Blew up castles

- 3. Bureaucracy from merchants/lawyers
 - 4. Appointed representatives to provinces
 - 5. Professionalized army
 - a. formal training officers – no longer nobility
 - b. uniforms and support
 - c. military hospitals/pensions – Hotel des Invalides
 - 6. King Louis XIV – “I am the state”
 - a. Patron of arts – government has cultural role
 - b. Versailles – keep nobles busy
 - c. Mercantilism – protect economy of nation
 - 1. Reduce internal tariffs
 - 2. Support manufacturing
 - 3. Limit imports from other nations – lose \$
 - a. Heavy import taxes
 - b. Need colonies for natural resources/market
 - b. Borrowed in Spain, Prussia (Germany today), Austria-Hungary (Hapsburg)
 - 1. Focus on military, expansion/protection
 - 3. Parliamentary Monarchy
 - a. Britain/Netherlands
 - b. Central state + parliamentary
 - c. England – civil wars – Glorious Revolution
 - 1. Parliament sovereign over king (slowly becomes figurehead)
 - 2. Meets regularly
 - 4. Changing political theory
 - a. John Locke
 - a. Power from people
 - b. Social contract between state/people to protect property
 - b. Rousseau – right to protest
 - c. Notions of limits to central authority
- E. The Nation State
- 1. Common culture/language
 - 2. Loyalty linked by cultural/political bonds
 - 3. Citizens believed gov’t should act for their interests
 - a. France – bad harvest – state should do something
 - 4. Kept Europe divided and often at war

IV. The West by 1750

- A. Political Patterns – became stagnant
 - 1. England – parliamentary routine – fight for power
 - 2. France – unable to tax nobles, church
 - 3. Central Europe – greater change
 - a. Prussia – Frederick the Great – enlightened despot
 - 1. Greater religious freedom
 - 2. Better agriculture – potato
 - 3. Commercial coordination
 - 4. Harsh punishments cut back
 - 4. Continued war – link between states and war
- B. Enlightenment Thought and Popular Culture
 - 1. France and Western Europe
 - a. Applying scientific thought to human society
 - 1. Rational laws to describe social/physical behavior
 - a. Criminologists – criminals should be rehabilitated

b. Political scientists – careful constitutions to govern best

c. Economics

1. Adam Smith – Wealth of Nations

a. Competition good

b. Government avoid regulation

c. Let initiative and market forces work

d. Denis Diderot – Encyclopedie

2. Basic principles of human affairs

a. Humans good

b. Educated to be better

c. Religions that rely on blind faith are bad – attacked Catholic church

d. Progress possible if people set free

3. Feminist thinkers

a. Salons

b. Mary Wollstonecraft – new political rights for women

c. Journals written by women for women

d. Men to blame for women's lowly position

4. Changes in habits/beliefs

a. Reading clubs/salons

b. Treat kids nicer

1. Less swaddling – think Singapore burrito of my kids

2. Educational toys/books

c. Love between family members

d. Emotional bond in marriage – what a crazy thought

1. Move away from arranged marriages

C. Ongoing Change in Commerce and Manufacturing

1. Purchasing – more processed products

2. Entertainment – pay for live entertainment – status improves

3. New agriculture – 3 fold not as effective

a. Drain swamps

b. Technology – fertilizer, seed drills, stockbreeding

c. Potato – improved food supply, delay due to Bible

4. Increased manufacturing – colonial trade + internal commerce

a. Domestic system – done in homes, collected individually

b. Replaced by factories – moving toward Industrial Revolution

c. Manufacturers begin organizing labor – how best to make money

5. Capitalism – invest in funds for profit

6. Population increase

D. Innovation and Instability

1. Changes in stronger gov'ts that supported economics

2. Reevaluation of family/children's roles

a. Children newly empowered, grow up to question system

3. Political roles – enlightenment – what is my place in gov't

4. Unusual agricultural society – changes in commercial, cultural and political world

V. Global Connections

A. 1450 Christianity makes them superior, but why do other civilizations have better cities/econom

B. 1750 – believed their rational thought better than superstitions of others

1. Most civilizations backward

2. How cute – noble savage and exotic animals

C. Changed views of Europe and others toward selves

Chapter
17a



The
Transformation of
the West
(1450 – 1750)

The Renaissance and Reformation

Between the 1300s and 1500s, Europe experienced a period of cultural rebirth known as the Renaissance. During the same period, the Protestant Reformation and the Scientific Revolution reshaped European civilization.

What was the Renaissance?

- Time of “rebirth” after period of disorder and disunity of Medieval Ages.
- The Renaissance was a time of creativity and change in many areas—political, social, economic, and cultural. *Perhaps most important, however, were the changes that took place in the way people viewed themselves and their world.*
- Renaissance thinkers explored the human experience in the here and now. They emphasized *individual achievement*.
- The Renaissance ideal was the person with talent in many fields.
- A spirit of adventure and curiosity led people to explore new worlds.

Why did the Renaissance Begin in Italy?

The Renaissance was marked by a new interest in the culture of ancient Rome. Italy had been the center of the Roman empire.

The cities of Italy had survived the Middle Ages and grown into prosperous centers of trade and manufacturing.

A wealthy merchant class in the Italian city-states stressed education and individual achievement and spent lavishly on the arts.

Florence produced an amazing number of gifted poets, artists, architects, scholars, and scientists.

Renaissance Italy



The Renaissance in Italy

- The **Medici** family were bankers and merchants and became one of the wealthiest and most powerful families in Florence.
- **Cosimo dé Medici** gained control of the Florentine government in 1434.
- Cosimo's grandson, **Lorenzo "the Magnificent"** was a clever politician and generous **patron** of the arts.



Giovanni di' Medici,
founder of the Medici bank.



*Cosimo I de' Medici in
Armour by Agnolo
Bronzino.*

Humanism

At the heart of the Italian Renaissance was an intellectual movement known as **humanism**.

Humanism was based on the study of classical culture and focused on worldly subjects rather than on religious issues.

Humanists studied the **humanities** (grammar, rhetoric, poetry, and history), the subjects taught in ancient Greece and Rome. They believed that education should stimulate creativity and develop the individual.

Francesco Petrarch assembled a library of Greek and Roman manuscripts.

The Impact of the Printing Press

Visual Source Documents 1 & 2



Document 1



Document 2

2 Renaissance Artists and Writers Explored New Themes and Techniques

- Writers wrote self-help books to help ambitious men and women rise in the Renaissance world.
- Painters developed realistic style, learned rules of **perspective**, used shading to make objects look round and real, studied human anatomy, and used live models.
- Portraits of well-known people to reflect individual achievement.
- Architects rejected Gothic style and adopted columns, domes, and arches that had been favored by the Greeks and Romans.

Architecture

- Rejected Gothic style as disorderly.
- Returned to Classical style with columns, arches, and domes.
- **Filippo Brunelleschi** created a majestic dome for the cathedral in Florence, modeled after the Pantheon in Rome.



Florence
Cathedral

Three Geniuses of Renaissance Art

LEONARDO

Made sketches of nature and of models

Dissected corpses to learn how the human body worked

Masterpieces include *Mona Lisa* and *The Last Supper*

Studied botany, anatomy, optics, music, architecture, and engineering

Made sketches for flying machines and undersea boats

MICHELANGELO

Talented sculptor, engineer, painter, architect, and poet

Sculpted the *Pieta* and statue of David

Painted huge mural to decorate the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in Rome

Designed the dome for St. Peter's Cathedral in Rome

RAPHAEL

Studied the works of Michelangelo and Leonardo

Paintings blended Christian and classical styles

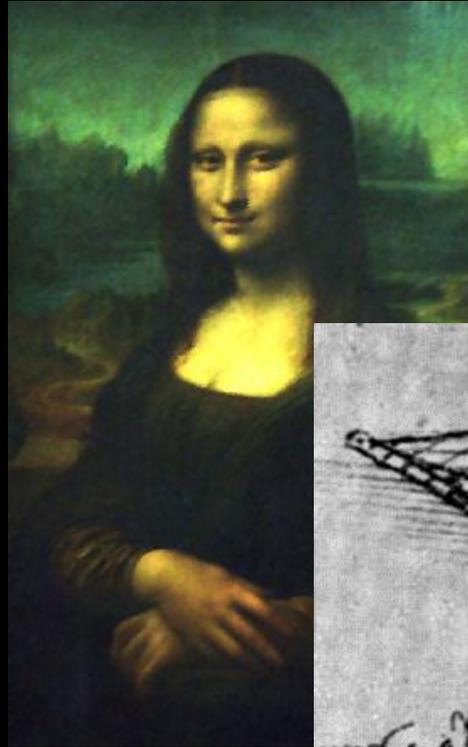
Best known for paintings of the Madonna, the biblical mother of Jesus

Three Geniuses of Renaissance Art

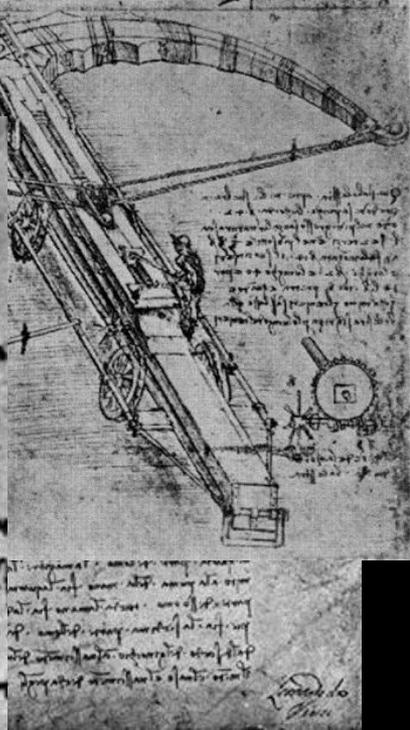
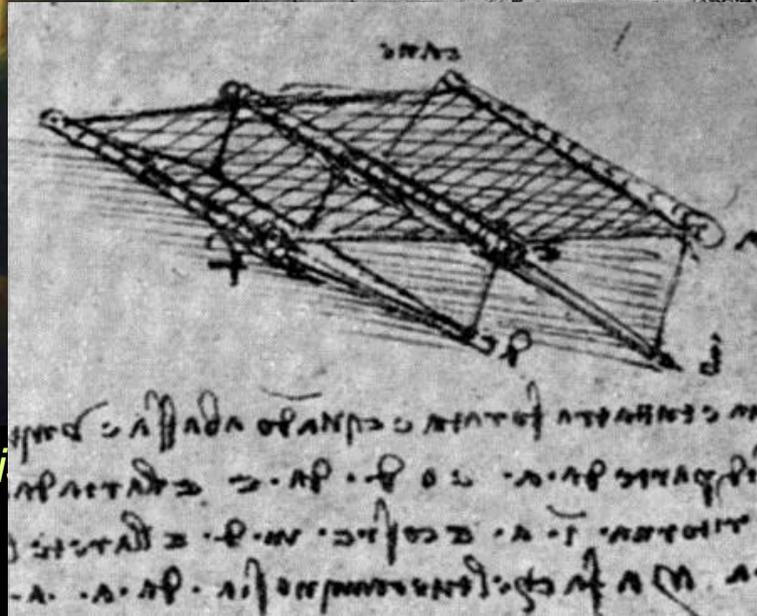
- Leonardo da Vinci was an accomplished painter and inventor.



Da Vinci self-portrait



Mona Lisa



Three Geniuses of Renaissance Art

- **Leonardo da Vinci** was an accomplished painter and inventor.
- **Michelangelo** was a many-sided genius – sculptor, engineer, painter, architect, and poet.



ssance Art



giuli

- **Raphael** painted works that *The School of Athens* blended Christian and classical styles.

Raphael's
Madonna
and Child



The Impact of the Printing Press

Visual Source Documents 3 & 4

**Ein schönes tractlein von dem
Göelichen/vñ römischen Abblas.vffs gegewür/
tig Jübel jar/verzt zu Rom/gemacht durch
ein vngelärten Leyen. XV. XXV.**



A briefe and true re-
port of the new found land of Virginia: of
the commodities there found and to be vsed, as well mar-
chantable, as others for victuall, building and other necessa-
rie vses for those that are and shalbe the planters there; and of the na-
ture and manners of the naturall inhabitants: Discouered by the
English Colony there sated by Sir Richard Greinuite Knight in the
yeere 1585. which remained vnder the gouernment of Rafe Lane Esqui-
er, one of her Maiesties Equieres, during the space of twelue monethes: as
the speciall charge and direction of the Honourable SIR
WALTER RALEIGH Knight, Lord Warden of
the stanneries; who therein hath bene fauou-
red and authorized by her Maiestic and
her letters patents:

Directed to the Aduenturers, Fauourers,
and Welwillers of the action, for the inhabi-
ting and planting there:

By Thomas Hariot; seruant to the abouenamed
Sir Walter, a member of the Colony, and
there employed in discouering,



Imprinted at London 1588.

Italian Renaissance Writers



- **Baldassare Castiglione** wrote *The Book of the Courtier* describing the manners, skills, learning, & virtues a courtier should have.
- The ideal courtier was a well-educated, well-mannered aristocrat, who mastered many fields from poetry to music to sports, while avoiding extremes.
- Men should be athletics, good at games, play a musical instrument, know literature and history.
- Women are a balance to men and should be graceful and kind, lively, but reserved, and beautiful, “for outer beauty is the true sign of inner goodness.”

Political Theory during the Renaissance



- **Niccolò Machiavelli** wrote a political treatise called *The Prince*, which was published in 1513.
- In it he used realism to discuss how rulers should seize and maintain power using Greek and Roman examples.
- In an age of ruthless politics, he stressed that the ends justified the means, urging rulers to use whatever methods were necessary to achieve their goals.
- Getting results were more important than keeping promises.

Detail of 1500 portrait of Niccolò → Machiavelli by Santi di Tito

The Renaissance Moves North

- The Renaissance began in northern Europe 100 years later than in Italy. It began in Flanders and later spread to Spain, France, Germany, and England.
- **Albrecht Dürer**, traveled to Italy to study. Through his art and essays, he helped spread the Renaissance to Germany the “German Leonardo,” applied Italian painting methods to **engravings**.

The Cannon, Dürer's largest etching, 1518



Self-Portrait (1500) by Albrecht Dürer



Artists of the Northern Renaissance

- Flemish painters **Jan & Huber van Eyck** painted townspeople in rich, realistic detail and developed oil paint.
- **Pieter Bruegel** used it in vibrant colors to portray peasant life, rather than religious themes. His work influenced later Flemish artists.

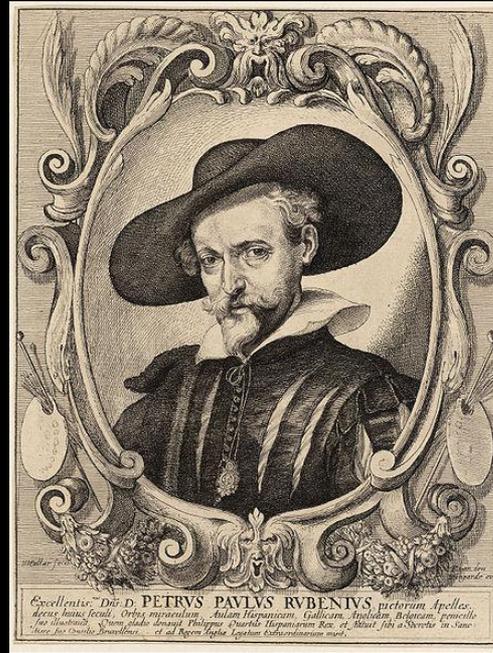


↑ Bruegel's *The Painter and The Connoisseur* drawn c. 1565 is thought to be a self-portrait

← *The Peasant Wedding*, 1567

Artists of the Northern Renaissance (cont.)

- **Peter Paul Reubens** blended the realistic traditions of Flemish painters with the classical themes and artistic freedom of the Italian Renaissance.



← *Equestrian Portrait of the Duke of Lerma*, 1603, Museo del Prado, Madrid. Painted during Rubens's first trip to Spain in 1603.



↑ *The Raising of the Cross*, 1610–11. Central panel. Cathedral of Our Lady, Antwerp.

Northern Humanists

Like their Italian counterparts, northern humanists stressed education and classical learning. At the same time, they believed that the revival of ancient learning should be used to bring about religious and moral reforms.

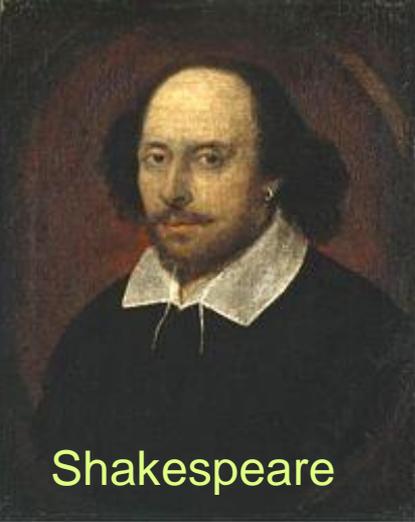
Two humanists:

- **Desiderius Erasmus** called for reform of the church and for the Bible to be translated from Latin into the **vernacular**, or language of ordinary people.
- Thomas More pressed for social reform and wrote of a **utopian** society.



Woodcut by Ambrosius Holbein for a 1518 edition of Thomas More's *Utopia*.

Writers of the Northern Renaissance



Shakespeare



Don Quijote by Honoré Daumier (1868)

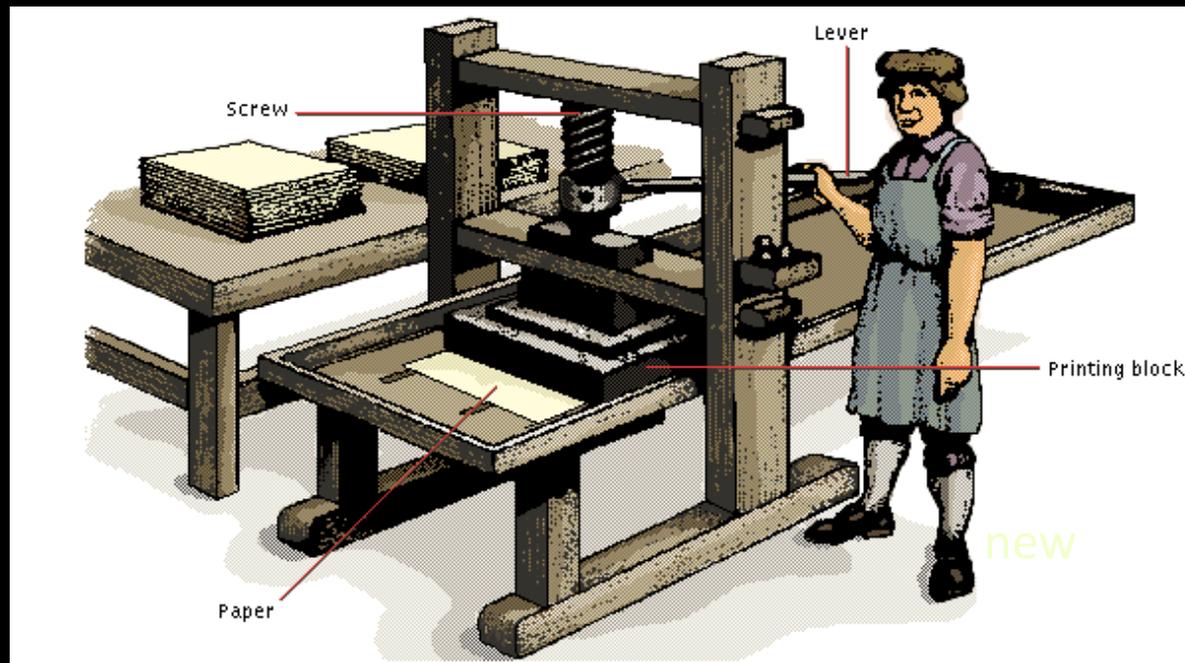
RABELAIS	SHAKESPEARE	CERVANTES
<p>French humanist who was a monk, physician, Greek scholar, and author</p> <p>Offered opinions on religion, education, and other subjects in <i>Gargantua and Pantagruel</i>.</p>	<p>English poet who was the towering figure of Renaissance literature</p> <p>Wrote 37 plays that are still performed around the world</p> <p>His love of words vastly enriched the English language.</p>	<p>Spanish author who wrote <i>Don Quixote</i>, which mocks romantic notions about medieval chivalry</p>

A printing revolution took place when:

- In 1450, **Johannes Gutenberg** invented the printing press, which made the mass publication and circulation of literature possible in Europe.
- Derived from the presses farmers used to make olive oil, the first printing press used a heavy screw to force a printing block against the paper below. An operator worked a lever to increase and decrease the pressure of the block against the paper.
- In 1456, he printed the first complete edition of the Bible.
- Movable type was developed twenty years later.

IMPACT:

- Printed books were cheaper & easier to make.
- With books more readily available, more people learned to read.
- Readers gained access to expanded knowledge and ideas.



The Impact of the Printing Press

Written Source Document 1

Matteo Ricci on Chinese Printing

“From such a block a skilled printer can make copies with incredible speed, turning out as many as fifteen hundred copies in a single day. Chinese printers are so skilled in engraving these blocks, that no more time is consumed in making one of them than would be required by one of our printers in setting up a form of type and making the necessary corrections. This scheme of engraving wooden blocks is well adapted for the large and complex nature of the Chinese characters, but I do not think it would lend itself very aptly to our European type which could hardly be engraved upon wood because of its small dimensions.”

- ***Is Ricci saying that Chinese block printing was in general a more efficient way of printing than Europe’s use of movable type, or just that it was better for the Chinese?***
- ***If block printing was as good as Ricci says here, why do you suppose that printing with metal movable type became the method used all over the world, not just in Europe?***

The Protestant Reformation

In the 1500s, calls for reform unleashed forces that would shatter Christian unity. The movement is known as the Protestant Reformation.

People who joined the movement for reform called themselves Protestants, for those who “protested” papal authority.



St. Peter's Basilica from the River Tiber. The iconic dome dominates the skyline of Rome.

Abuses in the Church

Beginning in the late Middle Ages, the Church had become increasingly caught up in worldly affairs.

- Popes competed with Italian princes for political power.
- Popes fought long wars to protect the Papal States against invaders.
- Some clergy promoted the sale of **indulgences**.
- Popes led lavish lifestyles and spent a great deal of money on the arts.
- The Church increased fees for services such as weddings and baptisms to finance worldly projects.

Luther's Protest



Martin Luther in 1529
by Lucas Cranach

- In 1517, priest Johann Tetzel offered indulgences in exchange for donations made for the rebuilding of the Cathedral of St. Peter in Rome.
- **Martin Luther** drew up his **95 Theses** in protest.
- The church called on Luther to **recant** his views and excommunicated him when he refused.

Luther's Teachings

- Salvation was achieved by faith alone.
Luther rejected Church doctrine that good deeds were necessary for salvation.
- The Bible is the sole source of religious truth.
Luther denied other authorities, such as Church councils or the pope.
- Advocated a “priesthood of the saints” and allowed clergy to marry.
Luther rejected the idea that priests and Church officials had special powers.
- Translated the Bible into the vernacular so everyone had access to it and advocated schools for girls.
- Banned indulgences, confession, pilgrimages, and prayers to saints.
- Became the start of the Lutheran Church.

Spread of Lutheran Ideas

Luther's ideas spread quickly in northern Germany and Scandinavia.

- Many clergy saw Luther's reforms as the answer to Church corruption.
- German princes hoped to throw off the rule of both the Church and the Holy Roman emperor.
- Germans supported Luther because of feelings of national loyalty.
- In 1524, the Peasants' Revolt in Germany was an attempt to end serfdom, but violence caused Luther to denounce the rebellion and it was put down.
- The **Peace of Augsburg** in 1555, restored peace by allowing princes to choose their religion.

John Calvin

The most important Protestant reformer to follow Martin Luther was John Calvin.

- Calvin followed most of the teachings of Martin Luther, such as the idea that salvation was by faith and the Bible was the only source of truth.
- He also preached **predestination**, the idea that God had long ago determined who would gain salvation.
- In 1541, Calvin set up a theocracy in Geneva. A **theocracy** is a government run by Church leaders.
- Calvinist stressed hard work, discipline, thrift, honesty, morality.



John Calvin - Engraving from the original oil painting in the University Library of Geneva

Spread of Calvinism

- In several of these countries, Calvinists faced opposition and persecution from other religious groups.
- Reformers from all over Europe visited Geneva and returned home to spread Calvinist ideas.
- By the late 1500s, Calvinism had taken root in Germany, France, the Netherlands, England, and Scotland.
- In several of these countries, Calvinists faced opposition and persecution from other religious groups.
- In Germany, Calvinist battled Catholics & Lutherans.
- In France, Calvinists, called **Huguenots**, battled Catholics for 30 years for control of the government.
- In the Netherlands Calvinists formed the Dutch Reform Church.
- In Scotland, John Knox led a religious rebellion and overthrew Catholic Queen. Then they formed the Scottish Presbyterian Church.

The Impact of the Printing Press

Written Source Document 3

John Foxe on William Tyndale

“He perceived that it was not possible to establish the lay people in any truth, except the Scriptures were so plainly laid before their eyes in their mother tongue that they might see the meaning of the text; for else, whatsoever truth should be taught them, the enemies of the truth would quench it, either with reasons of sophistry, and traditions of their own making, founded without all ground of Scripture; or else juggling with the text, expounding it in such a sense as it were impossible to gather of the text, if the right meaning thereof were seen.”

- ***How do you suppose people in Europe gained their sense of “truth,” especially about religious and philosophical matters, before the age of printing and mass literacy?***
- ***What do you suppose a devout Catholic would have said about Foxe’s line here about “reasons of sophistry, and traditions of their own making”?***

Reformation Ideas Spread

As the Reformation continued, hundreds of new Protestant sects sprang up. These sects often had ideas that were even more radical than those of Luther and Calvin.

One radical group, the **Anabaptists**, rejected infant baptism, arguing they are too young to accept the Christian faith.

- Some Anabaptists wanted to abolish private property.
- Others wanted use violence to speed up judgment day.
- Most called for religious tolerance and separation of Church and state.

Today, Baptists, Quakers, Mennonites, and Amish trace ancestry to the Anabaptists.

The English Reformation



King Henry VIII of England

- English King **Henry VIII**, first opposed to Protestants, and was awarded the title “Defender of the Faith.”
- In 1528, he sought to **annul** his marriage of 18 years to Catherine of Aragon, since Catholic law forbid divorce.
- He wanted to marry Anne Boleyn in hopes of having a son.
- The pope refused Henry’s request.
- Henry took the Church from the pope’s control and created the Church of England, making himself its head.

The English Reformation

- Eventually he married four more times, but only had one son, Edward.
- Edward became king at age 10 when Henry VIII died, but died in his teens.
- Protestant King Edward VI brought Protestant reforms to England.
- Mary Tutor, Catherine's daughter, succeeded him and reinstated the Catholic Church in England.
- Queen Mary had hundreds of English Protestants burned at the stake.
- Queen Elizabeth
- When she died, **Elizabeth I**, Anne Boleyn's daughter became Queen and forged a compromise between Protestants and Catholics.
- She then reformed the Church of England.

The Catholic Reformation

In response to the Protestant Reformation, Pope Paul III led a vigorous reform movement within the Catholic Church.

Pope Paul III set out to revive the moral authority of the Church and roll back the Protestant tide. To accomplish these goals, he:

- Called the **Council of Trent** to establish the direction that reform should take;
- Strengthened the Inquisition;
- Recognized a new religious order, the **Jesuits**, founded by Ignatius of Loyola, to combat heresy and spread the Catholic faith.

Teresa of Avila set up a new order of nuns, which lived in isolation and dedicated themselves to prayer and meditation.

Widespread Persecution

During this period of heightened religious passion, both Catholics and Protestants fostered intolerance.

Catholics killed Protestants and Protestants killed Catholics.

Between 1450 and 1750, tens of thousands of people, mostly women, died as victims of witch hunts to combat “magic” linked to heresy, believed to come from the devil.

In some places, Jews were forced to live in **ghettos**, or separate quarters of the city. In other places, they were expelled from Christian lands and their books and synagogues were burned.



Causes and Effects of the Protestant Reformation

Immediate Effects	Long-Term Effects
<p>Peasants' Revolt</p> <p>Founding of Lutheran, Calvinist, Anglican, Presbyterian, and other Protestant churches</p> <p>Weakening of Holy Roman Empire</p> <p>Luther calls for Jews to be expelled from Christian lands</p>	<p>Religious wars in Europe</p> <p>Catholic Reformation</p> <p>Strengthening of the Inquisition</p> <p>Jewish migration to Eastern Europe</p> <p>Increased anti-semitism</p>

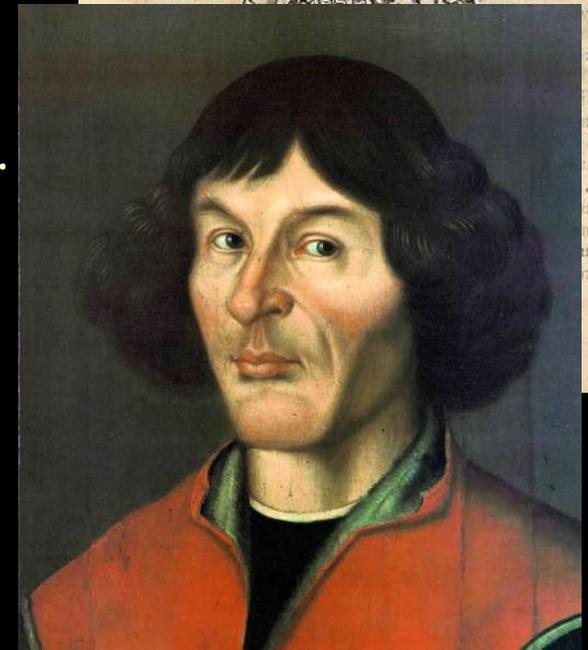
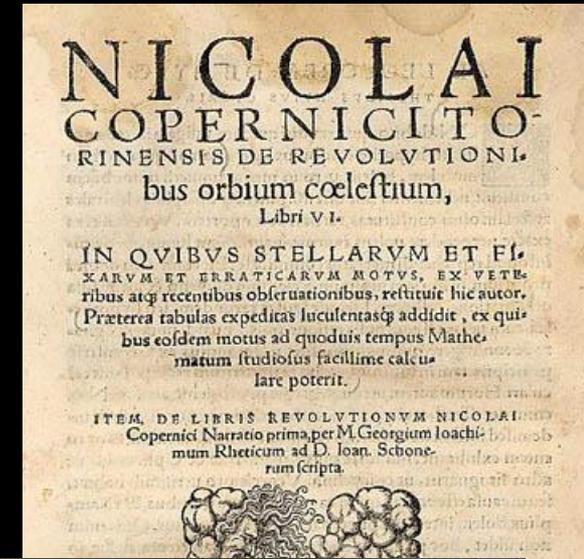
Major European Religions about 1600



The Scientific Revolution

During the Scientific Revolution, startling discoveries changed the way Europeans viewed the physical world.

- Until the mid-1500s, Europeans accepted **Ptolemy's** theory, that the Earth was the center of the universe. This theory matched the teachings of the Church.
- In 1543, **Nicolaus Copernicus** proposed a **heliocentric**, or sun-centered, model of the universe.
- In the late 1500s, **Tycho Brahe** set up an observatory and provided evidence to support Copernicus' theory.
- **Johannes Kepler** supported Copernicus' theory and proposed that each planet moved around the sun in an oval-shaped orbit called an ellipse.
- **Galileo Galilei** built a telescope and confirmed the heliocentric model. This discovery caused an uproar and Galileo was tried before the Inquisition.



Nicolaus Copernicus

Ptolemy's Geocentric View

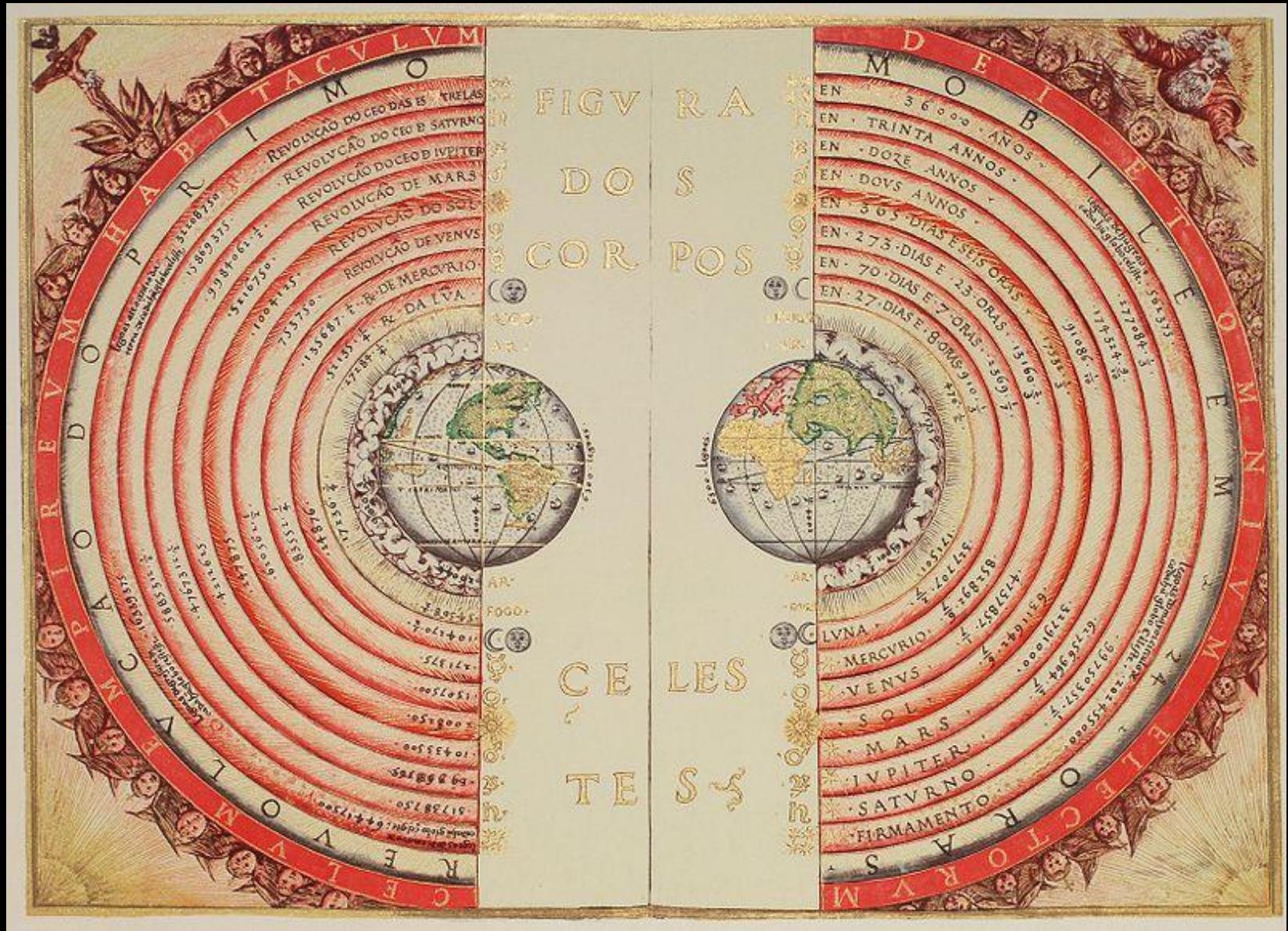


Figure of the heavenly bodies — An illustration of the Ptolemaic geocentric system by Portuguese cosmographer and cartographer Bartolomeu Velho, 1568 (Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris)

Heretical Ideas

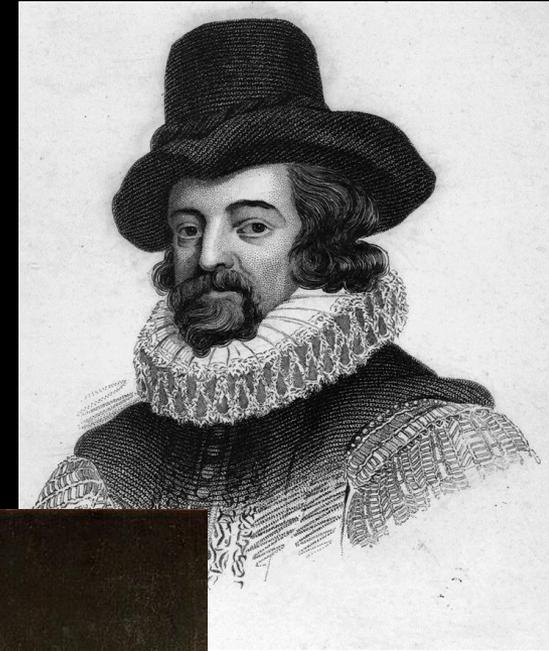


Portrait of Galileo Galilei
by Giusto Sustermans

- Galileo's support for Copernicus's ideas was controversial when a majority of philosophers and astronomers still supported the geocentric view of the universe.
- After 1610, he began publicly supporting the heliocentric view.
- In 1616, the Church condemned him for challenging the idea that the heavens were fixed and perfect and warned him to abandon his support for it.
- In 1632, he defended his views in his most famous work, *Dialogue Concerning the Two Chief World Systems*.
- In 1633, he was tried before the Inquisition and forced to withdraw his "heresies" and spent the rest of his life under house arrest.

A New Scientific Method

- Francis Bacon and René Descartes rejected Aristotle's scientific assumptions that truth is known at the beginning.
- Bacon stressed experimentation and observation.
- Descartes human reasoning leads to understanding and said, "I think, therefore I am."



Francis Bacon

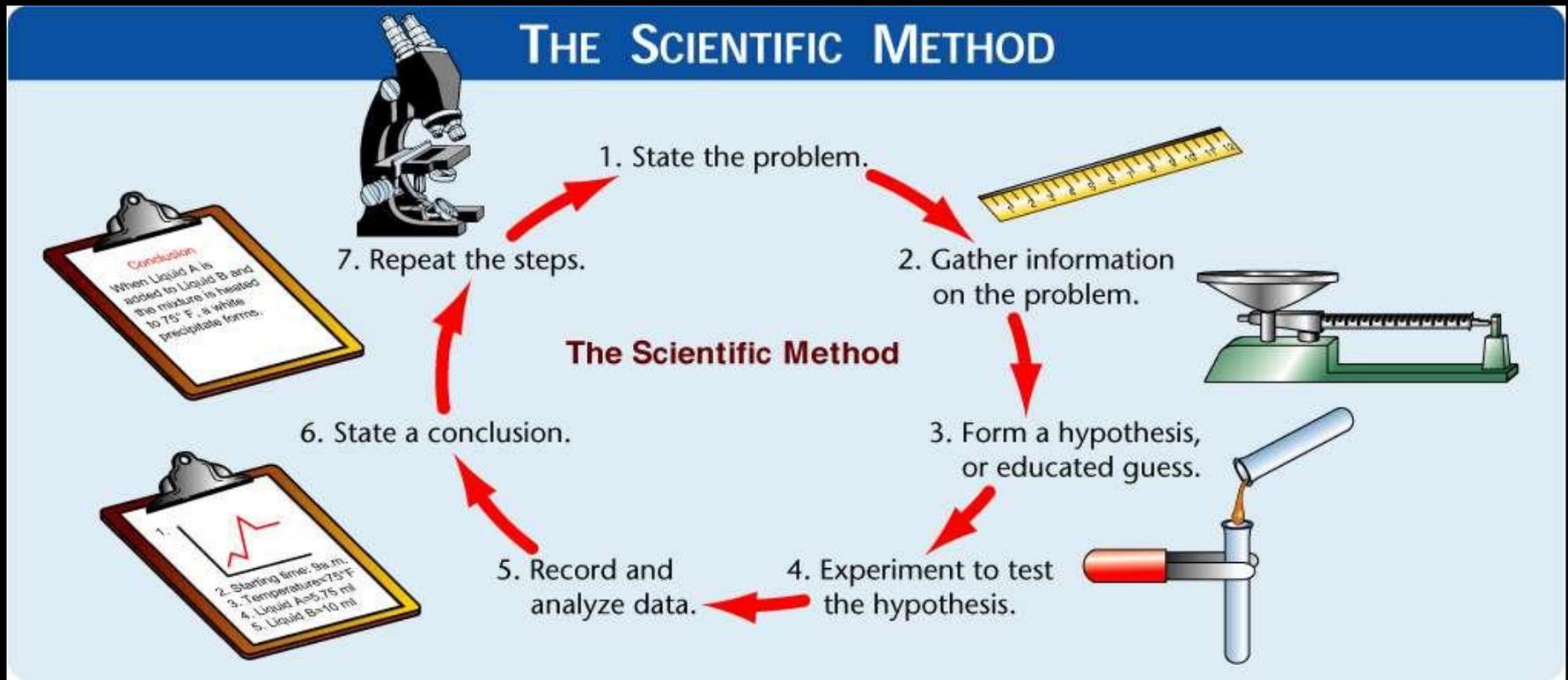


René
Descartes

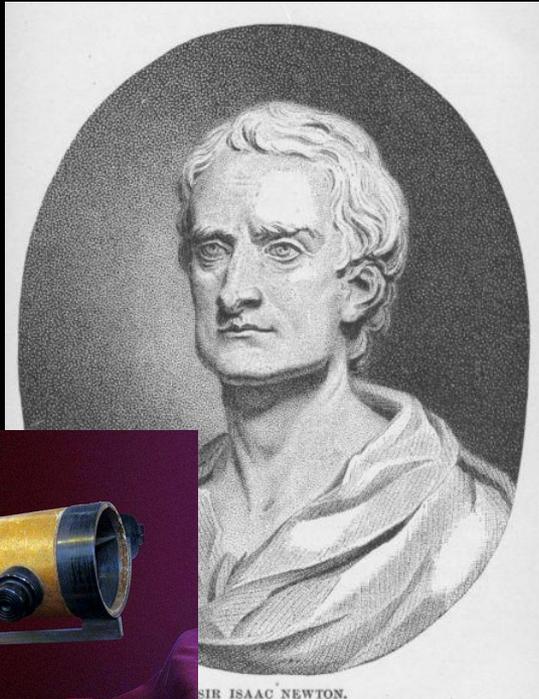
A New Scientific Method (cont.)

This new approach to science depended on observation & experimentation.

- A **hypothesis** is a possible explanation for an observed reaction.
- This is then tested with more observation and experimentation, from which scientific laws are developed.
- After reaching conclusions, it is retested repeatedly.
- This step-by-step process became known as the **scientific method**.

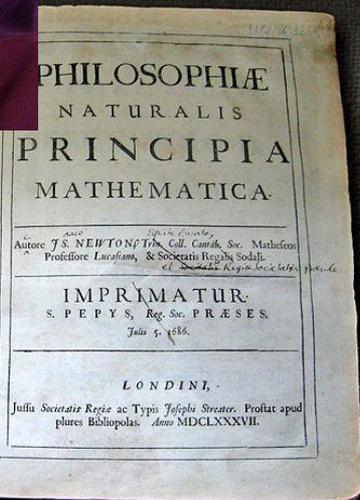


Newton Ties It All Together



The 1500s and 1600s saw breakthroughs in many branches of science.

- **Isaac Newton** discovered the force that keeps the planets moving around the sun – **gravity**.
- In 1687, he published *Mathematical Principals of Natural Philosophy*, explaining that all motion in the universe can be measured and explained mathematically.
- Linked physics and astronomy and led to the development of calculus.

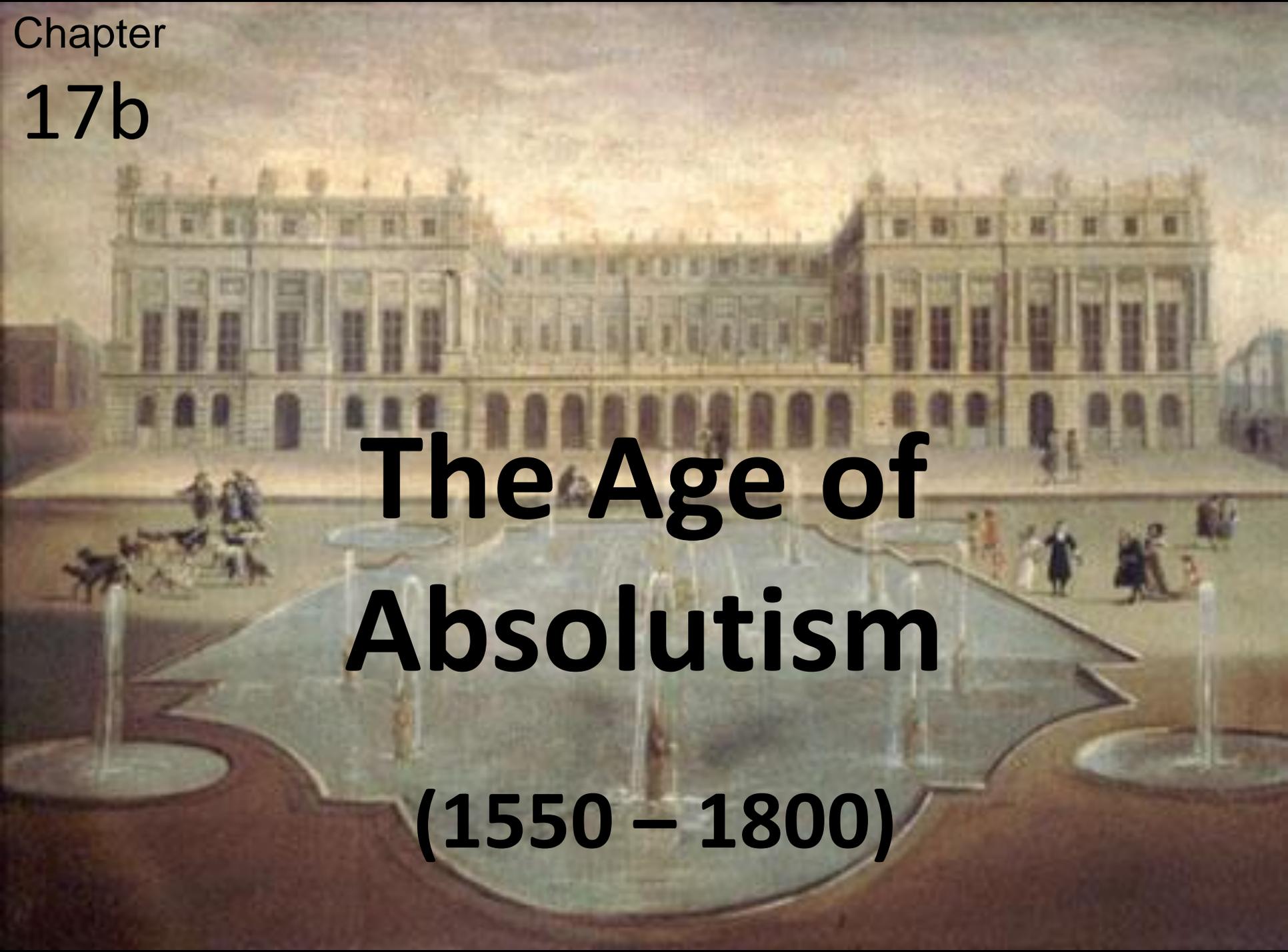


Other Scientific Advances

- **Robert Boyle** distinguished between individual elements and chemical compounds and explained the effect of temperature and pressure on gases.
- **Andreas Vesalius** published the first accurate and detailed study on human anatomy.
- **Ambroise Paré** developed a more effective ointment for infections and developed a technique for closing wounds with stitches.
- **William Harvey**, described the circulation of the blood through veins and arteries for the first time.
- **Anthony van Leeuwenhoek** perfected the microscope and became the first human to see cells and microorganisms.

Chapter

17b

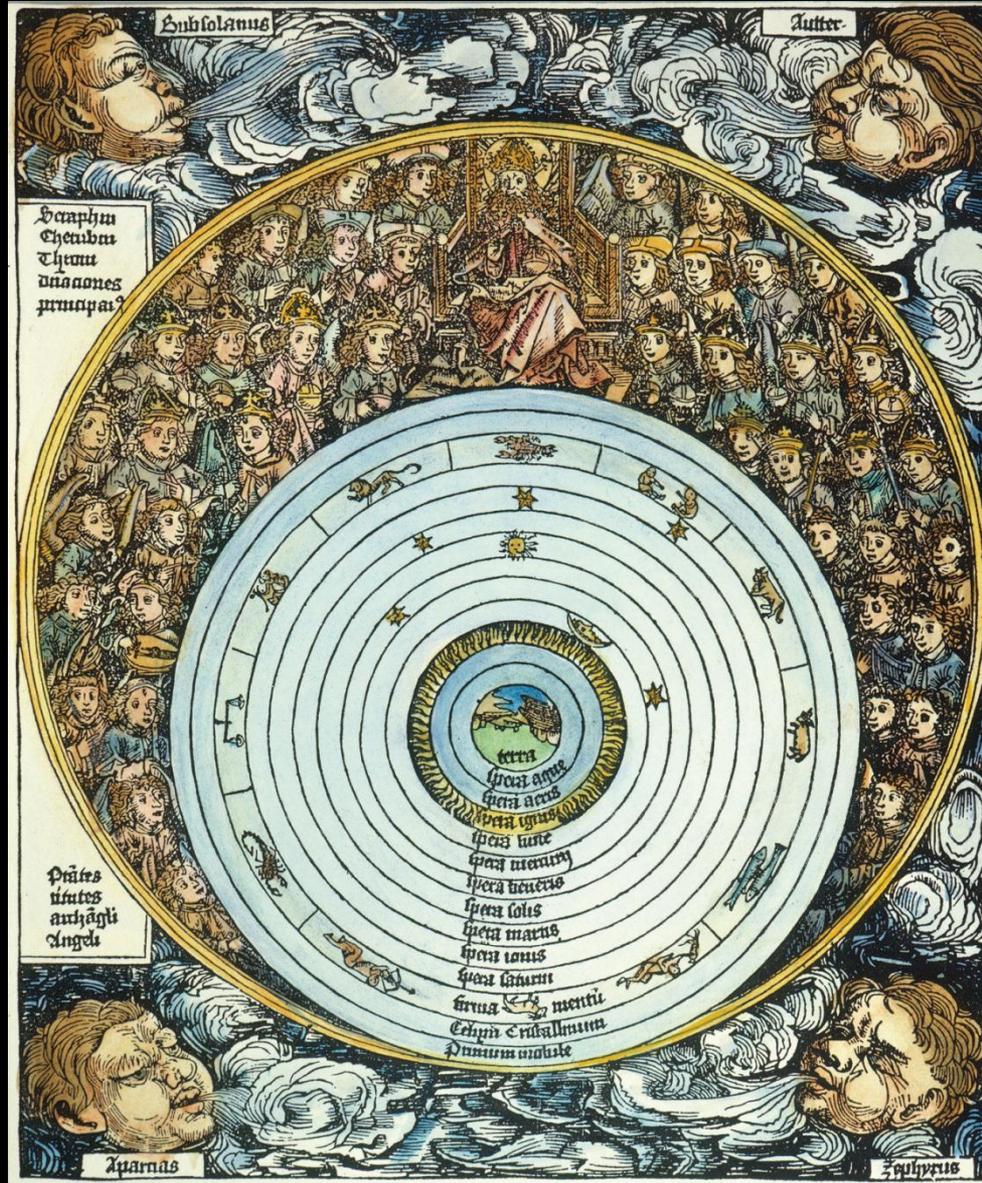
A historical painting of a grand palace courtyard. In the background, a large, multi-story classical building with many windows and arches. In the foreground, a large, ornate fountain with several water jets. People in 17th-century clothing are walking around the courtyard. The scene is set in a bright, sunny environment.

The Age of Absolutism

(1550 – 1800)

The Scientific Revolution

Primary Source Document 1



The Granger
Collection,
New York

Rebuilding France

- From the 1560s to the 1590s, religious wars between **Huguenots** (French Protestants) and the Catholic majority tore France apart.
- In 1598, the Huguenot prince Henry inherited the throne becoming Henry IV and converted to Catholicism to prevent conflict.
- To protect Protestants, Henry IV issued the **Edict of Nantes**, which granted Huguenots religious toleration and let them fortify their own towns and cities.
- Henry then set out to heal the shattered land. Under Henry, the government reached into every aspect of French life.
- By building the royal bureaucracy and reducing the power of the nobility, Henry laid the foundations for **royal absolutism**.

St. Bartholomew's Day Massacre — violence erupted on August 24, 1572 and 3,000 Huguenots were killed.



France Under Louis XIV



- Later his grandson, **Louis XIV** achieved royal absolutism and helped France become the most powerful nation in Europe during the 1600s.
- Louis took the sun as the symbol of his absolute power and was often quoted as saying, “L’etat, c’est moi” —“I am the state.”
- During his 72-year reign, he did not once call a meeting of **Estates General**, the medieval council made up of all French social classes. Thus, the Estates General was unable to check the power of the king.
- Louis expanded the bureaucracy and appointed **intendants**, royal officials who collected taxes, recruited soldiers, and carried out Louis’s policies in the provinces.

Versailles, Symbol of Royal Power

- In the countryside near Paris, Louis XIV, spared no expense to make **Versailles** the most magnificent building in all Europe and a symbol of Royal power.
- Louis created the strongest army in Europe, which he used to enforce his policies at home and abroad. Vast resources were used to war with the English and Dutch, who were fighting to maintain the **balance of power**.



Successes and Failures of Louis XIV

Successes

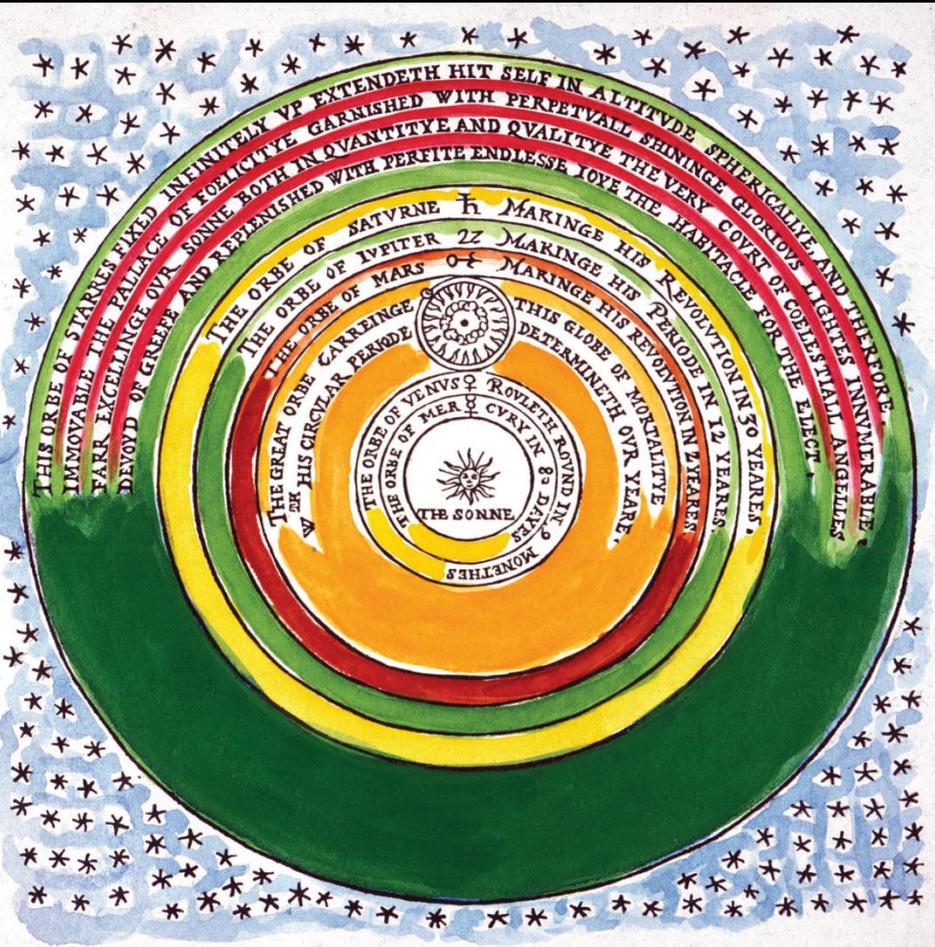
- Louis greatly strengthened royal power.
- The French army became the strongest in Europe.
- France became the wealthiest state in Europe.
- French culture, manners, and customs became the European standard.
- The arts flourished in France.

Failures

- Louis engaged in costly wars that had disastrous results.
- Rival rulers joined forces to check French ambitions.
- Louis persecuted the Huguenots, causing many to flee France. Their departure was a huge blow to the French economy.

The Scientific Revolution

Primary Source Documents 2 & 3



Document 2

H. VI. M. XII: A. MDXCV D. XXVI Octob. H. V. M. XLIV. Estq; longitudo Martis primo tempore ex TYCHONIS restitutione. $1^{\circ} 4'. 38. 50''$: sequentibus temporib. toties per $1^{\circ} 36''$ auctior. Hic enim est motus præcessionis congruens tempori periodico unius restitutionis MARTIS Cumq; Tycho apogæum ponat in $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, æquatio ejus erit $11. 14. 55''$: propterea longitudo cœquata anno MDXC $1. 15. 53. 45''$.

Eodem vero tempore & commutatio seu differentia medii motus SOLIS a medio Martis colligitur $0. 18. 19. 56''$: cœquata seu differentia inter medium SOLIS & MARTIS cœquatum eccentricum $10. 7. 51''$.

PRIMUM hæc in forma COPERNICANA ut simpliciori ad sensum proponemus.

Sit a punctum æquationis circuitus terra, qui ostenditur esse circulus $d\gamma$ ex e descriptus: & sit Sol in β , ut ad β linea apogæi

COPERNICI

PTOLEMÆI

TYCHONIS BRAHE

Document 3

Triumph of Parliament in England

- The **Tudors** believed in divine right, but also recognized the value of good relations with Parliament.
- Tutor King **Henry VIII** turned to Parliament to legitimize his break with the Catholic Church.
- A constant need for money led Henry to consult Parliament frequently.
- Later, **Elizabeth I** both consulted and controlled Parliament.

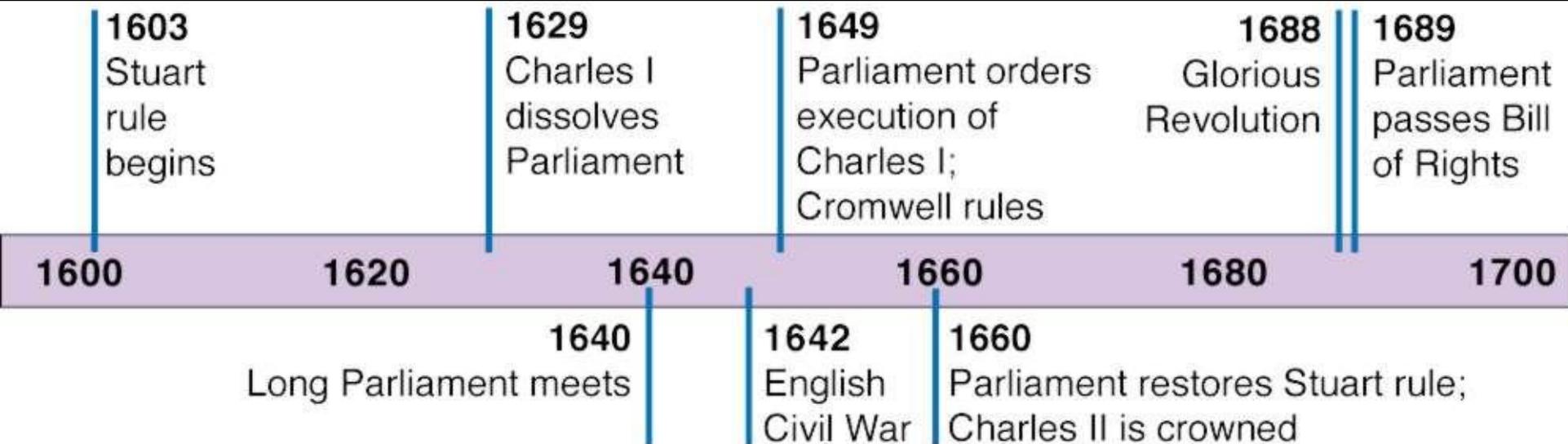


Queen Elizabeth I of England

Triumph of Parliament in England (cont.)

- Elizabeth died without a direct heir, so the throne passed to her Scottish relatives, the Stuart family.
- The Stuart Kings tried to establish an absolute monarchy. The **Stuarts** believed in divine right and repeatedly clashed with Parliament.
- When he needed funds, **James I** dissolved Parliament and collected taxes on his own.
- **Charles I** ignored the **Petition of Right**, which prohibited the King from passing taxes without the approval of Parliament and from imprisoning people without due cause, dissolved Parliament, and ruled the nation for 11 years without it.
- In response, England was plunged into a Civil War that lasted from 1642 to 1649.

Events in England, 1603 – 1689



The English Civil War

- The English Civil War pitted supporters of Charles I against the forces of Parliament, under **Oliver Cromwell**.
- Cromwell's army defeated the forces of the king.
- Parliament put Charles on trial and condemned him to death as “a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy.”
- After the execution of Charles I in 1649, the House of Commons abolished the monarchy, the House of Lords, and the official Church of England. It declared England a republic, known as the **Commonwealth**, under the leadership of Oliver Cromwell.
- In executing the king, parliamentary forces sent a clear signal that, in England, no ruler could claim absolute power and ignore the rule of law.

The Commonwealth

- Supporters of the uncrowned Charles II led a revolt from Ireland and Scotland.
- Cromwell led forces against them.
- Puritans enacted strict laws to govern social behavior based on the ideas of John Calvin.
- Soon after Oliver Cromwell died in 1658, Puritans lost control of England.
- In 1660, a newly elected Parliament invited Charles II to return to England and restored the monarchy.

The Glorious Revolution

When James II angered his subjects and clashed with Parliament, parliamentary leaders invited William and Mary to become rulers of England. When William and Mary landed in England, James II fled to France. This bloodless overthrow of a king became known as the **Glorious Revolution**.

Before they could be crowned, William and Mary had to accept the English Bill of Rights, which:

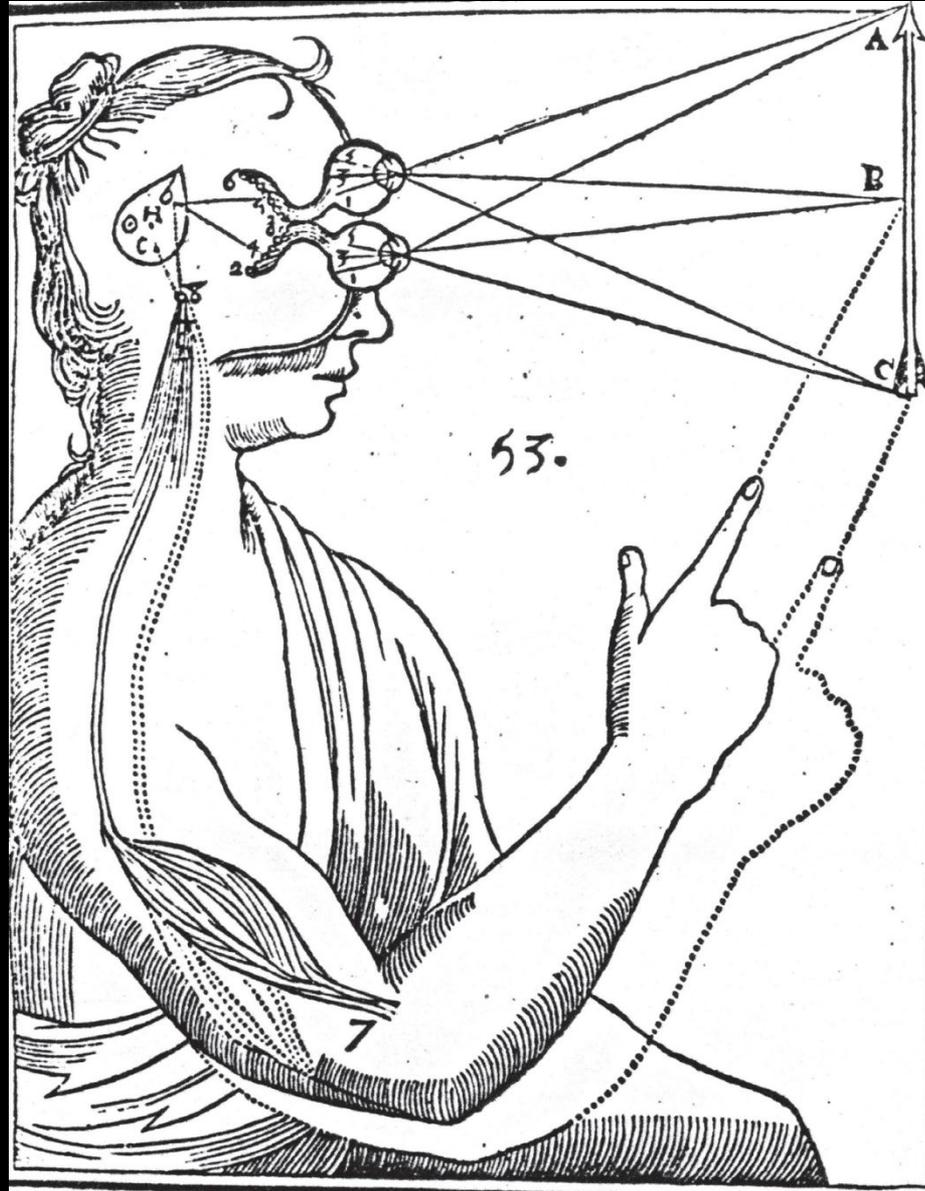
- ensured superiority of Parliament over the monarchy.
- gave the House of Commons “power of the purse.”
- prohibited a monarch from interfering with Parliament.
- barred any Roman Catholic from sitting on the throne.
- restated the rights of English citizens and affirming the principle of **habeas corpus**, which says that no person could be held in prison without being charged with a crime.



The Glorious Revolution did not create democracy, but a type of government called **limited monarchy**, in which a constitution or legislative body limits the monarch's powers.

The Scientific Revolution

Primary Source Document 4



Charles V and the Hapsburg Empire



- During the 1500s, wealth from the Americas helped make Spain the most powerful nation in Europe.
 - In 1519, Charles V inherited a huge empire. He became king of Spain and was also the heir to the Hapsburg empire, including the Holy Roman Empire and Netherlands.
 - Ruling two empires involved Charles in constant warfare with the Ottoman empire.
 - Eventually, Charles gave up his titles and divided his empire.
- ← Portrait of Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor traditionally attributed to Titian, today attributed to Lambert Sustris

Extending Spanish Power

- During his 42-year reign, Philip worked to expand Spanish influence, strengthen the Catholic Church, and make his own power absolute.
- As did Ferdinand and Isabella, Philip further centralized the government, ruling as an **absolute monarch**, a ruler with complete authority.
- He claimed to rule by **divine right**, that his authority to rule came directly from God.
- Philip saw himself as guardian of the Roman Catholic Church.
- Philip fought many wars as he attempted to advance Spanish Catholic power.



Philip II, King of Spain and Portugal, King of Naples, King consort of England, Ruler of the Spanish Netherlands, Duke of Milan

The Wars of Philip II, 1571–1588



Revolt in the Netherlands

- Protestants in the Netherlands (today's Belgium, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg) resisted Philip's efforts to crush their faith.
- Protestants and Catholics both opposed high taxes and aristocratic Spanish rule, which threatened local traditions of self-government.
- In the 1560s, riots against the Inquisition led to general uprisings that raged for decades.
- In 1581, the northern Protestant provinces declared their independence from Spain becoming known as the Dutch Netherlands. They finally gained official recognition in 1648.
- The southern Catholic provinces remained part of the Spanish empire.

War with England

- Queen Elizabeth I of England supported the Dutch against Spain and encouraged English captains, called Sea Dogs, to plunder Spanish treasure ships.
- **Francis Drake** looted Spanish cities in the Americas.
- To end English attacks and subdue the Dutch, Philip prepared a huge **armada**, or fleet, to carry an invasion force to England.



Sir Francis Drake,
Captain of Revenge

War with England (cont.)

- In the English Channel, lumbering Spanish ships took losses from lighter, faster English ships. Then a sudden storm scattered the armada, ensuring an English victory.

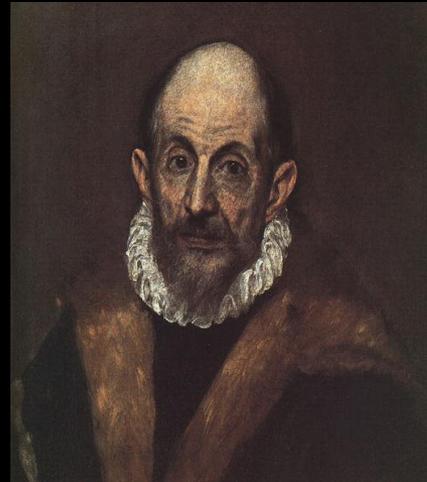


Spain's Golden Age

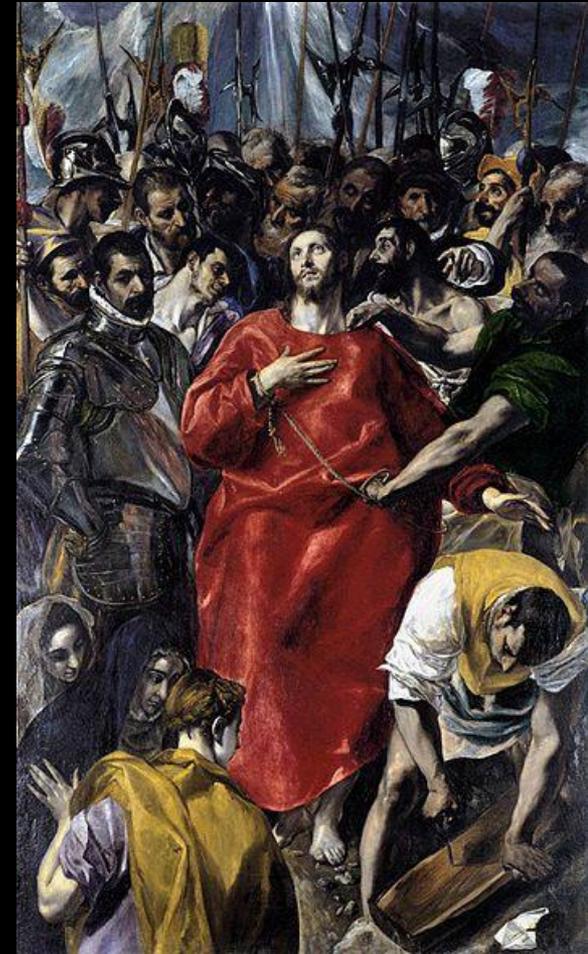
- 1550 to 1650 is called Spain's *siglo de oro*, or "golden century."
- **El Greco**, "the Greek", produced haunting religious paintings, dramatic views of the city of Toledo, and striking portraits of Spanish nobles.



The Disrobing of Christ is one of the most famous altarpieces of El Greco →



← *The Burial of the Count of Orgaz* now El Greco's best known work



Spain's Golden Age (cont.)

- **Diego Velázquez** painted vivid portraits of Spanish royalty.



Self portrait of Diego Velázquez



Diego Velasquez, Philip IV in Brown and Silver

Portrait of the Infanta Maria Theresa of Spain, Philip IV's daughter



Spain's Golden Age (cont.)



Portrait of Lope de Vega

- **Lope de Vega** wrote more than 1,500 plays, including witty comedies and action-packed romances.
- **Miguel de Cervantes** wrote *Don Quixote*, the first modern novel in Europe and a spoof of Medieval tales of chivalry.

Economic Decline

In the 1600s, Spanish power and prosperity slowly declined allowing France to become the most powerful European nation by the late 1600s.

LACK OF STRONG LEADERSHIP

- The successors of Philip II were far less able leaders than he.

ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

- Costly overseas wars drained wealth out of Spain almost as fast as it came in.
- Treasure from the Americas led Spain to neglect farming and commerce.
- The expulsion of Muslims and Jews from Spain deprived the economy of many skilled artisans and merchants.
- American gold and silver led to soaring inflation.

Small Group Activity

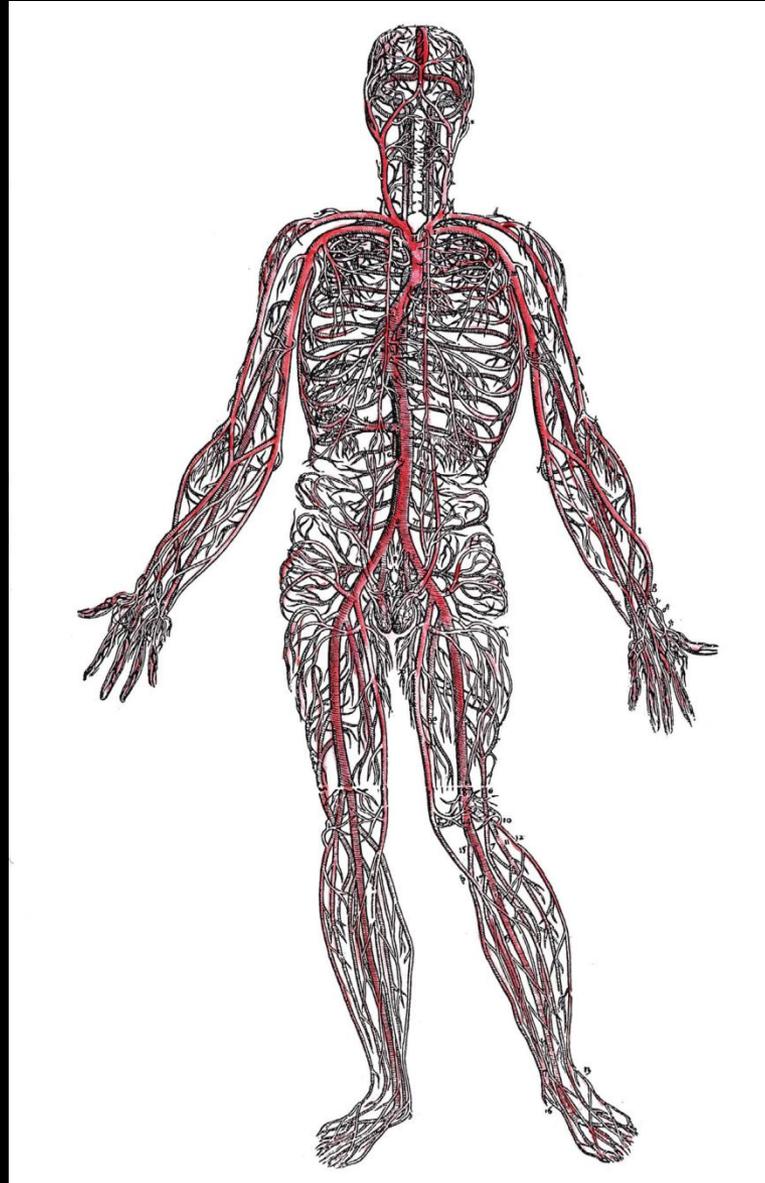
In small groups, outline the causes and results of the assigned topic.

Topics:

1. The Thirty Year's War
2. The War of the Austrian Succession
3. The Rise of Prussia

The Scientific Revolution

Primary Source Document 5



The Granger Collection,
New York

The Thirty Years' War

Causes

- Rival German princes held more power than the emperor.
- Religion divided the Protestant north and the Catholic south and created a power vacuum.
- Ferdinand, the Hapsburg king of Bohemia, tried to suppress Protestants and assert royal power over local nobles.
- In May 1618, rebellious Protestant noblemen tossed two royal officials out a castle window in Prague sparking a general revolt.
- Both sides sought allies, widening the conflict into a general European war.



Ferdinand II, Holy Roman Emperor and King of Bohemia. His firm Catholicism was the proximate cause of the war.



The Thirties Years' War

← Contemporary woodcut depicting the Second Defenestration of Prague (1618), which marked the beginning of the Bohemian Revolt, which began the first part of the Thirty Years War.

The miseries of war; 11th Hang men
 Jacques Callot (1592–1635) ↓



The Thirty Years' War (Cont.)

Results



Ratification of the Treaty of Münster.

Signed 15 May 1648 (Osnabrück);
24 October 1648 (Münster)

Location Osnabrück and Münster, Westphalia,
modern-day Germany

- The **Peace of Westphalia** ended the war with a general European peace.
- The war led to severe **depopulation**.
- France gained territory.
- The Hapsburgs were forced to accept independence of all of the princes of the Holy Roman Empire.
- Germany was divided into more than 360 states.
- The Netherlands and present-day Switzerland won independence.

Europe After the Thirty Years' War



Austria

The Hapsburgs kept the title of Holy Roman emperors and expanded their lands.

Hapsburg monarchs worked hard to unite the empire, which included peoples from many backgrounds and cultures.

Maria Theresa won popular support and strengthened Hapsburg power by reorganizing the bureaucracy and improving tax collection.



Portrait of Maria Theresa of Austria (c. 1835).

Prussia



Frederick William I

- Prussia emerged as a new Protestant power.
- **The Hohenzollern family** united their lands by taking over the states between them.
- Hohenzollern kings set up an efficient central bureaucracy and reduced the independence of nobles.
- **Frederick William I** created one of the best armies in Europe.
- Frederick II used the army to strengthen Prussia.

Maintaining the Balance of Power

By 1750, the great powers of Europe included Austria, Prussia, France, England, and Russia.

These powers formed various alliances to maintain the balance of power.

Though nations sometimes switched partners, two rivalries persisted.

- Prussia battled Austria for control of the German states.
- Britain and France competed for overseas empire.