Within their state’s boundaries with the goal of controlling every aspect of society. According to the idea of divine right, God created the monarchy, and the monarch acted as God’s representative on earth. This meant the monarch controlled the government, finances, foreign policy, society at all levels, and even the church. In the previous module, you learned about the similarities between governments with a single ruler across different cultures. Many such rulers claimed the divine right of kings but not all. Divine right was not the only way that monarchs established their legitimacy.

As you will learn in Lesson 1, absolutism was the political belief that one ruler should hold all of the power within the boundaries of their country. The theory of the “divine right of kings” developed during the European medieval period. According to the medieval Christian belief, rulers were appointed by God to rule the secular aspects of society and church leaders to rule the spiritual aspects of society. When influence of the church and its leaders diminished, kings and queens expanded their authority into spiritual areas of society.

You will also read in Lesson 1 that during different times in history and in different countries in the world, absolutism was supported by this “divine right” and practiced by rulers. Many European rulers, such as Philip II of Spain, Louis XIV of France, and Peter the Great of Russia, used this idea to maintain the legitimacy of their rule and their actions.

Philip II of Spain was a strong supporter of Catholicism. During his rule Spain fought in the religious wars in Europe; defended Europe against the Ottoman Empire; attempted to conquer England and its Protestant queen, Elizabeth I; and fought the Protestant Dutch during the Dutch Revolt. Though Spain acquired great wealth from its American colonies, eventually Philip’s constant wars caused Spain’s resources and influence to decline.

France’s King Louis XIV is considered the most powerful European absolute monarch of the 1600s and early 1700s. Lesson 2 describes what he did to strengthen his monarchical power, such as excluding nobles from his councils. He also established mercantilist trade policies in an effort to make France economically self-sufficient. Louis also used elaborate and luxurious court life and rituals to influence and control the nobles.

In Lesson 4 you will read about Peter the Great, who became an absolute monarch in Russia. Peter used his power and position to force the Russian people to more western philosophies, ideas, and practices. His policy changes affected the Russian Orthodox Church, the army, taxation policy, and the landowning upper classes. However, he did not abolish serfdom. Upon his death, he had built Russia into a power as influential as any of the other major European countries at that time.

ACTIVITY

The Divine Monarch

Despite his great power and influence, Louis XIV’s rule had some negative outcomes for France. In 1715 the death of the king, who proclaimed during his reign “L’état, c’est moi” or “I am the state,” was greeted with relief and even joy among many French commoners and peasants. However, others like Voltaire, a well-known writer who lived during Louis XIV’s reign, praised the grandeur of his rule. Voltaire wrote, “His name will never be mentioned without respect, or without reviving the idea of an age forever memorable.”

Was Louis XIV a good king then, or was his absolutist rule actually bad for France? During his 72-year reign, Protestants suffered religious persecution, and the monarchy intruded in local governments. The nobles, clergy, and court and government officials often received certain tax exemptions. While the nobles were somewhat privileged, the townspeople and peasants suffered from heavy taxation and forced military service in many wars. This resulted in economic suffering, especially for the peasants. When a series of bad harvests hit in the 1660s, peasants revolted in France’s Burgundy region. Many historians see the policies of Louis XIV’s absolutist regime as a precursor to the French Revolution.

Your task will be to analyze whether the absolutist reign of Louis XIV was bad for France.

1. Planning Select a group of people: nobles, clergy, or peasants. Research how your selected group fared under Louis XIV’s absolutist reign and whether their privilege or suffering was bad for France.

2. Analyzing Research Texts Analyze historical texts you find that are related to how your selected group of people lived under Louis XIV’s reign. Consider the following questions as you analyze the texts:
   • Was this group singled out as an elite group and given privileges? For what purposes?
   • Was this group not considered privileged or heavily taxed? For what purposes?
   • How did this group respond to Louis XIV’s absolutist policies? What impact did this response have on France as a whole?
In the 1600s Conflicts increased and led to the English Civil War. A Puritan army leader, Oliver Cromwell, led a rebellion against the king, overthrew him, and established a republic. He then later dismissed Parliament and the public execution of a king. A Puritan army leader, Oliver Cromwell, led a rebellion against the king, overthrew him, and established a republic. He then later dismissed Parliament and the public execution of a king. A Puritan army leader, Oliver Cromwell, led a rebellion against the king, overthrew him, and established a republic. He then later dismissed Parliament and the public execution of a king. A Puritan army leader, Oliver Cromwell, led a rebellion against the king, overthrew him, and established a republic. He then later dismissed Parliament and the public execution of a king. A Puritan army leader, Oliver Cromwell, led a rebellion against the king, overthrew him, and established a republic. He then later dismissed Parliament and the public execution of a king. A Puritan army leader, Oliver Cromwell, led a rebellion against the king, overthrew him, and established a republic. He then later dismissed Parliament and

**ACTIVITY**

**The Glorious Revolution**

England’s Glorious Revolution in 1688 was a major milestone in limiting the power of absolute monarchs. It became a foundation for the further evolution of self-government and individual liberty for people throughout the world. The English Parliament played a crucial role in bringing about the Glorious Revolution.

In 1215 a group of English nobles rebelled against King John and forced him to sign the Magna Carta, paving the way for the establishment of legal controls over monarchical power. The Magna Carta made the king subject to English law (no sovereign was above the law) and listed the liberties of free men. Although the document acknowledged these liberties for only English nobles, the Magna Carta was the beginning in England of limiting a sovereign’s power and establishing legal rights of people. It was reissued in various years through 1225.

Another key factor in limiting the power of absolute monarchs in England was the development of Parliament and its control of the national treasury. The Parliamentary tradition stems from the reign of Edward I in the late 1200s, when he attempted to get his knights to agree to increased taxation. The need of Edward I to get his knights’ approval evolved from the feudal system of vassals. Under the vassal system kings or queens received income from their vassals, especially the barons. In England the barons evolved into a council or Parliament (membership was at first hereditary) with the right to grant or refuse money to the king or queen. Parliament’s control of the national treasury was a major source of conflict between the monarchy and members of Parliament in the 1600s.

Conflicts in the 1600s increased and led to the English Civil War and the public execution of a king. A Puritan army leader, Oliver Cromwell, led a rebellion against the king, overthrew him, and established a republic. He then later dismissed Parliament and wrote a constitution, calling his government a protectorate. In fact, he derived his authority from the support of a permanent army. The monarchy was restored, under Charles II, after Cromwell’s death, largely to limit the power of the army.

When Charles’s brother James II took the throne, his Catholic faith and policies angered much of the English populace. English nobles and clergy summoned James’s nephew, William of Orange, to raise an army and support their grievances. James abdicated the throne. These events would become known as the Glorious Revolution or “bloodless revolution” in 1688. Parliament acted to ensure two things: namely that England’s monarch would always be Protestant, and the monarchy would accept the role of Parliament, its legal limitations on the monarchy, and a partnership role in governance as defined in the English Bill of Rights. William and his wife Mary accepted Parliament’s demands, and William became king of England. The Glorious Revolution inspired movements for self-government and individual liberties throughout the world.

Your task will be to analyze the influence of England’s Glorious Revolution (1688) on either the American Revolution (1776) or the French Revolution (1787).

1. **Planning**

   Use the Internet to research how the ideas of the Glorious Revolution, including the English Bill of Rights, influenced the American Revolution or the French Revolution.

2. **Analyzing the Glorious Revolution’s Influence**

   Consider the following questions as you analyze the revolution you selected:
   - What were the lasting effects of the Glorious Revolution on the expectations for self-government and individual liberty of people outside England?
   - How were the people governed before the revolution you chose for comparison?
   - What specific political ideas of English writers and political documents, such as the Magna Carta and the English Bill of Rights, do you think had an effect in fueling the revolt? Why?

3. **Write an Analysis of Your Research**

   Your analysis should:
   - briefly summarize the events leading to the revolution;
   - discuss differences and similarities of the ideas that fueled the Glorious Revolution and the revolution you selected; and
   - compare and contrast the English Bill of Rights and the major document(s) from the revolution you selected.

4. **Reviewing and Proofreading**

   - Make sure your analysis is specific and clear.
   - Check your writing for proper capitalization, spelling, punctuation, and grammar.
   - Cite the sources used in your analysis. Sources should be credible Internet or print sources.

4. **Reviewing and Proofreading**

   - Make sure your analysis is specific and clear.
   - Check your writing for proper capitalization, spelling, punctuation, and grammar.
   - Properly cite credible sources you used in your research.
Module 3

Absolute Monarchs in Europe

Essential Question
Why do you think absolute monarchs came to power in many different regions, and what caused their demise?

About the Painting: The absolute ruler Louis XIV of France imposed taxes to pay for the construction of a magnificent palace and to finance wars. His government provided security and enforced laws, but the people had no say in what the laws were. In this painting, you can see Louis’s lavish clothing, which demonstrated to others his power and status. The gold flowers on his robe are the symbol of French kings.

In this module you will learn about absolute monarchs in Europe. Absolute rulers wanted to control their countries’ economies so that they could free themselves from limitations imposed by the nobility.

EXPLORE ONLINE!
VIDEOS, including...
• The Magnificent Palace of Versailles
• Peter the Great: The Tyrant Reformer
• Cromwell: Conqueror of Ireland

• Document-Based Investigations
• Graphic Organizers
• Interactive Games
• Carousel: Absolute Grandeur: Versailles
• Carousel: A Winter Culture

10.2.2 List the principles of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights (1689), the American Declaration of Independence (1776), the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789), and the U.S. Bill of Rights (1791). CST.1 Students compare the present with the past, evaluating the consequences of past events and decisions and determining the lessons that were learned. CST.3 Students use a variety of maps and documents to interpret human movement, including major patterns of domestic and international migration, changing environmental preferences and settlement patterns, the frictions that develop between population groups, and the diffusion of ideas, technological innovations, and goods. HHREP.4 Students construct and test hypotheses; collect, evaluate, and employ information from multiple primary and secondary sources; and apply it in oral and written presentations. HI.1 Students show the connections, causal and otherwise, between particular historical events and larger social, economic, and political trends and developments. HI.4 Students understand the meaning, implication, and impact of historical events and recognize that events could have taken other directions.
Timeline of Events 1500–1800

**European Events**

- **1500**

- **1588** British defeat Philip II's Spanish Armada.
- **1603** Tokugawa shoguns rule Japan.
- **1643** Louis XIV begins to rule France.
- **1649** Puritans under Oliver Cromwell execute English king.
- **1696** Peter the Great becomes sole czar of Russia.
- **1756** Prussian king Frederick the Great begins Seven Years’ War against Austria.

**World Events**

- **1521** Cortés conquers Aztec Empire.
- **1533** Pizarro conquers Incan Empire.
- **1632** Shah Jahan orders construction of Taj Mahal.
- **1588** British defeat Philip II's Spanish Armada.
- **1603** Tokugawa shoguns rule Japan.
- **1643** Louis XIV begins to rule France.
- **1649** Puritans under Oliver Cromwell execute English king.
- **1696** Peter the Great becomes sole czar of Russia.
- **1756** Prussian king Frederick the Great begins Seven Years’ War against Austria.
- **1776** American colonists declare their independence from England.
Spain’s Empire and European Absolutism

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

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

Key Terms and People
Philip II
absolute monarch
divine right

Setting the Stage
From 1520 to 1566, Suleyman I exercised great power as sultan of the Ottoman Empire. A European monarch of the same period, Charles V, came close to matching Suleyman’s power. As the Hapsburg king, Charles inherited Spain, Spain’s American colonies, parts of Italy, and lands in Austria and the Netherlands. As the elected Holy Roman emperor, he ruled much of Germany. It was the first time since Charlemagne that a European ruler controlled so much territory.

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

Philip II’s Empire
Philip was shy, serious, and—like his father—deeply religious. He was also very hardworking. Yet Philip would not allow anyone to help him. Deeply suspicious, he trusted no one for long. As his own court historian wrote, “His smile and his dagger were very close.”

Perhaps above all, Philip could be aggressive for the sake of his empire. In 1580, the king of Portugal died without an heir. Because Philip was the king’s nephew, he seized the Portuguese kingdom. Counting Portuguese strongholds in Africa, India, and the East Indies, he now had an empire that circled the globe.
In the summer of 1588, Philip II sent about 130 ships carrying 19,000 soldiers to the English Channel. English warships, however, outmaneuvered the Spanish vessels and bombarded the Armada with their heavier long-range cannons.

**Interpret Maps**

1. **Location** Off what English town did the first clash between the Spanish Armada and the English fleet take place?

2. **Movement** Why do you think the Spanish captains chose to sail north around Scotland rather than take the more direct route home through the English Channel?
Philip's empire provided him with incredible wealth. By 1600, American mines had supplied Spain with an estimated 339,000 pounds of gold. Between 1550 and 1650, roughly 16,000 tons of silver bullion were unloaded from Spanish galleons, or ships. The king of Spain claimed between a fourth and a fifth of every shipload of treasure as his royal share. With this wealth, Spain was able to support a large standing army of about 50,000 soldiers.

Defender of Catholicism When Philip assumed the throne, Europe was experiencing religious wars caused by the Reformation. However, religious conflict was not new to Spain. The Reconquista, the campaign to drive Muslims from Spain, had been completed only 64 years before. In addition, Philip's great-grandparents Isabella and Ferdinand had used the Inquisition to investigate suspected heretics, or nonbelievers in Christianity.

Philip believed it was his duty to defend Catholicism against the Muslims of the Ottoman Empire and the Protestants of Europe. In 1571, the pope called on all Catholic princes to take up arms against the mounting power of the Ottoman Empire. Philip responded like a true crusader. More than 200 Spanish and Venetian ships defeated a large Ottoman fleet in a fierce battle near Lepanto. In 1588, Philip launched the Spanish Armada in an attempt to punish Protestant England and its queen, Elizabeth I. Elizabeth had supported Protestant subjects who had rebelled against Philip. However, his fleet was defeated. (See map, “Defeat of the Spanish Armada, 1588.”)

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

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

El Greco and Velázquez Born in Crete, El Greco (GREHK-oh) spent much of his adult life in Spain. His real name was Domenikos Theotokopoulos, but Spaniards called him El Greco, meaning “the Greek.” El Greco’s art often puzzled the people of his time. He chose brilliant, sometimes clashing colors, distorted the human figure, and expressed emotion symbolically in his paintings. Although unusual, El Greco’s techniques showed the deep Catholic faith of Spain. He painted saints and martyrs as huge, long-limbed figures that have a supernatural air.
The paintings of Diego Velázquez (vuh•LAH•s-kehs), on the other hand, reflected the pride of the Spanish monarchy. Velázquez, who painted 50 years after El Greco, was the court painter to Philip IV of Spain. He is best known for his portraits of the royal family and scenes of court life. Like El Greco, he was noted for using rich colors.

**Don Quixote**  The publication of *Don Quixote de la Mancha* in 1605 is often called the birth of the modern European novel. In this book, Miguel de Cervantes (suhr•VAN•teez) wrote about a poor Spanish nobleman who went a little crazy after reading too many books about heroic knights.

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

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

—Miguel De Cervantes, *Don Quixote de la Mancha*

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

**The Spanish Empire Weakens**

Certainly, the age in which Cervantes wrote was a materialistic one. The gold and silver coming from the Americas made Spain temporarily wealthy. However, such treasure helped to cause long-term economic problems.

**Inflation and Taxes**  One of these problems was severe inflation, which is a decline in the value of money, accompanied by a rise in the prices of goods and services. Inflation in Spain had two main causes. First, Spain’s population was growing. As more people demanded food and goods, merchants were able to raise prices. Second, as silver bullion flooded the market, its value dropped. People needed more and more silver to buy things.

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

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

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

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

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

The Dutch continued to fight the Spanish for another 11 years. Finally, in 1579, the seven northern provinces of the Netherlands, which were largely Protestant, united and declared their independence from Spain. They became the United Provinces of the Netherlands. The ten southern provinces (present-day Belgium) were Catholic and remained under Spanish control.

**The Independent Dutch Prosper** The United Provinces of the Netherlands was different from other European states of the time. For one thing, the people there practiced religious toleration. In addition, the United Provinces was not a kingdom but a republic. Each province had an elected governor, whose power depended on the support of merchants and landholders.

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**Tulip Mania**

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

Tulip mania reached a peak between 1633 and 1637. Soon after, tulip prices sank rapidly. Many Dutch families lost property and were left with bulbs that were nearly worthless.
**Dutch Art** During the 1600s, the Netherlands became what Florence had been during the 1400s. It boasted not only the best banks but also many of the best artists in Europe. As in Florence, wealthy merchants sponsored many of these artists.

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

Another artist fascinated with the effects of light and dark was Jan Vermeer (YAHN vuhr•MEER). Like many other Dutch artists, he chose domestic, indoor settings for his portraits. He often painted women doing such familiar activities as pouring milk from a jug or reading a letter. The work of both Rembrandt and Vermeer reveals how important merchants, civic leaders, and the middle class in general were in 17th-century Netherlands.

**Dutch Trading Empire** The stability of the government allowed the Dutch people to concentrate on economic growth. The merchants of Amsterdam bought surplus grain in Poland and crammed it into their warehouses. When they heard about poor harvests in southern Europe, they shipped the grain south while prices were highest. The Dutch had the largest fleet of ships in the world, and this fleet helped the Dutch East India Company (a trading company controlled by the Dutch government) to dominate the Asian spice trade and the Indian Ocean trade. Gradually, the Dutch replaced the Italians as the bankers of Europe.
Absolutism in Europe

Even though Philip II lost his Dutch possessions, he was a forceful ruler in many ways. He tried to control every aspect of his empire’s affairs. During the next few centuries, many European monarchs would also claim the authority to rule without limits on their power.

The Theory of Absolutism

These rulers wanted to be absolute monarchs, kings or queens who held all of the power within their states’ boundaries. Their goal was to control every aspect of society. Absolute monarchs believed in divine right, the idea that God created the monarchy and that the monarch acted as God’s representative on Earth. An absolute monarch answered only to God, not to his or her subjects.

Growing Power of Europe’s Monarchs

As Europe emerged from the Middle Ages, monarchs grew increasingly powerful. The decline of feudalism, the rise of cities, and the growth of national kingdoms all helped to centralize authority. In addition, the growing middle class usually backed monarchs, because they promised a peaceful, supportive climate for business. Monarchs used the wealth of colonies to pay for their ambitions. Church authority also broke down during the late Middle Ages and the Reformation. That opened the way for monarchs to assume even greater control. In 1576, Jean Bodin, an influential French writer, defined absolute rule. Bodin stated that a ruler has the power to make laws without the consent of anyone else.
He said that if a ruler needs to consult superiors, then he is a subject himself. If a ruler needs to consult peers, he is an equal, not a ruler. If he needs to consult his subjects, he is not a ruler.

**Crises Lead to Absolutism** The 17th century was a period of great upheaval in Europe. Religious and territorial conflicts between states led to almost continuous warfare. This caused governments to build huge armies and to levy even heavier taxes on an already suffering population. These pressures in turn brought about widespread unrest. Sometimes peasants revolted.

In response to these crises, monarchs tried to impose order by increasing their own power. As absolute rulers, they regulated everything from religious worship to social gatherings. They created new government bureaucracies to control their countries’ economic life. Their goal was to free themselves from the limitations imposed by the nobility and by representative bodies such as Parliament. Only with such freedom could they rule absolutely, as did the most famous monarch of his time, Louis XIV of France. You’ll learn more about him later.
The Reign of Louis XIV

The Big Idea
After a century of war and riots, France was ruled by Louis XIV, the most powerful monarch of his time.

Why It Matters Now
Louis's abuse of power led to revolution that would inspire the call for democratic government throughout the world.

Key Terms and People
Edict of Nantes
Cardinal Richelieu
skepticism
Louis XIV
intendant
Jean Baptiste Colbert
War of the Spanish Succession

Setting the Stage
In 1559, King Henry II of France died, leaving four young sons. Three of them ruled, one after the other, but all proved incompetent. The real power behind the throne during this period was their mother, Catherine de Médicis. Catherine tried to preserve royal authority, but growing conflicts between Catholics and Huguenots—French Protestants—rocked the country. Between 1562 and 1598, Huguenots and Catholics fought eight religious wars. Chaos spread through France.

Religious Wars and Power Struggles
In 1572, the St. Bartholomew’s Day Massacre in Paris sparked a six-week, nationwide slaughter of Huguenots. The massacre occurred when many Huguenot nobles were in Paris. They were attending the marriage of Catherine’s daughter to a Huguenot prince, Henry of Navarre. Most of these nobles died, but Henry survived.

Henry of Navarre Descended from the popular medieval king Louis IX, Henry was robust, athletic, and handsome. In 1589, when both Catherine and her last son died, Prince Henry inherited the throne. He became Henry IV, the first king of the Bourbon dynasty in France. As king, he showed himself to be decisive, fearless in battle, and a clever politician.

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

In 1598, Henry took another step toward healing France’s wounds. He declared that the Huguenots could live in peace in France and set up their own houses of worship in some cities. This declaration of religious toleration was called the Edict of Nantes.
Aided by an adviser who enacted wise financial policies, Henry devoted his reign to rebuilding France and its prosperity. He restored the French monarchy to a strong position. After a generation of war, most French people welcomed peace. Some people, however, hated Henry for his religious compromises. In 1610, a fanatic leaped into the royal carriage and stabbed Henry to death.

**Louis XIII and Cardinal Richelieu** After Henry IV’s death, his son Louis XIII reigned. Louis was a weak king, but in 1624, he appointed a strong minister who made up for all of Louis’s weaknesses.

**Cardinal Richelieu** (RIHSH•uh•loo) became, in effect, the ruler of France. For several years, he had been a hardworking leader of the Catholic church in France. Although he tried sincerely to lead according to moral principles, he was also ambitious and enjoyed exercising authority. As Louis XIII’s minister, he was able to pursue his ambitions in the political arena.

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

Second, he sought to weaken the nobles’ power. Richelieu ordered nobles to take down their fortified castles. He increased the power of government agents who came from the middle class. The king relied on these agents, so there was less need to use noble officials.

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

**Writers Turn Toward Skepticism**

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

**Montaigne and Descartes** Michel de Montaigne lived during the worst years of the French religious wars. After the death of a dear friend, Montaigne thought deeply about life’s meaning. To communicate his ideas, Montaigne developed a new form of literature, the essay. An essay is a brief work that expresses a person’s thoughts and opinions.
In one essay, Montaigne pointed out that whenever a new belief arose, it replaced an old belief that people once accepted as truth. In the same way, he went on, the new belief would also probably be replaced by some different idea in the future. For these reasons, Montaigne believed that humans could never have absolute knowledge of what is true.

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

**Louis XIV Comes to Power**

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

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

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

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

**Louis Weakens the Nobles’ Authority** When Cardinal Mazarin died in 1661, the 22-year-old Louis took control of the government himself. He weakened the power of the nobles by excluding them from his councils. In contrast, he increased the power of the government agents called *intendants*, who collected taxes and administered justice. To keep power under central control, he made sure that local officials communicated regularly with him.

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

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

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

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**Reading Check**

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

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**Louis XIV**

(1638–1715)

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

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

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

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

Louis Controls the Nobility  Every morning, the chief valet woke Louis at 8:30. Outside the curtains of Louis’s canopy bed stood at least 100 of the most privileged nobles at court. They were waiting to help the great king dress. Only four would be allowed the honor of handing Louis his slippers or holding his sleeves for him.

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

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

—Duke of Saint-Simon, Memoirs of Louis XIV and the Regency

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

As you can see from the pictures, everything about the Versailles palace was immense. It faced a huge royal courtyard dominated by a statue of Louis XIV. The palace itself stretched for a distance of about 500 yards. Because of its great size, Versailles was like a small royal city. Its rich decoration and furnishings clearly showed Louis’s wealth and power to everyone who came to the palace.
The Palace at Versailles

Louis XIV’s palace at Versailles was proof of his absolute power. Only a ruler with total control over his country’s economy could afford such a lavish palace. It cost an estimated $3.3 billion in 2017 dollars. Louis XIV was also able to force 36,000 laborers and 6,000 horses to work on the project.

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

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

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

Interpret Visuals

1. Analyze Motives  Why do you think Louis XIV believed he needed such a large and luxurious palace? Explain what practical and symbolic purposes Versailles might have served.

2. Develop Historical Perspective  Consider the amount of money and effort that went into the construction of this extravagant palace. What does this reveal about the way 17th-century French society viewed its king?

3. Compare  How were Edo and Versailles similar to the people of each region?
Patron of the Arts  Versailles was a center of the arts during Louis's reign. Louis made opera and ballet more popular. He even danced the title role in the ballet *The Sun King*. One of his favorite writers was Molière (mohl•VAIR), who wrote some of the funniest plays in French literature. Molière’s comedies include *Tartuffe*, which mocks religious hypocrisy.

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

Louis Fights Disastrous Wars  
Under Louis, France was the most powerful country in Europe. In 1660, France had about 20 million people. This was four times as many as England and ten times as many as the Dutch Republic. The French army was far ahead of other states’ armies in size, training, and weaponry.

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

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

In 1689, the Dutch prince William of Orange became the king of England. He joined the League of Augsburg, which consisted of the Austrian Hapsburg emperor, the kings of Sweden and Spain, and the leaders of several smaller European states. Together, these countries equaled France’s strength.

France at this time had been weakened by a series of poor harvests. That, added to the constant warfare, brought great suffering to the French people. So, too, did new taxes, which Louis imposed to finance his wars.
War of the Spanish Succession  Tired of hardship, the French people longed for peace. What they got was another war. In 1700, the childless king of Spain, Charles II, died after promising his throne to Louis XIV’s 16-year-old grandson, Philip of Anjou. The two greatest powers in Europe, enemies for so long, were now both ruled by the French Bourbons.

Other countries felt threatened by this increase in the Bourbon dynasty’s power. In 1701, England, Austria, the Dutch Republic, Portugal, and several German and Italian states joined together to prevent the union of the French and Spanish thrones. The long struggle that followed is known as the War of the Spanish Succession.
The costly war dragged on until 1714. The Treaty of Utrecht was signed in that year. Under its terms, Louis’s grandson was allowed to remain king of Spain so long as the thrones of France and Spain were not united.

The big winner in the war was Great Britain. From Spain, Britain took Gibraltar, a fortress that controlled the entrance to the Mediterranean. Spain also granted a British company an asiento, permission to send enslaved Africans to Spain’s American colonies. This increased Britain’s involvement in trading enslaved Africans.

In addition, France gave Britain the North American territories of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, and abandoned claims to the Hudson Bay region. The Austrian Hapsburgs took the Spanish Netherlands and other Spanish lands in Italy. Prussia and Savoy were recognized as kingdoms.

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

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

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

![Bar graph showing the debt of the Royal Family from 1643 to 1715.](source: Early Modern France 1560–1715)

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

**Interpret Graphs**

1. **Compare** How many times greater was the royal debt in 1715 than in 1643?
2. **Synthesize** What was the royal debt of 1715 equal to in 1992 dollars?
On the negative side, constant warfare and the construction of the Palace of Versailles plunged France into staggering debt. Also, resentment over the tax burden imposed on the poor and Louis’s abuse of power would plague his heirs—and eventually lead to revolution.

Absolute rule didn’t die with Louis XIV. His enemies in Prussia and Austria had been experimenting with their own forms of absolute monarchy, as you will learn later.
Central European Monarchs Clash

The Big Idea
After a period of turmoil, absolute monarchs ruled Austria and the Germanic state of Prussia.

Why It Matters Now
Prussia built a strong military tradition in Germany that contributed in part to world wars in the twentieth century.

Key Terms and People
Thirty Years’ War
Maria Theresa
Frederick the Great
Seven Years’ War

Setting the Stage
For a brief while, the German rulers appeared to have settled their religious differences through the Peace of Augsburg (1555). They had agreed that the faith of each prince would determine the religion of his subjects. Churches in Germany could be either Lutheran or Catholic, but not Calvinist. The peace was short-lived, soon to be replaced by a long war. After the Peace of Augsburg, the Catholic and Lutheran princes of Germany watched each other suspiciously.

The Thirty Years’ War
Both the Lutheran and the Catholic princes tried to gain followers. In addition, both sides felt threatened by Calvinism, which was spreading in Germany and gaining many followers. As tension mounted, the Lutherans joined together in the Protestant Union in 1608. The following year, the Catholic princes formed the Catholic League. Now, it would take only a spark to set off a war.

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

Thus began the Thirty Years’ War, a conflict over religion and territory and for power among European ruling families. The war can be divided into two main phases: the phase of Hapsburg triumphs and the phase of Hapsburg defeats.

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

Ferdinand II paid his army of 125,000 men by allowing them to plunder, or rob, German villages. This huge army destroyed everything in its path.

**Hapsburg Defeats** The Hapsburg triumph would not last. In 1630, the Protestant Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden and his army shifted the tide of war. They drove the Hapsburg armies out of northern Germany. However, Gustavus Adolphus was killed in battle in 1632.

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

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

The Peace of Westphalia (1648) ended the war. The treaty had these important consequences:

- weakened the Hapsburg states of Spain and Austria
- strengthened France by awarding it German territory
- made German princes independent of the Holy Roman emperor
- ended religious wars in Europe
- introduced a new method of peace negotiation whereby all participants meet to settle the problems of a war and decide the terms of peace. This method is still used today.

**Beginning of Modern States** The treaty thus abandoned the idea of a Catholic empire that would rule most of Europe. It recognized Europe as a group of equal, independent states, sometimes called **nation-states**. This marked the beginning of the modern state system and was the most important result of the Thirty Years’ War. A nation-state is the only power within its borders that can have an army, and it governs on behalf of all of its people.

**States Form in Central Europe**

Strong states formed more slowly in central Europe than in western Europe. The major powers of this region were the kingdom of Poland, the Holy Roman Empire, and the Ottoman Empire. None of them was very strong in the mid-1600s.
Economic Contrasts with the West  One reason for this is that the economy of central Europe developed differently from that of western Europe. During the late Middle Ages, serfs in western Europe slowly won freedom and moved to towns. There, they joined middle-class townspeople, who gained economic power because of the commercial revolution and the development of capitalism.

By contrast, the landowning aristocracy in central Europe passed laws restricting the ability of serfs to gain freedom and move to cities. These nobles wanted to keep the serfs on the land, where they could produce large harvests. The nobles could then sell the surplus crops to western European cities at great profit.

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

The two empires of central Europe were also weak. Although Suleyman the Magnificent had conquered Hungary and threatened Vienna in 1529, the Ottoman Empire could not take its European conquest any farther. From then on, the Ottoman Empire declined from its peak of power.
In addition, the Holy Roman Empire was seriously weakened by the Thirty Years’ War. No longer able to command the obedience of the German states, the Holy Roman Empire had no real power. These old, weakened empires and kingdoms left a power vacuum in central Europe. In the late 1600s, two German-speaking families decided to try to fill this vacuum by becoming absolute rulers themselves.

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

In 1711, Charles VI became the Hapsburg ruler. Charles’s empire was a difficult one to rule. Within its borders lived a diverse assortment of people—Czechs, Hungarians, Italians, Croatians, and Germans. Only the fact that one Hapsburg ruler wore the Austrian, Hungarian, and Bohemian crowns kept the empire together.

**Maria Theresa Inherits the Austrian Throne** How could the Hapsburgs make sure that they continued to rule all those lands? Charles VI spent his entire reign working out an answer to this problem. With endless arm-twisting, he persuaded other leaders of Europe to sign an agreement that declared they would recognize Charles’s eldest daughter as the heir to all his Hapsburg territories. That heir was a young woman named Maria Theresa. In theory, this agreement guaranteed Maria Theresa a peaceful reign. Instead, she faced years of war. Her main enemy was Prussia, a state to the north of Austria. (See map: “Europe After the Thirty Years’ War, 1648.”)

**Prussia Challenges Austria**

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

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

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

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

**Frederick the Great** Frederick William worried that his son, Frederick, was not military enough to rule. The prince loved music, philosophy, and poetry. In 1730, when he and a friend tried to run away, they were caught. To punish Frederick, the king ordered him to witness his friend’s beheading. Despite such bitter memories, Frederick II, known as Frederick the Great, followed his father’s military policies when he came to power. However, he also softened some of his father’s laws. With regard to domestic affairs, he encouraged religious toleration and legal reform. According to his theory of government, Frederick believed that a ruler should be like a father to his people, for he is the head of a family of citizens.

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

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

**The Seven Years’ War** Maria Theresa decided that the French kings were no longer Austria’s chief enemies. She made an alliance with them. The result was a diplomatic revolution. When Frederick heard of her actions, he signed a treaty with Britain—Austria’s former ally. Now, Austria, France, Russia, and others were allied against Britain and Prussia. Not only had Austria and Prussia switched allies, but for the first time, Russia was playing a role in European affairs.
**Reading Check**
Clarify What steps did the Prussian monarchs take to become absolute monarchs?

**Lesson 3 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information** Make a table to show the ways Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great were similar rulers.

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2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Synthesize** What were the major conflicts in the Thirty Years’ War?

4. **Recognize Effects** How did the Peace of Westphalia lay the foundations of modern Europe?

5. **Analyze Motives** Why did Maria Theresa make an alliance with the French kings, Austria’s chief enemies?

6. **Draw Conclusions** Based on Frederick’s assumption about Maria Theresa at the outset of the War of the Austrian Succession, what conclusions can you draw about how men viewed women in 1700s Europe?

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

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

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**Maria Theresa**
(1717–1780)
An able ruler, Maria Theresa also devoted herself to her children, whom she continued to advise even after they were grown. Perhaps her most famous child was Marie Antoinette, wife of Louis XVI of France.

As the Austrian empress, Maria Theresa decreased the power of the nobility. She also limited the amount of labor that nobles could force peasants to do. She argued, “The peasantry must be able to sustain itself.”

**Frederick the Great**
(1712–1786)
Although they reigned during the same time, Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa were very different. Where Maria was religious, Frederick was practical and atheistic. Maria Theresa had a happy home life and a huge family, while Frederick died without a son to succeed him.

An aggressor in foreign affairs, Frederick once wrote that “the fundamental role of governments is the principle of extending their territories.” Frederick earned the title “the Great” by achieving his goals for Prussia.
Absolute Rulers of Russia

Setting the Stage
Ivan III of Moscow, who ruled Russia from 1462 to 1505, accomplished several things. First, he conquered much of the territory around Moscow. Second, he liberated Russia from the Mongols. Third, he began to centralize the Russian government. Ivan III was succeeded by his son, Vasily, who ruled for 28 years. Vasily continued his father’s work of adding territory to the growing Russian state. He also increased the power of the central government. This trend continued under his son, Ivan IV, who would become an absolute ruler.

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

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

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

Using these secret police, Ivan executed many boyars, their families, and the peasants who worked their lands. Thousands of people died. Ivan seized the boyars’ estates and gave them to a new class of nobles, who had to remain loyal to him or lose their land.
Eventually, Ivan committed an act that was both a personal tragedy and a national disaster. In 1581, during a violent quarrel, he killed his oldest son and heir. When Ivan died three years later, only his weak second son was left to rule.

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

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

**Peter the Great Comes to Power**

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

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**BIOGRAPHY**

**Peter the Great**

(1672–1725)

Peter the Great had the mind of a genius, the body of a giant, and the ferocious temper of a bear. He was so strong that he was known to take a heavy silver plate and roll it up as if it were a piece of paper. If someone annoyed him, he would knock the offender unconscious.

The painting represents Peter as he looked when he traveled through western Europe. He dressed in the plain clothes of an ordinary worker to keep his identity a secret.
Russia Contrasts with Europe  When Peter I came to power, Russia was still a land of boyars and serfs. Serfdom in Russia lasted into the mid-1800s, much longer than it did in western Europe. Russian landowners wanted serfs to stay on the land and produce large harvests. The landowners treated the serfs like property. When a Russian landowner sold a piece of land, he sold the serfs with it. Landowners could give away serfs as presents or to pay debts. It was also against the law for serfs to run away from their owners.

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

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

Peter Visits the West  In the 1680s, people in the German quarter of Moscow were accustomed to seeing the young Peter striding through their neighborhood on his long legs. (Peter was more than six and a half feet tall.) He was fascinated by the modern tools and machines in the foreigners’ shops. Above all, he had a passion for ships and the sea. The young czar believed that Russia’s future depended on having a warm-water port. Only then could Russia compete with the more modern states of western Europe.

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

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

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

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

Like Ivan the Terrible, Peter reduced the power of the great landowners. He recruited men from lower-ranking families. He then promoted them to positions of authority and rewarded them with grants of land.

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

Interpret Maps

1. Location: Locate the territories that Peter added to Russia during his reign, from 1682 to 1725. What bodies of water did Russia gain access to because of these acquisitions?

2. Region: Who added a larger amount of territory to Russia—Ivan III, who ruled from 1462 to 1505, or Peter the Great?
**Westernizing Russia** As part of his attempts to westernize Russia, Peter undertook the following:

- introduced potatoes, which became a staple of the Russian diet
- started Russia’s first newspaper and edited its first issue himself
- raised women’s status by having them attend social gatherings
- ordered the nobles to give up their traditional clothes for Western fashions
- advanced education by opening a school of navigation and introducing schools for the arts and sciences

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

**Establishing St. Petersburg** To promote education and growth, Peter wanted a seaport that would make it easier to travel to the West. Therefore, Peter fought Sweden to gain a piece of the Baltic coast. After 21 long years of war, Russia finally won the “window on Europe” that Peter had so desperately wanted.

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

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

**East Meets West**

In the East, Western influence would not only affect Russia. Other Eastern nations would give way—not always willingly—to the West and Western culture. In 1854, Japan was forced to open its doors to the United States. By 1867, however, Japan had decided to embrace Western civilization. The Japanese modernized their military based on the German and British models. They also adopted the American system of public education. China and Korea, on the other hand, would resist foreign intervention well into the 1900s.
For better or for worse, Peter the Great had tried to westernize and reform the culture and government of Russia. To an amazing extent he had succeeded. By the time of his death in 1725, Russia was a power to be reckoned with in Europe. Meanwhile, another great European power, England, had been developing a form of government that limited the power of absolute monarchs, as you will see later.

**Lesson 4 Assessment**

1. **Organize Information** Use a web to show important events that had an impact on modern Russia.

2. **Key Terms and People** For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Analyze Motives** Why did Peter the Great believe that Russia’s future depended on having a warm-water port?

4. **Synthesize** What were some of the ways Peter tried to westernize Russia?

5. **Support Opinions** Who do you think was more of an absolute monarch: Ivan the Terrible or Peter the Great? Explain.

6. **Draw Conclusions** Which class of Russian society probably didn’t benefit from Peter’s reforms? Why?

7. **Hypothesize** How might Peter’s attempts at westernization have affected his people’s opinion of Christians in western Europe?
Surviving the Russian Winter

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

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

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

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

TROIKA
To travel in winter, the wealthy often used sleighs called troikas. Troika means “group of three”; the name comes from the three horses that draw this kind of sleigh. The middle horse trotted while the two outside horses galloped.
▲ WINTER FESTIVAL
Russians have never let their climate stop them from having fun outdoors. Here, they are shown enjoying a Shrovetide festival, which occurs near the end of winter. Vendors sold food such as blinis (pancakes with sour cream). Entertainments included ice skating, dancing bears, and magic shows.

The people in the foreground are wearing heavy fur coats. Otter fur was often used for winter clothing. This fur is extremely thick and has about one million hairs per square inch.

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

FROSTY FACTS

- According to a 2001 estimate, Russian women spend about $500 million a year on fur coats and caps.
- The record low temperature in Asia of -90°F was reached twice, first in Verkhoyansk, Russia, in 1892 and then in Oimekon, Russia, in 1933.
- The record low temperature in Europe of -67°F was recorded in Ust’Shchugor, Russia.
- One reason for Russia’s cold climate is that most of the country lies north of the 45° latitude line, closer to the North Pole than to the Equator.

Average High Temperature for January, Russian Cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Temperature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moscow, Russia</td>
<td>21°F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perm, Russia</td>
<td>12°F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rostov, Russia</td>
<td>29°F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Worldclimate.com

Average High Temperature for January, U.S. Cities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Temperature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Los Angeles, California</td>
<td>66°F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minneapolis, Minnesota</td>
<td>21°F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York, New York</td>
<td>38°F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Worldclimate.com

Now and Then

1. **Make Inferences** In the 18th century, how did Russians use their natural resources to help them cope with the climate?
2. **Compare and Contrast** How has coping with winter weather changed from 18th-century Russia to today’s world? How has it stayed the same?
Parliament Limits the English Monarchy

Setting the Stage

During her reign, Queen Elizabeth I of England had had frequent conflicts with Parliament. Many of the arguments were over money because the treasury did not have funds to pay the queen’s expenses. By the time Elizabeth died in 1603, she had left a huge debt for her successor. Parliament’s financial power was one obstacle to English rulers’ becoming absolute monarchs. The resulting struggle between Parliament and the monarchy would have serious consequences for England.

Monarchs Defy Parliament

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

James’s Problems  James inherited the unsettled issues of Elizabeth’s reign. His worst struggles with Parliament were over money. In addition, James offended the Puritan members of Parliament. The Puritans hoped he would enact reforms to purify the English church of Catholic practices. Except for agreeing to a new translation of the Bible, however, he refused to make Puritan reforms.

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

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

   • He would not imprison subjects without due cause.
   • He would not levy taxes without Parliament’s consent.
Reading Check

Summarize Why did Charles defy Parliament again and again?

- He would not house soldiers in private homes.
- He would not impose martial law in peacetime.

After agreeing to the petition, Charles ignored it. Even so, the petition was important. It set forth the idea that the law was higher than the king. This idea contradicted theories of absolute monarchy. In 1629, Charles dissolved Parliament and refused to call it into session. To get money, he imposed fees and fines on the people. His popularity decreased yearly.

**English Civil War**

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

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

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

**The English Civil War, 1642–1645**

1. **Movement** Explain which side gained and which side lost territory during each year from 1643 to 1645.

2. **Place** Which side maintained control of London? Why would this be important?
At first neither side could gain a lasting advantage. However, by 1644 the Puritans found a general who could win—Oliver Cromwell. In 1645, Cromwell’s New Model Army began defeating the Cavaliers, and the tide turned toward the Puritans. In 1647, they held the king prisoner.

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

Cromwell’s Rule Cromwell now held the reins of power. In 1649, he abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords. He established a commonwealth, a republican form of government. Cromwell almost immediately had to put down a rebellion in Ireland. English colonization of Ireland had begun in the 1100s under Henry II. Henry VIII and his children had brought the country firmly under English rule in the 1500s. In 1649, Cromwell landed on Irish shores with an army and crushed the uprising. He seized the lands and homes of the Irish and gave them to English soldiers. Fighting, plague, and famine killed hundreds of thousands.
In 1653, Cromwell sent home the remaining members of Parliament. Cromwell’s associate John Lambert drafted a constitution, the first written constitution of any modern European state. This new government was called the Protectorate. Oliver Cromwell became the head of state, called the Lord Protector. The government united England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland under a single government, and gave all the nations a seat in the new British parliament. Under Cromwell, the Protectorate provided for a large army and navy.

Puritan Morality  In England, Cromwell and the Puritans sought to reform society. They made laws that promoted Puritan morality and abolished activities they found sinful, such as the theater, sporting events, and dancing. Although he was a strict Puritan, Cromwell favored religious toleration for all Christians except Catholics. He even allowed Jews to return; they had been expelled from England in 1290. Cromwell also promoted education, setting up many new schools, and he reduced punishments for minor crimes.

Restoration and Revolution

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

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

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

In addition, Parliament debated who should inherit Charles’s throne. Because Charles had no legitimate child, his heir was his brother James, who was Catholic. A group called the Whigs opposed James, and a group called the Tories supported him. These two groups were the ancestors of England’s first political parties.

James II and the Glorious Revolution  In 1685, Charles II died, and James II became king. James soon offended his subjects by displaying his Catholicism. Violating English law, he appointed several Catholics to high office. When Parliament protested, James dissolved it. In 1688, James’s second wife gave birth to a son. English Protestants became terrified at the prospect of a line of Catholic kings.
James had an older daughter, Mary, who was Protestant. She was also the wife of William of Orange, a prince of the Netherlands. Seven members of Parliament invited William and Mary to overthrow James for the sake of Protestantism. When William led his army to London in 1688, James fled to France. This bloodless overthrow of King James II is called the **Glorious Revolution**.

**Limits on Monarchs’ Power**

At their coronation, William and Mary vowed to recognize Parliament as their partner in governing. England had become not an absolute monarchy but a **constitutional monarchy**, where laws limited the ruler’s power.

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

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

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

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

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**DOCUMENT-BASED INVESTIGATION**

**Historical Source**

**The English Bill of Rights**

The English Bill of Rights, passed in 1689, placed limits on a monarch's powers.

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“*That the pretended power of suspending [canceling] of laws or the execution [carrying out] of laws by regal authority without consent of Parliament is illegal; . . . That it is the right of the subjects to petition [make requests of] the king, and all commitments [imprisonments] and prosecutions for such petitioning are illegal; That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of Parliament, is against the law; . . . That election of members of Parliament ought to be free [not restricted].”*

—English Bill of Rights
Now and Then

U.S. Democracy

Today, the United States still relies on many of the government reforms and institutions that the English developed during this period.

These include the following:

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

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

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

Lesson 5 Assessment

1. **Organize Information**  Use a table to show the patterns you find in the causes of conflicts with Parliament.

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

2. **Key Terms and People**  For each key term or person in the lesson, write a sentence explaining its significance.

3. **Draw Conclusions**  Why was the death of Charles I revolutionary?

4. **Evaluate Decisions**  In your opinion, which decisions by Charles I made his conflict with Parliament worse? Explain.

5. **Make Inferences**  Why do you think James II fled to France when William of Orange led his army to London?

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

7. **Contrast**  How might Cromwell’s rule be viewed differently by the Irish and the English?
Module 3 Assessment

Key Terms and People
For each term or name below, write a sentence explaining its connection to European history from 1500 to 1800.

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

Main Ideas

Spain’s Empire and European Absolutism
1. What three actions demonstrated that Philip II of Spain saw himself as a defender of Catholicism?
2. According to French writer Jean Bodin, should a prince share power with anyone else? Explain why or why not.

The Reign of Louis XIV
3. What strategies did Louis XIV use to control the French nobility?
4. In what ways did Louis XIV cause suffering to the French people?

Central European Monarchs Clash
5. What were six results of the Peace of Westphalia?
6. Why did Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great fight two wars against each other?
7. Critique the successes and failures of initiatives to establish international peace, such as the War of Spanish Succession, The War of Austrian Succession, and the Seven Years’ War.

Absolute Rulers of Russia
8. What were three differences between Russia and western Europe?
9. What was Peter the Great’s primary goal for Russia?

Parliament Limits the English Monarchy
10. List the causes, participants, and outcome of the English Civil War.
11. How did Parliament try to limit the power of the English monarchy?
12. A nation-state has three components: all citizens are members, it is the only power that can have armies, and its government acts on behalf of the people. According to this definition, was England, during the Protectorate, a nation-state? Why or why not?
Critical Thinking

1. **Use Your Notes** In a table, list actions that absolute monarchs took to increase their power. Then identify the monarchs who took these actions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions of Absolute Rulers</th>
<th>Monarchs Who Took Them</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Draw Conclusions** What benefits might absolute monarchs hope to gain by increasing their countries’ territory?

3. **Develop Historical Perspective** What conditions fostered the rise of absolute monarchs in Europe?

4. **Compare and Contrast** Compare the reign of Louis XIV with that of Peter the Great. Which absolute ruler had a more lasting impact on his country? Explain. Compare these absolute rulers with the rule of Tokugawa Ieyasu in Japan. How are they similar and different?

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

6. **Develop Historical Perspective** What steps did the Austrian Hapsburgs take toward becoming absolute monarchs?

7. **Compare and Contrast** How does a constitutional monarchy differ from an absolute monarchy? How is it similar?

8. **Hypothesize** How did Ivan the Terrible deal with his enemies during his “bad period”?

9. **Analyze** What rights were guaranteed by the Habeas Corpus Act?

Engage with History

Now that you have read about absolute rulers, what do you consider to be the main advantage and the main disadvantage of being an absolute ruler?

Focus on Writing

Reread the information on Oliver Cromwell. Then write a Biography, like the ones you’ve seen throughout this program, on Cromwell as a leader of a successful revolution. Be sure to include the following:

- his successes and failures as a leader
- biographical information about Cromwell
- vivid language to hold the reader’s attention

Multimedia Activity

Make a Video

Yet another revolution threatens the monarchy today in Great Britain. Some people would like to see the monarchy ended altogether. Find out what you can about this issue and choose a side. Present your findings—including images, tables, and an original political cartoon—in a video.