THE GIANT EHAP REVIEW OUTLINE!

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**THE RENAISSANCE**

\*The Causes of the Renaissance\*

- The Middle Ages, which began around 500 AD, finally came to an end around 1450 AD.

- Though the beginning of the Renaissance, which signaled the end of the Middle Ages, occurred in the city-states of Italy, the same reasons that caused the Renaissance to begin in Italy caused it to appear in the rest of Western Europe.

- The conditions that led to the Renaissance in Italy are as follows:

1. Because of the Crusades, and the new trade routes, Europeans began to come in contact with other, more advanced civilizations, which influenced them greatly.
2. The Church, due to the scandals that occurred, lost much of its power, and people began to doubt its authority.
3. Due to trade, the middle class grew, and people began to accumulate vast sums of money. They wanted to enjoy and show off their wealth, which led to a philosophy of enjoying this life instead of waiting for the next.
4. Competition between wealthy people for status led to developments in education and art, since wealthy people, wanting to be respected, would compete to see who was the most educated or had sponsored the most artists.
5. the rise of the middle class, combined with increased trade led to a rise in cities which made it easier for people to talk to each other about the new ideas of the Renaissance

**\*The Definition of the Renaissance\***

- The Renaissance (French Term) means the rebirth of culture. However, it would be more accurately put as the rebirth of ancient culture since the Middle Ages did have a form of culture, just not the same culture as the ancients.

- An essential element of the Renaissance was the beginning of **humanism**, which glorified the culture of Ancient Greece and Rome.

**\*The Four Aspects of Humanism\***

- Humanism was a new philosophy that really defined the Renaissance. Although it was an intellectual movement and didn’t really spread to most people, it had a huge impact on the age.

- Though many believe that humanism replaced religion in the Renaissance, in reality, the two coexisted. Most humanists were actually religious, and the only difference between the beliefs of church and of the humanists had was that the humanists believed that this life was important and should be enjoyed while the church did not, and felt that people should focus on awaiting the afterlife instead.

- Humanism consists of four essential aspects, which are as follows:

1. Admiration and emulation of the Ancient Greeks and Romans.
2. Philosophy of enjoying this life, instead of just waiting for the next one.
3. The glorification of humans and the belief that individuals are can do anything.
4. The belief that humans deserved to be the center of attention.

- Humanism also had a subdivision known as **civic humanism**. The civic humanists believed that participation in public affairs was essential for human development, and that individuals should not cut themselves off from society and study the world. Instead, they should help make changes in it by becoming a part of government. Eventually, the beliefs of the civic humanists spread to the humanists as a whole.

**\*The Humanists\***

- **Petrarch** - **Boccaccio –Dante all before 1450 wrote in vernacular**

- **Baldassare Castiglione** à writer who is best known for his novel, **The Courtier**, which, by taking the form of a conversation between the sophisticated men and women of a court in Urbino, became a manual of proper behavior for gentlemen and ladies for centuries to come.

- **Marsilio Ficino** à was a member of a new, later group of humanists called the **Neoplatonists**, who believed in studying the grand ideas in the work of Plato and other philosophers as opposed to leading the “active life” the civic humanists lead. Ficino believed that Plato’s ideas showed the dignity and immortality of the human soul.

**\*Humanist Art\***

- The area in which the humanists really excelled was art. Though some of the novels and essays written in the time have become classics, none of their writing (or any other area) ever came close to being as brilliant as their art.

- Also, during the Renaissance, great artists gained special recognition and prestige instead of simply being craftsmen.

- Architecture, sculpture and art emphasize humanity rather than God although still focused on God

- Humanity is represented as noble, full of potential and proud but not arrogant.  Humanity is not represented as heroic or triumphant until Rome

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| **\*Characteristics of Medieval Art\*** | **\*Characteristics of Renaissance Art\*** |
| - Paintings were lacking in depth and perspective.  - Paintings usually lacked a background.  - Always themed religiously and usually focusing on heaven or holy people.  - The paintings were not realistic, and made no sense  geometrically or mathematically.  - The subjects did not show any emotions, except for  calm or piety. | - Emulation of the Ancient Greeks and Romans.  - Good use of depth in paintings.  - **Linear** (further away = smaller)and **atmospheric**  (further away = hazier)perspective.  - Paintings began to have more detailed backgrounds.  - Not necessarily religious, more focus on earthly themes and humans.  - More realistic, geometrically precise and mathematically accurate.  - Subjects showing signs of more emotion.  - **Contraposto** posture, in which the subject is shifting  his or her balance. |

**\*Artists of the Early Renaissance\***

- **Giotto** à - **Masaccio** à (1401 – 1428) - **Brunelleschi** à (1377 – 1446)

- **Donatello** à (1386 – 1466) was mainly a sculptor whose focus was on the beauty of the human body. He made some of the first nude sculptures since the ancients.

**\*Artists of the High Renaissance\***

- **Leonardo** à (1452 – 1519) was a painter (and a scientist, writer, and inventor) whose paintings are remarkable for their technical perfection, in other words, for their good use of angles, perspective, and a detailed background.

- **Raphael** à (1483 – 1520) was a painter who used his mastery of perspective and ancient styles to produce works of harmony, beauty, and serenity and convey a sense of peace.

- **Michelangelo** à (1475 – 1564) was a painter who also experimented in poetry, architecture, and sculpture. Most of his work focuses on individuals who always give a sense of strength and ambition.

- **Titian** à (1479 – 1576) was a painter who painted scenes of luxury in such a vivid, immediate way that his paintings seem real to the viewer.  Lived in Venice and did his work after the sack of Rome in 1527

**Popes and Priests from the Renaissance**

Savonarola – turn from your evil ways and burn your evil books, paintings, and other stuff that.  Then Florence burned him in 1498

Alexander VI – weasel Borgia Pope who had multiple mistresses, multiple children and used the Papal office for money and pleasure.  Bad, bad boy.  Also put the Treaty of Tordesillas into place.

**Patrons to Know**

Pazzi family – Pazzi Chapel

Medici Family (Cosmo, Lorenzo, Julius II and others) – Library of San Marco, Leonardo, Michealangeol, Pope Julius II was Medici and commissioned Sistine Chapel and St Peter’s Basilica

**Wars from Italian Renaissance**

The Italian Wars –city states tried to extend their influence politically and militarily by alliances and small wars throughout the 1400s and early 1500s.  France and Spain also wanted to control Italy once it started making money from trade.  Italian city states often sided with France or Spain to gain influence and then double crossed each other.  Julius II extended the power of the Pope by fighting Venice and all of the petty fighting came to and end when Rome was sacked in 1527 by the Spanish and French troops.  Italy declined from the most important place in Europe to a nice place to watch the sunset while enjoying some pasta.

**BUILDING NATION STATES - THE CENTRALIZATION OF POLITICAL POWER**

*\*Existing System of Government in England in 1400*

- Local administration à members of the gentry (not technically members of the nobility, but still had large estates and were dominant political figures) were chosen to become JPs. The JPs were voluntary unpaid officials that served as the principal public servant in the more than forty counties. Since the gentry wanted appointments for reasons of status, the king could always count on their support.

- Lawmaking à though the Parliament grew in power, it always remained subordinate to the crown. Nevertheless, the English kings knew that they couldn’t take severe measures without its consent. The Parliament contributed to the unification of the country, even though it took away power from kings.

- Judiciary à the common law (based on the interpretations and precedents made by individual judges), not Roman law was in effect, and traveling judges administered it. This helped unify the country as well.

**\*Changes made by Henry VII and Henry VIII\***

- **Henry VII** à founder of the Tudor dynasty, Henry VII came to power shortly after the War of Roses, a civil war that weakened the nobles greatly. He was a conservative, and strengthened the crown by applying the traditional methods, such as:

1. He carefully built up funds without overtaxing his subjects; he put collection and revenue in the hands of a small, efficient group of his officials. Avoided foreign entanglements.
2. He increased the power of the JPs and had the Star Chamber (a group of royal councilors) resume hearing appeals, which strengthened royal power and decreased noble power because nobles could no longer control the local courts.

- **Henry VIII** à tended to enact more radical measures than did his father, such as:

1. In 1513 he beat invading Scottish army @ Flodden, near England’s north border.
2. Decided to break with the Roman Catholic Church after advice from Thomas Cromwell. This had the effect of stimulating the economy since church funds stayed in the country and the church lands were annexed. It also greatly strengthened the Parliament and gave it more responsibility.
3. The break with the Church also had the effect of making a reorganization of the administration necessary. They made six departments, each with specific functions. Cromwell was the executive of the councils. A Privy Council was also established, consisting of the king’s advisers.

**\*Existing System of Government in France in 1450\***

- Local administration à there was no real system for local government, and aristocrats were virtually independent rulers until the new monarchs came along.

- Royal administration à had three departments: the Chancery (had charge of formal documents), the Treasury ($), and the Parlement of France (the court of law). Roman law was used, helped the king because the monarch was able to issue ordinances.

- Lawmaking à representative assemblies, known as Estates, limited the throne’s power because the estates had to approve measures made by the king before they were enacted. The throne was forced to negotiate with the estates, especially to raise taxes. Nevertheless, the Estates never were as powerful as the English Parliament. The taxes (the sales tax, hearth tax, and salt tax) all went to the crown and after 1451, they could be collected on the king’s authority alone.

- Army à unlike the English, they had a standing army that was rarely used but always a threat, so it increased the king’s power. However, it took an enormous amount of funding.

**\*Changes made by Louis XI and Charles VIII\***

- **Louis XI** à began his reign after the Hundred Years War, which weakened the crown. At the beginning of his reign, there was anarchy, and the king had no power. However, changes he made reestablished the crown’s power. For example:

1. He beat Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy, who was Charles V great-grandfather (ick!) and he then reannexed Burgundy except for the Low Countries, which the duke’s daughter kept.
2. Nicknamed “the spider” because, using his diplomatic tactics, he annexed so much crap.

- **Charles VIII** à he began the invasion of Italy, which was eventually a failure, since the Hapsburgs kicked his butt. However, it did provide a distraction for the restless and aggressive nobles.

**\*Changes made by Louis XII, Francis I and Henri II\***

- **Louis XII** à began reign after Charles VIII and before Francis I. He made many changes, including:

1. He increased the size and complexity of the administration.
2. Adopted the sale of offices (simony) that stimulated social mobility and corruption.
3. Due to the fact that the clergy and nobles were exempt from taxation, the crown was forced to rely on the lower classes, which couldn’t provide enough money to upkeep the standing army and the country. So, under Louis XII, the country began taking loans from banks (Fugger).

- **Francis I** à took over after Louis XII, made most changes of any new monarch in France, such as:

1. Gaining power over the Church with the Concordat of Bologna (1516), which allowed him to make appointments, and, though it was not stated, it effectively allowed him to control the Church without breaking from it (see Henry VIII).
2. He began a major reorganization of the government. He legalized the sale of offices, formed and inner council and centralized all tax gathering and accounting responsibilities in 1523.
3. He passed the *lit de justice*, which states that if an assembly is delaying passing a monarch’s law the monarch can then appear before the assembly and make it the law.
4. During his reign the Estates General stopped meeting and consequently lost influence.
5. After his reign, the monarchy was the strongest that it had ever been. Unfortunately, the advent of the Reformation screwed everything up again – Calvinism!

- **Henry II** à son of Francis I. Under his rule, the French finally lost the Italian war to the Hapsburgs.

**\*Existing System of Government in Spain\***

- The Iberian Peninsula was divided into three different sections, as follows:

1. Portugal à in midst of its overseas exploration.
2. Castile à the largest and richest area. It was still fighting the Muslims on its Southern frontier. This led to nobles gaining a lot of political power.
3. Aragon à small area same size as Portugal.

- In October 1469 Isabella of Castile married Ferdinand of Sicily, which led to a ten-year civil war which the two monarchs won.

**\*Changes made by Ferdinand and Isabella\***

- Although Ferdinand and Isabella made no attempt to form a monolithic state (all united) they did somewhat unify Spain into a federation where the nobles lost power.

- Each province was treated differently, and changes were made as follows:

1. Aragon à remained a federation of territories administered by viceroys who were appointed by the king but allowed local customs to remain intact. Each province was allowed to keeps its own representative assembly, called the Cortes.
2. Castile à in Castile, they were determined to assert their superiority and restore order to the countryside (which was screwed up by civil wars). They did this by establishing the Cortes of Castile, an assembly dominated by urban representatives who shared the wish for order since peace helped trade. The Cortes also had tribunals to try criminals.

- They also made general changes, such as:

1. They overhauled the entire administration by saying that “ability rather than social status should determine appointments.” They kicked out the nobles as local administrators, and replaced them with people from a lesser class of nobility called the *hidalgos* (similar to gentry in England) who occupied positions called *corregidors*, which were local judicial officers.
2. They weakened the clergy and after they got rid of the Muslims in 1492, the Pope allowed them to make appointments. So, by Charles V’s reign they had power over the church.
3. Also, in 1478, the Pope granted them the power to have an independent Inquisition to kick out all non-Christians, such as the Muslims and Jews. Without other religions, Spain was more united. Plus, the Inquisition, like the Italian wars, kept the nobles busy.
4. They instituted a sales tax so revenues increased. They were able to this because, like the French, the Spanish taxes could be raised without the Cortes consent.
5. They instituted Castilian law, which all came from the throne and was similar to Roman law.
6. After Isabella’s death, Ferdinand concentrated on foreign affairs and reannexed several provinces from France and entered the war in Italy, which under Charles V (Hapsburg) they won against Henry II of France. They won because they had the best standing army.

**Part II 2006-07 AP European History**

**\*The Holy Roman Empire under Charles V\***

- Charles V was the king of Spain but the Cortes didn’t like him because he requested additional tax funds so that he could take the Spanish troops and try to unify the HRE. So, effectively, he wasted all of Spain’s $ from the new world on stupid wars! Naturally, when Charles V left for war, the poor people revolted but the nobles put down the rebellion before Charles V came back. The nobles sided against the peasants only because along with attacking Charles, they attacked the nobles.

- After the uprising, he kept his administration entirely Spanish. While he was fighting outside wars, he relied entirely on a skilled administrator, Francisco de los Cobos, who enlarged the administration and the system of councils. He made two types of councils, one of each department of government and the other for each territory ruled. At the head was the Council of State. A federation emerged, like US.

- Though corruption was widespread, centralization gave monarch lots of power. Spain’s administration was the most detailed, though it was not always the most efficient.

- Charles’ major problem was $ because he wasted all of it on his stupid wars (like the one against the Ottomans, and all the ones against the Schmalkaldic League in HRE) in Europe. Since Aragon was more independent, the entire tax burden fell on Castile, but Castile did get a monopoly of trade with the New World, which gave them lots of silver. However, the monopoly eventually led to foreign domination since no one else could get the $. Consequently, Philip II had to declare Spain bankrupt several times because of the wars.

**THE REFORMATION**

\*The Short Term Causes of the Reformation\*

- **John Wycliffe** à (1320 – 1384) was an English reformer who argued that the Church was becoming too remote from the people and advocated for simplification of its doctrines and less power for the priests. He believed that only the Scriptures declared the will of God and questioned **transubstantiation**, the ability of the priests to perform a miracle turning the wine and bread into Christ’s blood and body. His views were branded heretical, but he was able to survive in hiding though his remains were dug up by the Church in 1428 and burned. He left an underground movement called the **Lollards** who faced constant persecution.

**- Jan Hus** à (1369 – 1415) was a Bohemian who argued that priests weren’t a holy group, claiming instead that the Church was made up of all of the faithful. He questioned transubstantiation, and said that the priest and the people should all have both the wine and the bread. He was burned at the stake in 1415, but his followers, led by **Zizka**, raised an army and won against the emperor, who let them to set up their own church (the Utraquist Church) in which both the wine and bread were eaten by all.

**- The Avignon Exile and Great Schism** à were both events that greatly undermined both the power and prestige of the Church, and made many people begin to question its holiness and the absolute power of the Papacy. People realized that the Church was a human institution with its own faults.

**- The Printing Press** à before the invention of the printing press in the mid-1400s, many people didn’t have access to information or changes in religious thought except through word of mouth and the village *viellées*. With the printing press, new ideas, and the dissatisfaction with the church, could spread quickly, and people could read the Bible for themselves.

\*The Long Term Causes of the Reformation\*

**-** The growth in the power of the secular king and the decrease in the power of the Pope.

- The popular discontent with the seemingly empty rituals of the Church.

- The movement towards more personal ways of communicating with God, called lay piety.

- The fiscal crisis in the Church that led to corruption and abuses of power – IMPORTANT!

**\*Abuses of Church Power\***

- **Simony** à the sale of Church positions, which quickly led to people becoming Church officials purely for economic motives, and not for spiritual ones.

- **Indulgences** à the sale of indulgences was the biggest moneymaker for the Church. When a person paid for an indulgence, it supposedly excused the sins they had committed (the more $, the more sins forgiven) even without them having to repent. Indulgences could even be bought for future sins not yet committed and for others, especially those who had just died, and were supposed to make a person’s passage into heaven faster.

- **Dispensations** à payments that released a petitioner from the requirements of the canon law.

- **Incelebacy** à church officials getting married and having children.

- **Pluralism** à having more than one position at a time.

- **Nepotism** à control by a particular family.

**\*The Definition of the Reformation\***

- The Reformation was the final splitting of the Western Church into two halves.

- The two branches of the Church were Catholicism and Protestantism.

**\*Martin Luther\***

- Luther (1483 – 1546) was born into a middle class family in Saxony, Germany. He got a good education and began studying law. After almost being hit by lightning, he decided to become a monk.

- As a monk, he became obsessed with his own sinfulness, and pursued every possible opportunity to earn worthiness in God’s eyes (for example, self-flagellation) but he was still not satisfied, for he felt that God would never forgive a sinner like himself.

- Finally, he had an intense religious experience that led him to realize that **justification in the eyes of God was based on faith alone** and **not on good works and sacraments.**

­- Then, in 1517, he saw a friar named Johann Tetzel peddling indulgences and claiming that by buying them, people could save themselves time in the purgatory. Since he said that by buying the indulgences, people could excuse sins, people were coming to buy the indulgences in droves. This outraged Luther, and on **October 31st, 1517** he posted his **Ninety-Five Theses** on the church door.

- The theses explained that the Pope could remit only the penalties he or canon law imposed, and that for other sins, the faithful had only to sincerely repent to obtain an indulgence, not pay the Church.

- The theses made the profits from the indulgences drop off, and angered the order that supported Tetzel. Luther and the rival monks began to have theological discussions, which were at first ignored.

- But, by 1520 Luther had written three radical pamphlets:

1. *An Address to the Christian Nobility of the German Nation* à made a patriotic appeal to Germans to reject the foreign Pope’s authority.
2. *The Babylonian Captivity* à attacked the belief that the seven sacraments were the only means of attaining grace, saying that only two, baptism and the Eucharist (which were mentioned in the Bible) were important.
3. *The Liberty of the Christian Man* à explained his principle of salvation by faith alone.

**\*The Diet of Worms\***

- Luther’s writings could no longer be ignored, and, in 1520, Pope Leo the Fifth excommunicated him, and Luther responded by calling the Pope an anti-Christ. So, Charles the Fifth ordered him to offer his defense against the decree at a Diet of the Empire at Worms.

- At Worms, Luther refused to retract his statements, asking to be proved wrong with the Bible. So, Charles ordered that Luther be arrested and his works burned, but Prince Frederick of Saxony came to Luther’s aid and allowed Luther to hide in his castle. There, Luther established the Lutheran doctrines.

\*Lutheran Doctrine and Practice\*

- Codified in the **Augsburg Confession** the Lutheran beliefs are as follows:

1.      Justification by faith alone, or the belief that faith alone, without the sacraments or good works, leads to an individual’s salvation.

1. The Bible as the only authority, not any subsequent works.
2. All people are equally capable of understanding God’s word as expressed in the Bible and can gain salvation without the help of an intermediary.
3. No distinction between priests and laity.
4. Consubstantiation (the presence of the substance and Christ coexist in the wafer and wine and no miracle occurs) instead of transubstantiation.
5. A simplified ceremony with services not in Latin.

\*The Appeal of Protestantism\*

- Appeal to the peasants:

1. Message of equality in religion, which they extended to life in general.
2. A simplified religion with fewer rituals, which made it easier to understand.
3. Luther rebelled, which inspired many of them to do the same.

- Appeal to the nobles:

1. No tithe to pay, so $ stays in the country.
2. Since they are against Charles for political reasons, they can justify it by becoming Protestant.
3. No more church owned land, so they can get more land.
4. No tithe for peasants, so they can tax them more.

- Appeal to the middle class:

1. No tithe to pay, so more $ for them.
2. Now they can read the Bible and interpret it in their own way.
3. Concept of individualism – you are your own priest.

\*Other Forms of Protestantism\*

- **Zwingli** à (1484 – 1531) had beliefs very similar to Luther, except that he believed that NONE of the sacraments bestowed grace, and that they were purely symbolic. He also felt that for people to lead godly lives, they had to be constantly disciplined and threatened – Calvinism without predestination.

- **Radicals** à many radical sects broke out, and after Munster (where a sect called the Melchiorties gained political control of the city and began to establish a heavenly Jerusalem on earth) they were all persecuted. Since some believed that Baptism should only be administered to adults who asked to be baptized, they were all called the *Anabaptists* (rebaptisers).

- **Calvin** à (1509 – 1564) formed the second wave of the Reformation. Though Lutheranism and Calvinism both believed in people’s sinfulness, salvation by faith alone, that all people were equal in God’s eyes and that people should follow existing political authority, Calvin believed in **predestination** or the concept that God, being all knowing, already knows if a person is going to go to heaven and become part of the elect or not. Though behavior on earth technically had no effect on the decision, it was established that moral people tended to be part of the elect. Calvinist communities were model places, with very strict moral codes that were vehemently imposed. The church and its doctrines were also very well defined in the *Institutes of the Christian Religion* and all Calvinists were supposed to make their communities worthy of the future elect.

*England in the 17th Century*

\*Elizabeth I (1558 – 1603)\*

- Queen Elizabeth was a skillful queen who was very able to sense the mood of her people, and very good at using propaganda to promote her image.

- She was a very successful queen, and the only issue she left unresolved was the question of succession. However, at the last minute, her Scottish cousin James I was chosen.

**\***James I (1603 – 1625)\*

**-** In 1603, James took over and was greeted eagerly as he traveled from Scotland to London. However, both the religious controversy and the conflict between the king and Parliament were unresolved, and soon began to cause trouble for the new king.

- James was a complete believer in *divine right monarchy* or the belief that that kings rule by divine right and should have absolute power. He believed Parliament was unnecessary.

- **Millenary Petition** à petition given to James as soon as he reached the capital signed by 1,000 churchmen which asked James to move the Anglican Church further away from Catholicism (no popery, no bishops) and to simply and “purify” the services instead. James responded by saying simply, “No bishop, no King,” because he felt that the bishops, as traditional figures of authority should stay, since otherwise people could also begin questioning his authority.

- **Gunpowder Plot** à plot by Catholics to assassinate king and Parliament whose discovery raised a lot of anti-Catholic sentiment in England.

- **Foreign Policy under James I** à James wisely kept England out of the Thirty Years War (though this made some Englishmen unhappy since it was seen as a failure to support the Protestant cause) and he even tried to make peace with Spain by attempting to marry his son, Charles I, to a Spanish princess (which enraged the public). However, the Spanish turned Charles I down, which sparked a conflict. Instead, Charles was married to Henrietta Marie of France, another Catholic. But, just as the war against Spain began, James died and Charles took over.

\*Charles I (1625 – 1649)\*

- Though Charles was sure that the war would unite the country under his leadership, it actually provided Parliament with more opportunities to force him to make concessions, since he needed to tax to support the war and Parliament’s approval was needed for new taxation.

- Several Parliaments were called and dissolved in rapid succession for the king was unwilling to concede on the issue of Buckingham. Finally, in 1628, Parliament had enough of the king’s behavior (he was illegally forcing loans from people in order to avoid relying on Parliament for $) and decided to draw up a petition stating their traditional rights.

- **The Petition of Right** à passed in 1628 (Charles simply agreed to be able to get more $), it stated the rights of Parliament, such as:

1. Due Process of Law (Habeas Corpus)
2. No taxation w/out Parliament’s consent.
3. No billeting of troops.
4. Parliament must be called frequently (not specific).

- Though Charles accepted the Petition, in reality, like his father, he was an absolutist.

- Next, Parliament moved to impeach Buckingham, which the king objected to, so he dissolved Parliament. The duke was then assassinated, and the king called the Parliament back into session expecting more cooperation. Parliament, however, was angry because, under his wife’s influence, Charles had begun to favor the High Church and not enforce the laws against popery.

- So, in 1629, Parliament tried to enact laws against Catholics to reverse the drift towards the High Church. Charles was unable to stop them since he was in desperate need of $ to support the war against Spain, but he finally decided to dismiss Parliament, and sent word to the Speaker of the House of Commons, who was supposed to immediately give up his chair. Instead, the infuriated members of the House forced the speaker back into the chair and passed three quick anti-Catholic resolutions.

- Charles was enraged and dissolved Parliament, swearing he would never call another one.

- So, for 11 years Charles attempted to rule completely w/out Parliament. Since Parliament had no way to call itself back into session, the only weapon it had against Charles was public opinion.

- Because of four events, public opinion gradually shifted towards Parliament. The events were:

1. Charles’ treatment of his opponents à for example, John Eliot’s imprisonment in the tower of London until he apologized, which he never did.
2. Archbishop Laud à appointed by the king, the archbishop was a zealous believer in the High Church who was strongly against Puritans (imposed Anglican Prayer Book).
3. Ship $ Case à to raise $, the king spread a tax that was formerly only applicable to coastal towns to all towns, which Parliament considered a violation of their rights.
4. The imposition of the Anglican Prayer Book which lead to a Scottish rebellion.

- Since putting down the rebellion required $, Charles was forced to call Parliament.

- **Short Parliament** à because the Parliament demanded concessions, it was quickly dissolved.

- **Long Parliament** à again, Charles was forced to call a Parliament, and although most of his opponents from the Short Parliament were reelected, he was forced to pass the following to get $:

1. Bill of Attainder against Strafford (king’s chief advisor) that demanded Strafford’s death.
2. Bill of Attainder against Archbishop Laud (who would die after 4 years imprisonment).
3. Law that gave up king’s right to dissolve Parliament.
4. Triennial Act à required having Parliament meet every three years.
5. No taxation w/o Parliament’s approval (taxes that had been passed that way declared illegal).
6. The abolishment of the Star Chamber.
7. Impeachment of Bishops in Anglican Church.

- Just as the Parliament was getting ready to impeach the queen, Charles had enough and entered the chamber with a section of the army to arrest the leaders, but they had already left. This began a civil war. Charles’ last chance for peace was to sign the 19 Propositions, which would state Parliament’s superiority, but he refused to sign, so civil war began!

\*Civil War\*

- The civil war consisted of two phases, which were as follows:

1. King vs. Parliament (1642 – 1646) à the king quickly raised an army of mercenaries, while Parliament allowed Cromwell to take over and form the New Model Army, which won.
2. Parliament vs. Parliament’s Army (1646 – 1649) à Cromwell splits from most of the Parliament since he is an Independent (believes in freedom of religions) and they are strictly Puritans. So, everyone joins against Cromwell, but he still wins.

\*England Under Cromwell\*

- Cromwell executed the king in 1649, saying he was not to be trusted, and then purged Parliament of all dissenters (600 à 60 people, called Romp Parliament) which got him firmly in control.

- Cromwell soon became a military dictator, and he divided England into 12 military districts that were ruled by martial law. However, he was unable to make any lasting changes.

- He was far ahead of his time in his religious toleration (which was limited, since it didn’t include Catholics and Anglicans, but was still remarkable for the time) but did not believe in democratic rule.

- **Levellers** à faction that wanted all people to vote.

- **Diggers** à faction that wanted all people to vote and wanted to share all the wealth equally.

- Cromwell disagreed with both the levellers and the diggers.

- After Cromwell died, his son Richard was unable to maintain power so Charles II was summoned back from France and the monarchy was restored.

\*Charles II (1660 – 1685)\*

- Nicknamed “The Merry Monarch” Charles II was very easygoing and had no problem with compromising with Parliament. After the interregnum both parties were eager to compromise.

- **The Treaty of Dover** à in 1670, Charles II secretly signed the treaty with France. The treaty stated that, in exchange for military support (against the Dutch) and $, Charles would try to convert England back to Catholicism and to convert back to Catholicism himself.

- **The Declaration of Indulgence** à in 1672, w/out consulting Parliament, Charles issued a Declaration of Indulgence, in which he promised not to enforce the laws against Catholics and the non-Conformists (they were simply included to mask Charles’ pro-Catholic sentiment). Parliament saw through the trick, however, and demanded that the king retract the declaration, which he did.

- **Test Act** à in response, Parliament passed the Test Act in 1673, which prohibited anyone who had not had an Anglican communion from entering into the army or public service. The law was aimed at excluding Catholics. Charles allowed the law to be passed, but his used his powers of dispensation to sneak some Catholics into public service anyhow.

\*James II (1685 – 1688)\*

- Before James became king, a rebellion caused by the Popish Plot (a hoax that stated that there was going to be an assassination of Charles II to bring James II, a Catholic, to the throne, and that James was going to convert the country back) called the Monmouth Rebellion occurred, which was easily put down. Public opinion of James was still high, though James’ brutal handling of the rebels after they were caught somewhat angered and worried the public.

- The first thing James II did was to immediately declare that he was a Catholic and that he was going to try to convert the country back to Catholicism (what a moron). He also, stupidly enough, revealed the details of the Treaty of Dover.

- Next, he tried to romanize (convert back to Catholicism) Oxford and Cambridge, as well as the army. He romanized the army using his powers of dispensation, and he did so because he felt that the only real source of power was the army, and in order to control the army, he knew he needed to have Catholic, not Protestant, officers.

- Finally, he passed a *Declaration of Indulgence* that was ignored, so he passed another law forcing every bishop to read it in church. Seven bishops, however, refused to obey, and they were put on trial, and found not guilty (to the king’s astonishment and anger).

- Still, after all James’ stupidity, Parliament was still reluctant to revolt since they remembered what had happened last time and did not want to repeat the same mistake. Also, since James was getting old and his three daughters were Protestants, they figured that he would die soon and England would once again have a Protestant ruler.

- However, James’ wife became pregnant, which was a miracle at her age, and actually gave birth to a *healthy baby boy* – something that totally changed the scene for Parliament (Oh No!). Parliament, knowing it had to act right away, asked William of Orange (married to Mary, daughter of James) to invade and take over, which he did. The king fled w/out a fight as his top general, John Churchill, deserted him the night before the battle and joined the other side.

\*The Glorious Revolution\*

- So, in 1688, William and Mary take over as comonarchs. William of Orange, the leader of the Dutch who is fighting the French, was so thankful to be able to take over England because of its military strength that he did not mind being a limited, not an absolute, monarch.

- Then, Parliament passes the *Bill of Rights* a statement that, once and for all, establishes Parliament’s supremacy. Also, to please William, Parliament finally passes the *Act of Toleration*.

*The Scientific Revolution*

\*Definition of the Scientific Revolution\*

- The Scientific Revolution (1543 – 1687) was a period of time in which many breakthrough discoveries were made in science and philosophy, as well as an era in which the Europeans’ perception of the universe and their role in it was changed forever.

- Although the SR began by only affecting the scientific and intellectual elite (5 % of the population or so) the concepts that originated during the SR eventually spread to all of the population.

\*Science Before the Scientific Revolution\*

- Prior to the SR, all scientific concepts came from either the Bible or ancient scientists. Since, during the Middle Ages, most of the works of other ancient scientists were lost, Aristotle, Ptolemy, and Galen became the only, and therefore ultimate, authorities, on their fields. The old beliefs came from:

1. **The Bible** à naturally, the main source of information, in all respects, was the Bible, whose teachings were taken literally (for example, if a story stated that the world stopped spinning, Europeans believed that the world actually did stop spinning).
2. **Aristotle** à was the greatest philosopher of ancient times. He was viewed as the absolute authority on physics, although many of his theories were clearly wrong! His theories included the belief that there was *no movement without a mover* (which fit in perfectly with church philosophy since it made it obvious that God was necessary to move the Earth) and that *in their natural state all objects were at rest* (i.e. all objects wish to be at rest, motion is an unnatural state which must be accounted for by an outside force at all times). He explained motion by the fact that each of the four elements (earth, air, fire and water) wished to return to its natural place (for example, a stone falls because it wants to return to the earth). Air and fire, he said, always wished to go upwards and earth and water wished to fall downwards. Aristotle believed in *teleological* (based on the fact that everything is made for a purpose).
3. **Ptolemy** à a great astronomer from ancient times, he stated that the earth was the center of the universe and that the sun and all the planets moved around in *crystalline spheres*. Since this alone was not able to mathematically explain *retrograde motion* Ptolemy added in *epicycles* (circles within circles), which, through some very complicated calculations, could approximate planetary motion.
4. **Galen** à though his influence was far lesser than that of Aristotle and Ptolemy, Galen’s medical and anatomical theories dominated the scientific world for years even though they were proved wrong by dissections.

\*Causes of the Scientific Revolution\*

- One cause was that scientists were simply beginning to take note of the inadequacies of the standard theories, and, although they greatly preferred to make slight changes to the theories (vs. abandoning them) some scientists were beginning to question the old authorities.

- Still, it is unlikely that the scientists would have challenged the established theories without the influence of the other ancient scientists, especially Archimedes, (who were rediscovered during the Renaissance due to the humanists’ efforts to find ancient works) that disagreed with the old theories.

- Another influence was the interest in what is now regarded as magic, but was then seen as serious science. These branches of science included alchemy and astrology, and were linked by the belief that the world could be understood through several secret truths (like Neoplatonism). These sciences contributed to the outpouring of new ideas, the questioning of the old theories, and the use of math.

- Lastly, the European interest in technology both stimulated and made possible the SR. New instruments and devices (printingpress, telescope, vacuum pump, thermometer, barometer and microscope), often made for other purposes, were used in science and made possible many of the new discoveries. The interest in technology was actually stimulated by the competition between the different nations b/c applied technology was used in warfare.

\*The Major Scientific Discoveries\*

- **Nicolaus Copernicus** (1473 – 1543) à was a Polish priest and astronomer who shook the foundations of European beliefs. He challenged Ptolemy’s system simply because it was *too complex* and he felt that there had to be a better system mathematically. So, based on mathematics, he developed a new, sun-centered system that placed earth as the third planet rotating around the sun. This system eventually ended up requiring complex mathematics as well, but Copernicus was a great mathematician who easily defended his theory. Copernicus even began developing the concept of gravity, for he stated that *large masses have their own attractive forces*. However, he kept the crystalline spheres and did not account for the stars. His major work was *The Revolution of Heavenly Bodies* (1543 – start of scientific revolution), which, fearing the Church, he did not publish until his deathbed. The book sparked a major controversy, but, because of the Church, it was dangerous to express Copernican views openly.

*-* **Giordano Bruno** (1548 – 1600)à though Bruno did not actually develop any additionally theories, he made the mistake of openly supporting Copernicus and ridiculing the old philosophy. The church arrested him, and after his refusal to recant, burned him at the stake, making him a lesson for others.

- **Tycho Brahe** (1546 – 1601)à stargazer who meticulously recorded star data for years.

- **Johann Kepler** (1571 – 1630) à a brilliant mathematician who developed the first theories of motion. With the aid of Brahe’s star data (which he acquired since he was Brahe’s assistant), Kepler came of with the theory that the planets moved in ellipses, and that they did not move at a steady rate. Instead, as they came closer to the sun, they accelerated, and they slowed down as they moved away. So, Kepler’s First Law of Motion stated that the planets moved in elliptical orbits, and his Second Law stated that the planets sweep though an equal area of space in an equal amount of time.

- **Galileo Galilei** (1564 – 1642)à was the first scientist to use the telescope. With the telescope, he saw Jupiter’s moons (the existence of which proved that not everything orbited the earth, as was previously thought) and the craters on the moon (which proved that heaven was not perfect). Based on his observations, Galileo concluded that the principles of terrestrial physics could be applied to the heavens as well. In 1610, he wrote the *Starry Messenger* and subsequently got in trouble with the Spanish Inquisition, which stated that it was not allowed to openly support Copernicus. So, in 1632, he wrotethe *Dialogue on the Two Great World Systems* (supposedly a work of fiction, but obviously supported Copernicus). But this did not fool the church, for they forced him to recant in 1633 and made him spend the last years of his life under house arrest. There, he developed his *Theory of Inertia*, which stated that things in motion remain in motion unless acted upon by another force (implies that God is not necessary to move planets), which he published in *The Two New Sciences* in 1638. Galileo is really considered to be the first modern scientist, for he developed the scientific method of experimentation and was one of the first *mechanists* (how, not why).

- **Isaac Newton** (1642 – 1727)à brought to a climax all the previous works in his masterpiece, *The Principia*, which described three laws of motion (in the absence of force, motion continues in a straight line; the rate of change of the motion is determined by the forces acting on it; action and reaction between two bodies are equal and opposite) and a law of *universal gravitation* (which applied the concept of gravity to both the earth and the heavens). Newton also supported observation and experimentation, and helped further develop the scientific method.

\*The New Epistemologies\*

- The SR allowed many new epistemologies (theories of knowledge) to develop. First, the belief in *mechanism*, which stated that scientists should question how (not why) things worked, became more widespread, especially through Galileo and Newton. The opposite philosophy to mechanism is *teleology*, which stated that everything is made for a purpose, and was used by Aristotle.

- Mainly, however, the discoveries helped the scientific method develop. The scientific method, which was a new theory on how to obtain and verify knowledge, stressed experience, reason, and doubt and rejected all unsubstantiated authority. The scientific method revolutionized science, and made measurement of data, and mathematics, essential parts of science. From the SR onwards, science was based on pure fact – the acquisition of data and the testing of theories.

- The scientific method was actually a combination of two theories of knowledge:

1.      **Empiricism** (a.k.a. induction) à was advocated by **Francis Bacon** (who wrote *New Atlantis* a description of an ideal society based on science) and supported going from particular knowledge (observation) to general knowledge.

2.      **Rationalism** (a.k.a. deduction) à was advocated by **Rene Descartes** (who wrote the *Discourse on the Method of Rightly Conducting the Reason and Seeking Truth in the Sciences*) who stated that *senses can lie* and that the only way to find truth was to start from one fact, which was “I am doubting” and proceed to deduce all other statements – “I think, therefore I am.” Descartes also stated that there was an essential divide between the world of thought and reality (tangible objects). In other words, he took Bacon’s statement that religion (faith) and science (fact) should be separate and turned it into a far-reaching divide between the reality of the world and our perception of it – i.e. The Matrix!

\*The Famous Empiricists\*

- Empiricism was a very influential epistemology, and soon, it was beginning to be applied to other fields, not just science. Actually, several individuals used empiricism to develop political theories.

- **Thomas Hobbes** à was a radical Nominalist who stated that *there are no abstract ideas*. Therefore, he was also an atheist (since God is an abstract idea – he must not exist). He also did not believe in abstract good or evil. Instead, in his *Pleasure-Pain Philosophy* he stated that, since abstract good and evil do not exist, the only good things are ones that bring one pleasure and the only bad things are the ones that bring one pain. Mainly, however, Hobbes used empiricism to develop a political system. Because, according to him, in the *state of nature* (w/out any authority) there would be a constant war of all-against-all b/c of competition, diffidence (fear), and vain glory (desire to show off). Nobody could ever win the war, for, although a *law of nature* exists which states that *if you want respect then respect others*, people, the terrible beings that they are, will break the agreement to get what they want unless there is an outside authority enforcing the law. So, the only solution, Hobbes writes in his masterpiece, *The Leviathan* (1651) is ABSOLUTE MONARCHY! Hobbes’ absolute monarchy is not based on divine right, but, instead, it is based on a *social contract* (an agreement between the people and their ruler) in which the people agree that, since anything is better than the war of all-against-all, they will give up their natural rights to the government in exchange for protection. So, the government is all-powerful, but, in theory, they will never need to actually use their power, it is only a threat.

- **John Locke** à the next significant empiricist, he was somewhat a reaction to Hobbes’ negativity. Locke began with the assumption that, at birth, each person is born with a *tabula rasa* (blank slate) and that all human nature and knowledge comes from either direct experience or from reflection. Therefore, since all beliefs come from experience, all beliefs are open to criticism (this was one of the most powerful arguments for equality and tolerance yet). Clearly, Locke was a great supporter of equality, toleration, and education (make good environments). Locke also used his ideas to write a social contract, like Hobbes. Locke’s social contract, however, as stated in *An Essay Concerning Human Understanding* (1690) and *Two Treatises of Government* (1689), had almost nothing in common with Hobbes. Locke stated that, in the state of nature, people are neutral, since it all depends on the environment. Based on this, he said that, at birth, each person has *certain inalienable rights* of *life, liberty and property*. Since people must be forced to respect e/others rights, government is formed, to protect the rights. In his contract, government must protect peoples’ rights, but not more, and the people must obey the government so long as it does not do more than necessary. If it does, people have the right to rebel and establish another government. The Declaration of Independence is pretty much just paraphrasing JL’s beliefs.

- **David Hume** à was the dead end of end of empiricism. He stated that there can’t be any absolute knowledge if everything is based on the senses. So, people can know things through common sense, but not through philosophy (which he says is a joke) and he hates dogma.

\*The Effects of the Scientific Revolution\*

- People felt that human understanding of the universe could be reduced to mathematical laws.

- The universe was no longer appeared to be a mystery. In fact, people felt that it was orderly, rational, and, most importantly, could be understood by humans.

- People felt that humans were able to control their own destiny.

- The concept of *natural laws* developed. These laws, which were similar to the laws found in science by Newton, could govern other aspects of life as well, such as economics, politics, or ethics.

- Science gained wider appeal and unprecedented popularity. Additionally, science was institutionalized, and scientific societies sprung up throughout Europe, on both the national and personal level. The institutions greatly helped the rate of progress.

- **Positive effects of the SciRev** à gain of knowledge, greater toleration (both religious and scientific), less superstition and more scientific answers, and freedom to deviate from established theories, which opened the door for new, further developments.

- **Negative effects of the SciRev** à loss of innocence, loss of traditional faith, loss of faith in heaven, earth is no longer regarded as the center (God’s pet project), skepticism, loss of personal/caring God.

- Overall, however, the SR was an **era of optimism** that gave way to an Age of Reason in the 18th century. People living during the SR felt that they had surpassed even the ancients and were at the peak of human knowledge, and ideas of progress dominated intellectual discussions.

\*The Arts During the Scientific Revolution\*

- **Mannerism** à a reaction to the glorification of humans seen in the Renaissance, Mannerism featured distorted human figures, strange perspectives and unnatural colors and lighting. Mannerism reached its peak during the instability of the Reformation, and it reflected the concerns of a troubled time. The major Mannerist painter was **El Greco** (1541 – 1614).

- **Baroque** à a reaction to Mannerism, the Baroque style occurred during the Counter Reformation, and it reflected the desire for grandeur and the wish to inspire and awe people with God’s greatness. A famous baroque painter was **Caravaggio** (1571 – 1610) whose paintings were famous for their depictions of highly emotional moments. Other famous baroque painters were **Rubens** (1577 – 1640), and **Veláquez** (1599 – 1660), who glorified church figures and rulers. **Bernini**, a baroque sculptor and architect, did the inside and outside of St. Peter’s Cathedral in Rome.

- **Classicism** à like Baroque, Classicism attempted to awe the viewer. However, like the Renaissance, it attempted to awe the viewer with form and discipline – also they wished to return to ancient values. Big guy was **Poussin** whose paintings were more subdued than the baroque guys (he liked togas).

- **The Dutch** à b/c of Protestantism and republicanism, Dutch art was less religious (if religious only personal faith, not that of Church obviously) and more precise b/c big buyers were bourgeoisie (merchants not dumb nobles). Big dude was **Rembrandt** who pretty much just painted pictures of himself (pretty conceited, but really was just fascinated by human character and lighting).

- **Monteverdi** à invented concept of opera and orchestra, after many new instruments were invented. His masterpiece was *Orfeo* (1607).

\*The Literature During the Scientific Revolution\*

**- Michel de Montaigne** à invented the essay (what did he have to do that for?); influenced by *skepticism* (“What do I know?”) which eventually led to search for self-knowledge (“Know thyself”) and his belief that acting righteously is more important than following doctrine (sometimes).

- **Cervantes** à wrote *Don Quixote*, which illustrated the wide gaps between rich and poor and the difference between reality and fantasy of his time by poking fun at society and politics (he thought that politics disregarded human values).

- **Shakespeare** à wrote plays that made timeless statements about human behavior and covered a very wide range of topics and emotions. However, his plays also reflected his time as death, turmoil and change were always present. Also, the vigor in his plays showed the sense of achievement that also characterized the 1500s (don’t ask what achievements, please!).

- **Corneille** à was the dominant French playwright of the 1600s whose work reflects the rise of classicism. At first, he refused to follow the three new set rules for drama (unity of time, location and plot). His masterpiece was *Le Cid* (1636) which was condemned by Richelieu b/c it did not follow the three rules. But, *Le Cid* was still very popular.

- **Racine** à the model classical dramatist who still generated very emotional stuff.

\*Social Patterns and Popular Culture During the Scientific Revolution\*

- Population decreased after the 16th century. In the 17th century, population began to rise again, leading to overcrowding in the cities, bigger armies, increased crime, more taxation (but food prices didn’t rise = bad for peasants), and beggars (not enough food for peasants).

- Also, during the SciRev, social status became mobile because it became based on wealth and education as opposed to family heritage. The emphasis on education led to a higher literacy rate, which led to the start of newspapers and book sales. Woman also gained opportunities (in business).

- In the East, peasants were reduced to serfdom, and in the West, many were forced to go into the cities in search of a job (leading to chaos @ cities) and village unity decreased b/c of increased population and national intervention for law enforcement (intendants).

- In the village, ancient traditions held fast, for example, the belief in magic and the yearly festivals such as Charivari. Like Calvinism, villagers felt they couldn’t control their own destiny (unlike SciRev, the beliefs of which had not spread to the village yet), which led to witch hunts that eventually subsided when the SciRev and Counter Reformation (b/c now better educated priests who knew what the hell – get it – they were talking about) spread to the village.

*The Emergence of the European State System*

\*Absolutism in France under Louis XIV\*

- Louis XIV, a.k.a. the Sun King, was the next threat to universal absolute monarchy.

- Born in 1638, he ruled from 1643 – 1715. His rule had three phases:

1. 1643 – 1661 à Cardinal Mazarin rules b/c Louis XIV was too young. Mazarin put down the *Fronde* (rebellion by nobles, not by peasants) but only after Louis XIV fled Paris and his entire family was killed (oops!) which, naturally, left a lasting impression on Louis XIV (could have been a reason why Louis XIV did not want his palace @ Paris). This phase ended when Mazarin died in 1661.
2. 1661 – 1682 à Louis takes over, builds Versailles, and vows not to let anyone rule over him. He built up the standing army, continued centralization of power through the bureaucracy, helped the economy grow and said *I am the state*, which pretty much sums it up.
3. 1682 – 1715 à Constant wars, France vs. the rest of Europe.

\*Louis XIV’s Internal Policies\*

- **Versailles** à isolated location of Louis XIV’s palace. Versailles was the *great trap* dedicated to the *taming of the aristocracy*. Effectively, it drew the nobles away from their affairs and kept them close to Louis XIV. Versailles was a constant party, so nobody wanted to leave. Louis XIV, however, knew how to balance work w/party so he was a good ruler, unlike his successors and the foreign rulers who tried to emulate him. Versailles was also the center of French culture.

- Louis attempted to strengthen the economy by making reforms (which he later ignored b/c he needed instant $ for wars) by stimulating manufacturing, agriculture, and trade. He also tried to reduce the effect of France’s internal toll, and tried to boost overseas trade.

- Louis XIV wanted to **unify the country** and keep his control over it, which he attempted to do by:

1. Trying to create religious uniformity (i.e. trying to make France Catholic). First, Louis XIV revoked the entire *Edict of Nantes* in order to “clean out” the country from the Huguenots. He also tried to get a papal bull to condemn the Jansenists, a Catholic faction, but Louis XIV died before he could put the policy into effect. This aspect of Louis’ policies did not work, for they simply angered productive and hardworking sects of the French population while accomplishing nothing. In other words, in attempting to unify the country through religion, Louis XIV simply alienated his people.
2. Employing *intendants* and royal officials to subdue peasants and collect taxes. Although this helped the economy and the treasury, it was terrible for the peasants, who had to pay exorbitant taxes to support the wars, and, since nobles couldn’t be taxed, the peasants were forced to bear all the burden of taxation.
3. Keeping the parlements and nobles (with Versailles) under control. Additionally, he ruthlessly suppressed all the peasant rebellions that occurred.

\*Louis XIV’s Foreign Policies\*

- Louis made very good use of his contrasting advisers, which helped him greatly @ foreign policy.

- **Colbert** à one of Louis’ advisers who regarded the Netherlands as France’s biggest enemy b/c of their mercantilist policies. Therefore, he felt that all the taxes should go to building up a navy to fight the Netherlands, who tended to dominate the overseas trade routes.

- **Louvois** à other adviser, who emphasized the army b/c he felt that France was threatened by land.

- First, Louis listened to Colbert, and fought the Dutch. When this war (1672 – 1678) failed, Louis turned to Louvois and began land wars. The result was that France was able to annex a lot of territory, until the other countries ganged up on him b/c of the balance of power.

- **Grand Alliance** à league formed against Louis headed by **Leopold I** (HRE) and **William III** (Netherlands/England). The league went to war against Louis @ 1688.

- When Louis began to lose his territories he chose to seek peace and get rid of Louvois. But the peace didn’t last long, for, in 1690, the **War of the Spanish Succession** began.

- **The War of the Spanish Succession** à was a war to gain the Spanish throne for Louis’ family. The previous king had actually chosen Philip (Louis XIV’s grandson), and his wishes might have been respected had Louis promised to open Spain to trade and not unify France and Spain under one ruler. Since he didn’t agree to do so, the Grand Alliance declared war on him in 1701. Louis was defeated, but at the Peace of Utrecht in 1713 he still was able to secure the throne for his grandson though he couldn’t unify the country and had to open Spain to trade. Mainly, the war was a waste of $ and an additional on France’s already strained economy.

\*France after Louis XIV\*

- After Louis’ death in 1715 the **duke of Orléans** served as reagent (until 1723). The duke was committed to giving power back to the aristocracy, so he restored the parlements to power (he gave them the power to veto royal laws, a power they would never relinquish) and replaced royal bureaucrats w/nobles. On the financial side, a brilliant financier named **John Law** tried to solve the $ crisis w/ government banks, but the scheme failed. A positive change was that the peasants were never again to be oppressed as they were under Louis XIV (not by much though) b/c government realized that in order to be successful, need mass support.

- After the duke, **Louis XV** gave almost unlimited authority to his tutor and adviser, **Cardinal Fleury**, who was a cautious, dedicated man. During Fleury’s time, France began to recover: harvests were abundant, population grew, and commerce boomed.

- The problems that had plagued the reign of Louis XIV, however, were not solved, and when Fleury died in 1743 the pressures exploded. France was plunged into stupid wars that ruined the economy and Louis XV, having nobody to replace Fleury, placed his confidence in several advisers, most of which were incompetent. Louis XV was uninterested in government, and he neglected his work! So, the problems went w/out solving, and only got worse.

\*Absolutism in Austria under the Hapsburgs\*

- **Leopold I** à ruler of the HRE (but really Austria) who established a court similar to Louis XIV’s Versailles at Schonbrunn. Although Leopold only had control over Bohemia, Austria, and a small part of Hungary, he still had considerable authority.

- Unlike Louis, however, Leopold relied on the *Privy Council*, a group of leading nobles, to devise policy and run his government. After consulting w/them, he would come to a final decision. Since Leopold gave the nobles influence in the government w/out first establishing control over their lands, the nobles were far more autonomous, so, though Leopold had less power, he had more support.

- Since members of the Austrian court did not necessarily have to be Austrian, some great foreigners came to power, such as **Prince Eugene** (1663 – 1736), who volunteered to serve the Austrians in the war w/the Turks. Since he was very talented, he became field marshal and had a decisive influence on Hapsburg affairs b/c he transformed their military policies from defensive to aggressive. Eugene led the Austrians as they laid the foundations for a new empire of Austria-Hungary.

**Part III 2006-07 AP European History**

- **Charles VI** (r. 1711 – 1740) à was Leopold’s successor, whose major problem was that he had no male heir. In 1713 he drafted the **Pragmatic Sanction**, which stated that all Hapsburg lands would pass intact to the heir regardless of who it was. He forced all the major powers to sign the PS.

- **Maria Theresa** à was Charles’ daughter, who was heir to the throne in 1740. MT was in a difficult position, for not only had Charles had left her w/an empty treasury, a poorly trained army and an ineffective bureaucracy, but she also faced a rebellion by the Czech nobles in Bohemia, and the Hungarian nobles were ready to follow suit. So, MT went around to the nobles and appealed to them as a *damsel in distress*. Though she was also forced to promise the Hungarians autonomy (w/in empire), the plan still worked wonders. But MT also faced other nations, who didn’t respect the PS.

- **The War of Austrian Succession** (1740 – 1748) à The French (to help Bavaria claim the Hapsburg throne), Spain (hoped to win back control of Austria’s Italian possessions), and Prussia (took Silesia) gang up on Austria. Only England supports Austria (BOP), but b/c of MT’s brilliant tactics, Austria was able to fight to a stalemate and only gave up Silesia.

- **Maria Theresa’s State Building Policies** à MT was a moralistic and pious woman who was still a very brilliant ruler. She believed in the divine mission of the Hapsburgs, and was ready to defend her country. First, she *reformed the church* by forbidding the founding of new monasteries (they were wasteful) and abolishing the clergy’s exemptions from taxes! Next, she *established a new bureaucracy* in Vienna by appointing new local officials and reorganizing the central ministries. The new bureaucracy helped her collect taxes. Lastly, she *improved the military* and its training.

**\*Absolutism in Prussia under the Hohenzollerns\***

- In Brandenburg-Prussia, state building was once again made possible through an alliance between the ruler and the nobles. The nobility saw that they could get serfs and consolidate their power on their lands, and the elector saw that he could build a strong state. The nobles created very efficient, profitable estates, and were known as *Junkers*.

- **Frederick William** (r. 1648 – 1688) à a.k.a. the Great Elector. Realizing that other states were swarming over his possessions at will, he built a good army, which he used to impose order and to gain territory (w/out actually using the army, just through intimidation). In domestic policy, FW got rid of the Diet of Brandenburg (it actually got rid of itself as it gave FW the power to raise taxes w/out its consent in 1653), established the War Chest, which financed the army and collect government revenue, and placed the implementation of policies in the hands of war commissars. FW quickly intimidated his only sources of resistance, the cities, w/the army, and established his control.

- **Frederick III** (r. 1688 – 1713) à unlike his father, he enjoyed court society and made Berlin into a cultural center with a lively court and an Academy of Sciences. He also effectively gained Prussian independence by asking Leopold to make him a king in exchange for his army (for war of Spanish succession). After gaining independence, Frederick changed his name to Frederick I.

- **Frederick William I** (r. 1713 – 1740)à was a Spartan ruler who disdained court society and concentrated on the army. He built up the army (38,000 à 83,000 men) by instituting a form of conscription. He took great care of the army and drilled it incessantly. As a result, he had a fantastic army that he could use to intimidate other powers (he actually never fought wars w/it). On the domestic side, FW created the *General Directory of Finance, War and Domains*, which took over in 1723 all government functions except justice, education and religion. FW made education compulsory, but did not really enforce the rules.

- **Frederick II** (r. 1740 – 1786) à a.k.a. Frederick the Great, he was trained for kingship by his father and had a fierce sense of duty. He realized only absolute rule could bring results, so he used his absolute power to reach objectives. Immediately, he was able to establish religious toleration and judicial reform, but his main goal, security, was more difficult to accomplish. To gain security, Frederick knew that he had to acquire new, stronger borders, and he began the process of gaining territory in 1740 when he attacked the Hapsburg’s province of *Silesia*, which the Hapsburgs couldn’t defend. In the **War of Austrian Succession** that followed, Frederick was able to keep Silesia.

**\*Absolutism in Spain under Hapsburgs/Bourbons\***

- After **Philip IV** the throne went to **Charles II**, a sickly man incapable of having children. Spain had a relatively weak monarchy, for the nobles controlled the regime, and Spain’s dominions had been reduced by the war of Spanish succession (Netherlands + Italy à Austria).

- After the war of Spanish Succession, however, the Bourbons gained control of the crown, and they ended the traditional independence of Aragon, Catalonia and Valencia and created a united Spain. The Bourbons also established the office of the intendant in Spain, which helped curb the nobles.

- **Count Pedro de Campomanes** à liberal reformer in Spain during the Bourbon rule that, among other things, expelled the Jesuits b/c he felt they were too powerful and opposed to reform.

**\*Absolutism in Russia under Peter the Great\***

- Peter (the Great Westernizer) was born in 1672, and, when he was three, his father **Tsar Alexis** (Romanov) died and his half-brother from an earlier marriage (from Miloslavsky family à old believers in the Russian Orthodox Church) took over, called Fedor. After Fedor died, there was the question of succession – was it to be Ivan (dumb, older son) or Peter (brilliant, younger son)?

- So, Sophie (Peter’s brilliant half-sister) organized the **Streltsy**, a group of conservative soldiers w/nothing to do, and removes Peter and his mother (from Naryshkin family à westernized) sending them to **Preobrazhusky** (place filled w/foreigners) where Peter learns Western ways.

- In 1689, Peter goes back to Moscow and overthrows the government of Ivan (in name, but really it is Sophie) and becomes a co-ruler w/Ivan.

- **Peter’s Crash Course in Westernization** à beginning in 1689 Peter gives Russia a crash course in Western ways. He sent Russians to the West to study, brought foreigners into Russia, forced men to shave (against Old Believer rules, symbol of modernization), adopted Western court rituals and founded an Academy of Sciences.

- In 1697, he went to the West himself undercover. Peter was a giant, and he was also VERY intelligent, and he learned about Western ways from the bottom up (shipbuilding, metallurgy, dentistry). When he returned, he set up many factories w/serf labor.

- **Peter’s Administration** à in ruling, Peter pretty much ignored *Duma* (advisory council) and concentrated on his bureaucracy. He organized his administration into several departments each of which either had a specialized function or took care of a region. He totally subdued the nobles, and used coercion to make them listen to him (do this or else!).

- **Russian Society** à Peter made a very clear dividing line between peasants (had to pay poll tax, military conscription, forced public work) and nobility (status in which was now based on level in bureaucracy and not family). Result was more controlled social order + more uniformity. 

- Though Peter was very intelligent, he was also very barbaric, w/bad temper, and drank SO much! Hates religion, hates Streltsy, and really hates Old Believers. When the Patriarch (Pope for Russian Orthodox Church) dies, he simply does not replace him, and simply appoints a council called the **Synod** to run church (he can control Synod). Also, he makes a mock religion.

- On way back from Europe, Peter meets **Augustus the Strong**, a Polish king, and they become best friends, and decide to declare war on Sweden – they think “easy target” since the Swedish king just died and there is a 12-year-old on the throne. Peter wants ports.

- **Charles XII** à Swedish king MILITARY GENIUS! Obsessed w/war, very brilliant, great physical courage, very willful, upright moral man, Lutheran, determined to fight to death if attacked, but will not attack if not provoked.

- **The Great Northern War** à Charles crushes Denmark, then scares Polish away from Riga (they were besieging it) and totally beat Russians, who were besieging Narva. So, by 1700, Charles has really won, but he still wants revenge, and chooses (big mistake) to go after Augustus first (b/c Augustus didn’t declare war, which is sneaky and he thinks Russians are pathetic). For 7 yrs Charles chases after Augustus and finally puts him in jail. Now Charles attacks Peter, but now Peter is ready. Charles takes 35,000 men and invades Russia, and Russians use *Scorched Earth Policy* (retreat and burn everything) so in INCREDIBLY harsh Russian winter of 1707-1708 the Swedes freeze. So, in 1709 at *Poltava* the Russians win a crushing victory and gain Baltic provinces as Window à West.

**\*The United Provinces\***

- The UP’s were moving towards absolutism when **William III** had the office of Stadholder (during the wars against Louis XIV), but the Estates General soon reasserted themselves and ended the wars. Then, William sought the English crown, but only w/the approval of the Estates and he had to leave the representative assemblies for the two countries separate.

- When William died w/out hier, **Antonius Heinsius** continued his policies, but the government was really controlled by the Estates General. But the UP’s soon began to decline, for their trading power and naval supremacy was surpassed by England.

- **Dutch Society** à in the UP’s, social distinctions were less prominent and social mobility was easier. Also, instead of ancient families of nobility, the UP’s were filled with merchants and mayors – they were the most bourgeoisie state.

\***Sweden**\*

- In Sweden, the nobles emerged from a long struggle vs. the monarchy as the dominant force. During the reign of **Charles XI** this was not a problem as Charles stayed out of Europe’s wars and was able to conserve his resources and not rely on the nobility.

- His successor, **Charles XII** (little genius kid) who r. 1697 – 1718, fought Poland and invaded Russia (maybe he wasn’t such a genius after all) where he got his little butt kicked. Then, his neighbors began taking over his lands, and the nobles took advantage of his absence to reassert their power.

- So, **Queen Ulrika** was forced to accept a constitution that gave the Riksdag (like Parliament) control over the country and Stockholm became an elegant capital w/out many big political aspirations.

\***Poland**\*

- Poland was the strongest contrast to the French society, for it was so chaotic and not unified that it ceased to exist as a state in the late 18th century. This chaos was a result of the complete dominance of the nobility, which *didn’t allow a centralized government to form*. Though there were some brilliant kings who still fought in wars (when all nobles saw a threat they would unite and form an army under king), they could exercise power once wars were over (since kings were elected).

- The crown, then, had no bureaucracy or funding, so Poland still resembled a feudal kingdom.

\***England**\*

- England was the model for a nonabsolutist regime. Though **Charles II** was able to summon and dissolve Parliament, make appointments in the bureaucracy, and had to sign all the laws, he no longer had the *Star Chamber*, he couldn’t arrest Parliament leaders, and he couldn’t add seats in the Commons. In effect, he also could no longer use *dispensations* or raise $ w/out Parliament.

- Now, the gentry (wealthy local leaders w/out titles of nobility – who the textbook is *obsessed* with) had control of the government through Parliament (not through the monarch other countries).

- **James II** à successor of Charles II who was a total moron (bull in the china shop). After a struggle for the succession, which he won, James immediately announced his support for Catholics (dumb move), and began to antagonize Parliament (dumb move again). So, after a series of idiotic events, seven leaders of Parliament invited **William III** to invade, and he did, and James II fled.

- **The Glorious Revolution** à William and Mary (daughter of James) became co-monarchs in 1689. William was able to accept a limited monarchy, and a *Bill of Rights* was passed, which determined succession, defined Parliament’s powers, and established civil rights. An *Act of Toleration* was passed, which put an end to religious persecution, and a *Triennial Act* was passed, which stated that Parliament had to meet every three years. William guided England into an aggressive foreign policy and greatly expanded the central government. Unlike rulers before him, William saw his limits.

- England had already begun to develop a multi-party system. One side was the **Whigs** who opposed royal power and Catholicism. Their rivals, the **Tories**, favored the crown and wished for a traditional and ceremonial Anglicanism. The Whigs controlled the government form much of William’s ruler, and they supported his war vs. Louis XIV (b/c Catholic and harbored James’ supporters). But, in 1700, the Tories won by opposing the war. By 1702, they were at war again over the Spanish Succession, and the Whigs were in control again. 1710 brought back the Tories, for the English were sick of the war, and they persuaded **Queen Anne** (William’s successor) to make peace at **Utrecht** in 1713. After Anne, **George I** (Hanover) took over, as did the Whigs.

- **England’s Economy** à at the same time, England was winning big time power in the navy and in the colonies, and it surpassed France. A notable achievement was the making of the *Bank of England* in 1694. The bank could raise $ for government and keep it for people at favorable interest – first government bonds. London is now the financial capital of the world. But, most Englishmen were untouched by the boom, and the peasants still lived @ crappy conditions in village or city.

- **English State Building** à the process of state-building continued during the Hanover time, and the bureaucracy grew as a result of the wars. Luckily, in England, the upper classes paid taxes too, and so they also supported the state building, not just the poor people (like France).

-Since the 1st two Hanover kings (George I and George II) couldn’t speak English well, **Sir Robert Walpole** pretty much ran things. His major accomplishment was his good handling of the *South Sea Bubble Crash* in 1720, a financial crash similar to the failure of John Law’s scheme in France. Walpole kept England at peace and is often seen as the 1st *prime minister*. Walpole’s peaceful policies pleased large landlords but angered merchants (feared growth of French commerce) who found leadership in **William Pitt**, who wanted to get rid of France sea influence (England’s destiny).

**\*Diplomacy and Warfare\***

- During the 17th century international relations became more impersonal and based on rational thought and less based on relationships between kings. Gradually dynastic influences gave way to the concept of the state. Leaders tried to shape their policies on reasons of state – i.e. security.

- One principle at work was the **Balance of Power** (BOP) – all powers agreed that it was best not to be dominated by one state. The goal was to keep balance, and diplomats were not always honest and were often deceitful in attaining their goals.

- In the armies and navies, the size, organization and skill grew. So, there was less brutality. The idea of an unconditional surrender was unheard of, and most battles took place for a specific purpose. Another limit of the scale of war was the constantly shifting alliances and distrust, and the weak communications between allies and between a king and his troops.

- **The Seven Years War** (1756 – 1763) à began w/a realignment of diplomatic alliances. Now, the antagonism between France and England and the rivalry between Prussia and Austria was taking over. So, Austria had a *diplomatic revolution* and made an alliance w/France and Russia against Prussia. Prussia tried to find allies, so it sought England at the *Convention of Westminster*, insulting France. England joined Prussia, but still, Prussia was almost demolished. Luckily for them, at the last minute the ruler of Russia goes and dies! A complete MORON who loves Frederick takes over, and, just as Russian troops are about to get rid of Prussia, he turns them back (what a loser!). Then, France and England work out their difficulties. Finally, at the *Peace of Hubertusburg* (what a name) Prussia gets Silesia and Austria gets Saxony back.

**\*Eighteenth-Century Colonial Empires\***

- After 1715, the three original imperial powers began to decline. Portugal retired from active competition (but kept Brazil), the Dutch could only hope to protect their existing lands, and the Spanish grew weaker, thought they still tried to keep their monopoly over trade.

- So, the English and the French became the new colonial powers. The British and the French expanded their control in the West Indies, West Africa, North America, and India/Asia (where they established trading empires). Though the English and the French had different administrative techniques for their colonies (English didn’t directly control the colonies as much as the French did) both countries relied on mercantilist techniques. So, the powers attempted to keep a trading monopoly with their colonies. They did so using their naval powers.

- Colonial trade provided new products, stimulated the economy and trade (remember Triangular Trade), and was based on slavery, which decimated Africa.

- The intense competition between the French and English soon led to fights throughout their empires. Fighting broke out in Canada/North America, the Ohio Valley (since the French began establishing strongholds in the wilderness, the British feared that westward expansion would be cut off). The French gained the allegiance of the American Indians (as they were not settlers, the Indians felt that their presence would be better for them than the English).

- **The Great War for Empire** à after years of hostilities, an official war broke out in 1756. This war, which was known as the Seven Years’ War in Europe, was known as the French and Indian war in North America and the Great War for Empire throughout. As the British (led by **William Pitt**) had control of the seas, they were able to cut off supplies from France and win the war in 1759.

- **The Treaty of Paris** à ended the war and was favorable for England, though, in exchange for peace, the English gave back some of the French islands they had taken. But the English got Canada.

- **The British in India** à the British entered India and gained control gradually, first through the British East India Company and later on directly through the English government itself (after Sepoy mutiny). The British made a class loyal to them by turning the landlords into a class of nobility and giving them control over their lands. The British also educated an Indian bureaucracy trained in their ways. Many people were drawn to India, mainly to make $, but some to “help civilize” the country.

- On the whole, the colonies greatly stimulated the economy, and also led to increased competition. However, not all groups were helped by the growth of the eighteenth century, for the peasants and slaves, who were the backbone of society, never saw the fruits of their labor.

**THE ENLIGHTENMENT**

**\*The Definition of the Enlightenment**

- The Enlightenment was a period of time in which many intellectuals, who were called **philosophs**, began to question the traditions of society and to look at the universe in a scientific, critical light.

- During the Enlightenment, all the trademark aspects of European society were exposed to criticism and analysis through reason. No institution was spared, for even the church itself was attacked by the cynical philosophs. Though the Enlightenment began as a movement that only reached the intellectual elite of society, its repercussions would eventually reach and have a big impact on society as a whole.

**\*The Beliefs of the Philosophs\***

- The philosophs, a group of intellectuals who supported the ideals of the Enlightenment, stood for a series of beliefs, which they stood for, regardless of the cost. These ideas included:

1. **Reason** à the universe can be explained through reason, as can all human institutions. The philosophs thought that reason could be applied to everything, and that it could be used to correct the problems in society.
2. **Skepticism** à the philosophs believed that everything should be open to questioning and criticism, even religion. They disliked dogma, superstition, and blind faith.
3. **Toleration** à both religious and intellectual. They felt that all ideas were equally valid, and that people should have the freedom to express themselves and their ideas.
4. **Freedom** à that is, intellectual freedom, an idea closely linked to toleration. They felt that people should have free speech, press, and freedom of religion. They felt that each person should have the opportunity to reason things out for themselves.
5. **Equality** à based on Locke’s Tabula Raza – all people are equal.
6. **Education** à again, based on Locke. They believed that education could eventually lead to a perfect society, a paradise of reason and toleration.
7. **Optimism** à very optimistic, believed in science bringing progress.
8. **Enlightened Despotism** à for many kings, enlightened despotism (“I am ruling b/c I can be a servant of the state and bring the enlightenment to my people”) replaced divine right monarchy and other justifications for ruling.

**\*The Famous Philosophs\***

- **Voltaire** à our favorite! Voltaire is often regarded as the leading figure of the Enlightenment. A talented writer, Voltaire stood for many of the ideals of the period. First of all, he greatly admired science and helped to popularize it. In 1738, he wrote *Elements of the Philosophy of Newton*, which attempted to make Newton’s discoveries understandable. Voltaire greatly admired the English, for he felt their society had allowed greats like Locke, Bacon and Newton to rise, and in 1734 he wrote the *Philosophical Letters on the English*, which celebrated English toleration. Also, Voltaire absolutely hated religion (actually he didn’t hate religion per se, but he really hated intolerance) and he wrote *The Philosophical Dictionary* in 1764, which stated that organized religion bred intolerance and superstition. Voltaire was a deist, and felt religion should be a private matter. Throughout his life, Voltaire faced persecution and censorship, and as a result, he was a dedicated advocator of intellectual and religious freedom. Voltaire was a brilliant satirical writer (*Candide*) and literary critic who poked fun at every element of society (which is why all his books were banned).

- **Diderot** à most famous for his *Encyclopedia*, Diderot also wrote a series of novels, plays, math theorems, and works on religion and morality. His most original works examined the role of passion in human personality and in morality. Diderot often felt that his contemporaries overemphasized reason over passion. He also sometimes criticized religion, and ended up as an atheist. But his most important work was the *Encyclopedia*, which classified all human knowledge from the most common to the most complex. The aim of the book was to “change the general way of thinking.” The book treated religion w/artful satire, analyzing it like any other topic. Science was the core of the book, and scientific techniques and discoveries were presented in it. Economically, the Encyclopedia supported the Physiocratic view against trade restrictions. The Encyclopedia was banned in many places, but it was still distributed, and had a great impact on the intellectuals of Europe.

- **Baron de Montesquieu** à wrote *The Spirit of the Laws* a book that described an ideal system of government using checks and balances. He believed that societies and political institutions could be studied scientifically, and that a balanced government would lead to success.

- **David Hume** à he was the empiricism who made that stupid argument about the tree falling in the forest. He hated dogma, and I mean really hated it. He went around proving how everybody was wrong. He was an atheist and he didn’t believe in any general knowledge, so who knows what he did believe in. Anyhow, he wrote *Inquiry into Human Nature* that criticized Christianity.

- **Adam Smith** à that economist dude. Not that important. He only came up with an entire new philosophy on economics but that isn’t part of this chapter so look at the other outline!

- **Immanuel Kant** à a brilliant philosopher, he stated that Hume woke him from his “dogmatic slumber” and believed that reality and perception were two different things. However, he believed that so long as it is organized by certain concepts, like cause and effect, science is still valid.

- **Cesare Beccaria** à was an economist and penal reformer who wrote *On Crimes and Punishments*, which argued for human rights and humanitarianism.

- **Edward Gibbon** à historian who criticized Christianity and held it responsible for the fall of the Roman Empire in *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*.

**\*The Elite Culture of the Enlightenment\***

- During the Enlightenment, **many new forms of elite culture developed**. These developments had hardly any effect on the majority of the people, but the elite culture, united by French as a common language, bound together into a cosmopolitan world.

- First of all, the elite began to **travel** around Europe. They looked at the cultural centers and cities, as well as the ancient monuments of antiquity. Cities were being spruced up during this time with the additions of amenities (like streetlights and public transportation) and two important new ideas, coffeehouses (where people could eat and talk) and shop windows (sparked commerce).

- A so-called **republic of letters** began to develop (popularized by Pierre Bayle, who like religious toleration), in which journals and newspapers circulated among the elite. Though the republic was limited to the educated, all classes and backgrounds could join in. The elite also met in *salons* (philosophical party houses of the elite, very snobby and stylish) and *academies* both of which helped spread ideas and unite people. There, people could dispute their ideas and come up w/new ones.

- Also, during this time, publishing increased tremendously and people began to read more. Traveling libraries were developed, as were journals and, most importantly, newspapers. There were new employment opportunities in bookselling and publishing, as well as the smuggling of so-called **bad books**, which ranged from Voltaire to pornography (i.e. anything that was banned).

**\*Art, Literature, and Music\***

- **Art of the Enlightenment** à the art of the Enlightenment consisted of two competing styles, Rococo and Neoclassicism. Rococo was the art of the nobility, meaningless, w/out content, but very pretty, using bright, swirling colors, like *Rubenism*. Famous Rococo painters were *Francois Boucher* and *Fragonard*. Neoclassicism, on the other hand, favored line over color, and was all about drama, tension, emotion, content, and an imitation ancient style. The philosophs loved the NC, for they favored themes that the philosophs liked. Famous painter was *Jacques Louis David*.

- **Literature of the Enlightenment** à this is where the modern novel was first developed, by *Samuel Richardson* and *Henry Fielding*, both in England. The novel emerged as a new form of writing in which a story was told and characters were presented in a realistic social context filled with everyday problems. Another writer was *Fanny Burney*. Satire was also perfected during the Enlightenment, by brilliant writers like *Jonathan Swift*, and, naturally, good ol’ *Voltaire*. Also, during this time, romantic poetry was born. Before, poetry followed strict rules and was not very emotional or anything, but in the Enlightenment writers like *William Wordsworth* and *Friedrich von Schiller* made it all mushy. Poetry came to be a signature part of the new style, Romanticism. *Johann von Goethe* was a romantic poet who came to embody the entire period and whose masterpiece was called *Faust*.

- **Music of the Enlightenment** à music really changed, and the symphony developed into what it is today. Pretty much, this was the work of *Beethoven*, *Mozart* and *Hayden*. After them, music also became much more passionate and was full of expression and emotion.       

**\*Popular Culture during the Enlightenment\***

- Popular culture was pretty much totally separate from the elite culture, and was not really that affected by it at all. At this level culture was still public recreation and oral tradition.

- There was, however, some popular literature meant to be read aloud in the community. This consisted of religious material, almanacs, and literature for fun (stories). Mainly, popular writing actually fostered submissiveness, not rebellion, for it had a fatalistic acceptance of the status quo.

- But the most important part of popular culture was the oral tradition, which consisted of the folktales and songs passed from generation to generation. These tales expressed the hardships and goals of the time, with themes like struggles to survive and magical happenings.

- Though literacy rose a little, in rural areas it was still very low. Education was scarce, for few parents could allow their children to go to school while they were needed in the fields. Many of the elites, like Voltaire, did not believe that the masses should be educated, but even when the government tried to encourage education (Prussia, Austria) it did not really have a big result. Anyway, even when they went to school, the goals of elementary schooling were simply to instill religion and morality, show the value of hard work, and promote deference to superiors, not really to learn anything.

- Lastly, popular culture included festivals and taverns (the salons for normal people) where common people could enjoy themselves and relax. Sports also became important during this time, and people began to attend sporting events more.

**\*Laissez-Faire Economics\***

- Many Europeans began to question and criticize the barriers that prevented further industrialization and innovation. They called for less control of the economy.

- **Adam Smith** à a Scottish philosopher who epitomized the concerns and desires of the age, and wrote *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations* (1776). Smith believed that $ was not actually wealth, but only showed it, and that real wealth consisted of the added value of manufactured items produced by invested capital. Most importantly, however, he stated that *economic progress required that each individual be allowed to pursue his/her self-interest freely w/out restrictions* for this would lead to economic growth. Natural divisions of labor and specialization, he stated, should be encouraged. This philosophy became known as *laissez-faire* economics, which means that people should be allowed to pursue their own economic interests. Smith also introduced the concept of the *invisible hand* that stated that if all individuals follow their own self-interest, it would be for the economic good of everyone, since everyone will do what they do best.

- Laissez-faire economics really caught on, especially in England, and in 1786 France and Britain signed a free-trade treaty. Guilds were growing weaker, and in 1791, the French got rid of them. In the 1790s, the English also began to pass laws against them, and the merchants gained freedom.

**The Industrial Revolution**

\*Demographic Change\*

- Prior to the eighteenth century, the levels of populations seemed to flow in cyclical, or wave-like patterns, depending on natural phenomena such as crop failures, plagues, etc.

- Around 1730, a new era in Europe’s demography began. During the 18th century (which is considered, demographically, to begin in 1730), Europe’s population skyrocketed, jumping from 120 to 190 million. Prussia, Sweden, Spain, France, and especially England experienced tremendous population increases during this period. After this time, the cyclic behavior of the populations stopped, and Europe’s population simply continued to increase.

- The rapid population growth was, according to historians, caused by a decline in mortality rates (as opposed to an increase in birthrates) in all the countries except for England. The decline in mortality rates occurred b/c Europe began to enjoy a more stable and better food supply (due to improvement in avg. climate, opening of more farmland, and improvement in transportation systems). Disease was still a major problem, but, on the whole, mortality rates declined.

\*Economic Growth\*

- During the 18th century, **overall wealth also increased**, although the growth was not consistent. Still, the overall trend was a positive one. In the first decades of the century, prices remained stable, due to the economic consequences of the War of the Spanish Succession. Significant growth began around 1730 and continued until 1815. This period was characterized by gradual price inflation (which reflected growing demands for goods from a growing population). This gradual price inflation stimulated the economy, and, although there were some problems, the economy generally grew.

- The growth, however, **did not affect all sectors of society in the same way**. Though the gradual increase in prices was good for landlords, employers, merchants, and landed peasants, it was very bad for the poor, landless peasants, who could barely afford to live.

- **Protoindustrialization** à is the economic development that occurred just prior to the rise of the factory system and may have led to it. Protoindustrialization, a.k.a. the *putting out system*, was a system in which merchants distributed raw materials to peasants’ households, who would process it, and then would pick it up and sell it. Protoindustrialization led to increased manufacturing and population growth in rural areas. Additionally, it strengthened marketing networks, helped merchants get more $ (which could be re-invested in production), helped the peasants make $ (increasing their demand for goods), and allowed peasants to familiarize themselves w/industrial processes. Though it didn’t lead to technological improvement, it helped economic growth.

\*Changes in Industry\*

- Though, during the 18th century, most industries remained the same, dramatic change was beginning to occur, especially in the manufacturing of cotton cloth. The changes in industry were meant to increase the productivity of labor through new technologies. This replacement of workers with new tools and machines, which is known as *factor substitution*, eventually led to the factory.

- Increases in *performance* (which is measured by the output per individual) in industry always depend on the *structure* (characteristics that support industry – economy, politics, etc.) of the society. Before Europeans could change the format of industry, they had to face major obstacles and make changes that affected the very structure of European society.

- Europeans faced many difficulties as they attempted to change the structure of the economy, such as:

1. **Small Market Size** à since European countries were cut off from one another for both physical and political reasons, merchants were forced to deal with very limited markets. This slowed the growth of specialized manufacturing and limited the mobility of capital and labor.
2. **Skewed Distribution of Wealth** à since the aristocracy used most of the income, merchants would cater to their desires and make small quantities of luxury goods, as opposed to lots of cheap goods that would be accessible to the public. This screwed up supply and demand.
3. **Property Rights/Privileges** à these traditional institutions worked against innovation, as rents and tolls often sucked up capital that would otherwise be available to both would-be consumers (peasants) and the entrepreneurs (merchants).
4. **Guild/Government Regulations** à were huge problems for the merchants. As the guild regulations established a standard, traditional procedure for industry, which was not be changed, they made innovation exceedingly difficult. Government restrictions on economic activity and licensing of monopolies only made it more difficult for merchants.
5. **Cultural Attitudes** à as many Europeans, especially the nobles, still regarded $ as dirty and simply wanted to have their titles, going into business was discouraged.

\*England Begins to Industrialize\*

- England was the first nation to develop a social structure supportive of innovation and economic growth. So, why was it England? This is b/c of many advantages, such as:

1. **Geography** à England was close to the sea, which allowed trade w/foreign nations and colonies. Also, England had two great resources essential to industry, iron and coal, as well as a lot of good, productive farmlands.
2. **Existing Capital to Invest** à the English began with a store of capital from the colonies, which led to the creation of a banking and investing system – the Bank of England – in 1694. The bank took responsibility of England’s public dept, sold shares to the public, and met the interest payments for shareholders. This helped stabilize the markets.
3. **Free Trade** à the English had markets in their colonies, the other European powers (free trade agreement w/ France in 1786) and the Spanish colonies b/c of the Treaty of Utrecht.
4. **Labor Supply** à slavery, cheap labor (peasants) due to the Enclosure Acts, which drove the peasants out of the communal farmlands and made them look for work.
5. **Friendly Political Environment** à since the gentry were in control of the government (since they had Parliament) they could pass laws favorable to the merchants.
6. **Navy** à need I say more?

\*Cotton Begins Industrialization\*

- Since England had developed a social structure supportive of industrialization, all it needed was a *take off industry*, or an industry that would begin a pattern of industrialization all the others would follow. In England’s case, this industry was cotton manufacturing.

- Due to the slave labor in the plantations, there was a very large supply of raw cotton. There was also a very high demand for the durable, cheap cotton goods. However, the putting-out system had reached its limits in productions, so merchants were ready to take the next step towards industrialization.

- **Richard Arkwright** à inventor of the water frame, which was able to twist fibers into thread using waterpower. Before him, though weavers could make cloth quickly from yarn, production was slowed down b/c the yard couldn’t be made quickly enough. Arkwright shifted the balance the other way. Arkwright also made the very first factories.

- **James Watt** à inventor of the steam engine. Arkwright asked Watt to use steam engines to drive his spinning machines, and the first factories were created.

- **Edmund Cartwright** à inventor of a power-driven loom. Though the opposition of handloom weavers and technical flaws made the loom not really become available until the 19th century, once it became available, both spinning and weaving could go incredibly fast.

- The cotton industry was revolutionized by the 19th century, for goods could be made incredibly fast, and merchants could house all their workers in factories and watch them work. After industrialization, the price of cotton fell tremendously, and it became available to many poorer people.

\*Changes in Agriculture\*

- In England, many peasants were able to leave the country and go to the city, where they found work as factory laborers, because of the new agricultural techniques, which caused an increase in efficiency and productivity. If it hadn’t been for these changes, the peasants could not have left.

- **Convertible Husbandry** à instead of letting land lie unused every second or third year (to prevent it from become infertile) agricultural innovators planted fields w/turnips (which could also provide feed for livestock, which could make fertilizer) to help it regain fertility. If they encountered other problems, they would experiment w/other crops that would hopefully fix the problems.

- **Charles Townshend** à innovator who proved the value of planting turnips instead of resting land.

- **Jethro Tull** à noble who was into agricultural innovation.

- In addition to convertible husbandry, innovators experimented with selective breeding of animals.

- **Enclosure Movement** à throughout Europe, all towns shared communal lands, which were divided into small plots. This made it very difficult to change agricultural techniques, since the village as a whole had to agree to a certain technique. But, in England, Parliament was able to (in response to the petitioning of large landowners) enclose all the land in a village, even against the will of the village itself. Though enclosure was difficult and expensive, it was worth it, for it ended up generating high profits. In the end, the communal field system was practically eradicated in England, leading to the domination of rural society by great landlords and their tenant farmers. Enclosure also forced many peasants to leave for the cities, where they could then find work.

- On the continent, however, things were very different, for, in Eastern Europe, nobles completely controlled the lives of their serfs, who spent their time in unpaid labor for their noble lord. In Western Europe, though there was no serfdom, most peasants lived under a system called *seigneurialism*, in which the peasants lived under a local lord and owed him certain obligations. Since, throughout the continent, peasants were barely surviving, they had little time to worry about efficiency (change was too risky to afford). So change came very slowly, especially in Eastern Europe.