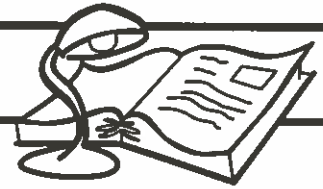


Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 13, Section 3 (continued)

The Islamic style was found on the Malay Peninsula and in the small states on the Indonesian Archipelago. In this style, the head of state was a sultan. He was viewed as a mortal, but with some special qualities. He defended the Islamic faith and staffed his bureaucracy (a body of nonelected government officials) mainly with aristocrats.

In Vietnam, kingship followed the Chinese model. The Vietnamese emperor ruled according to the teachings of Confucius. He was seen as a mortal appointed by Heaven to rule because of his talent and virtue. He was also the intermediary between Heaven and Earth.

11. How did religious beliefs change in Southeast Asia from 1500 to 1800?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 429–432

EUROPE IN CRISIS: THE WARS OF RELIGION

KEY TERMS

- militant** combative (page 429)
armada a fleet of warships (page 432)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Do you think having a single individual with total power to govern a nation could ever be good for a nation? Why or why not?

In this section, you will learn how conflict between Catholics and Protestants led to wars in many European nations. At the same time, many European rulers increased their power and their territories.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify the country and religion of the following rulers, and summarize their achievements.

Ruler	Country	Religion	Achievements
Henry IV	1.	2.	3.
Philip II	4.	5.	6.
Elizabeth I	7.	8.	9.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 1 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• The French Wars of Religion (page 429)

By 1560, Calvinism and Catholicism had become highly **militant** (combative) religions. They both wanted to win converts and to eliminate the other's authority. This was the main cause of the religious wars in Europe in the sixteenth century, but economic, social, and political forces also played important roles.

The French Wars of Religion lasted from 1562 to 1598. The French kings persecuted Protestants, but the persecution did not stop the spread of Protestantism. French Protestants who were influenced by John Calvin were called Huguenots. The Huguenots made up only about 7 percent of the total French population, but 40 to 50 percent of the nobility were Huguenots. The conversion of so many nobles made the Huguenots a threat to the French monarchy, which was strongly Catholic. An extreme Catholic party also strongly opposed the Huguenots. They were known as the ultra-Catholics. They were able to recruit and pay for large armies. Although the main issue in the French wars was religion, other factors also played a role. Many towns and provinces had long resisted the power of French monarchy. They were willing to assist the Huguenot nobles in weakening the monarchy.

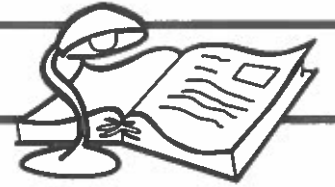
For 30 years, there were battles in France between the Catholics and Huguenots. Finally in 1589, Henry of Navarre became king of France. As king, his name was Henry IV. He was the political leader of the Huguenots and a member of the Bourbon dynasty. He realized that he would never be accepted as king by most of Catholic France, so he converted to Catholicism. To solve the religious problem, he issued the Edict of Nantes in 1598. The edict recognized Catholicism as the official religion of France, but it gave Huguenots the right to worship. It also gave them full political rights.

10. Who were the Huguenots?

• Philip II and Militant Catholicism (page 430)

The greatest supporter of militant Catholicism in the second half of the sixteenth century was King Philip II of Spain. He reigned from 1556 to 1598. His first major goal as king was to consolidate the lands he had inherited from his father, Charles V. These included Spain, the Netherlands, and possessions in

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 1 *(continued)*

Italy and the Americas. To strengthen his control, he insisted on strict conformity to Catholicism and strong monarchical authority. The Catholic faith was important to both Philip II and the Spanish people. Spain saw itself as a nation of people chosen by God to save Catholic Christianity from the Protestant heretics.

Philip II became a champion of Catholic causes. He led a Holy League against the Turks. This resulted in a victory over the Turkish fleet in the Battle of Lepanto in 1571. He was not as successful in the Netherlands. The Spanish Netherlands consisted of 17 provinces (modern Netherlands and Belgium). It was one of the richest parts of Philip's empire. Philip tried to strengthen his control in this region. The nobles of the Netherlands strongly opposed him. Philip also tried to crush Calvinism in the Netherlands. Violence broke out in 1566 when Calvinists began to destroy statues in Catholic churches. Philip sent ten thousand troops to crush the rebellion. In the northern provinces, the Dutch, under the leadership of William the Silent, offered growing resistance. Finally, in 1609, a 12-year truce ended the war. The northern provinces began to call themselves the United Provinces of the Netherlands. They became the core of the modern Dutch state. The seventeenth century has been called the golden age of the Dutch Republic.

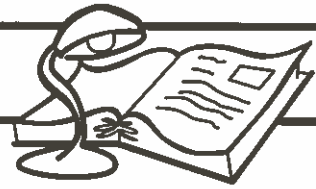
Philip's reign ended in 1598. At that time, Spain was the most populous empire in the world. It controlled almost all of South America and a number of settlements in Asia and Africa. To most Europeans, it seemed to be the greatest power at the time. However, its treasury was empty. Philip II had gone bankrupt from spending too much on war. The armed forces were out-of-date, and the government was inefficient. Spain continued to play the role of a great power, but real power had shifted to England.

11. Why is Philip II called the "Most Catholic King"?

- **The England of Elizabeth** *(page 431)*

During the reign of Elizabeth Tudor, England became the leader of the Protestant nations of Europe and laid the foundations for a world empire. Elizabeth became queen in 1558. To solve the religious problem in England, she repealed the laws favoring Catholics that had been passed under her Catholic half-sister, Mary Tudor. A new Act of Supremacy named Elizabeth as the "only supreme governor" of both church and state. The Church of

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



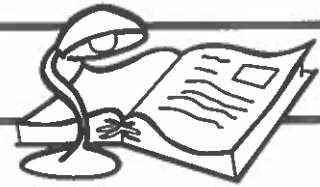
Chapter 14, Section 1 (continued)

England under Elizabeth was basically Protestant, but it followed a moderate Protestantism that kept most people satisfied.

Elizabeth tried to keep Spain and France from becoming too powerful by balancing power. If one nation seemed to be getting more powerful, England would support the weaker nation. Philip II of Spain wanted to invade England, partly to overthrow Protestantism. His advisers told him that the people of England would rise against Elizabeth when the Spaniards arrived. In 1588, Philip ordered preparations for an **armada** (a fleet of warships) to invade England. But the Spanish were no match for the English. After a number of battles, the Spanish armada sailed back to Spain by a northern route around Scotland and Ireland. The ships were pounded by storms, and many sank.

12. How did Elizabeth solve the religious problem in England?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 434–439

SOCIAL CRISES, WAR, AND REVOLUTION

KEY TERMS

inflation rising prices (page 434)

witchcraft magic performed by witches (page 435)

divine right of kings the belief that kings receive their power from God and are responsible only to God (page 437)

commonwealth a republic (used especially for the government of England from 1649 to 1660) (page 438)

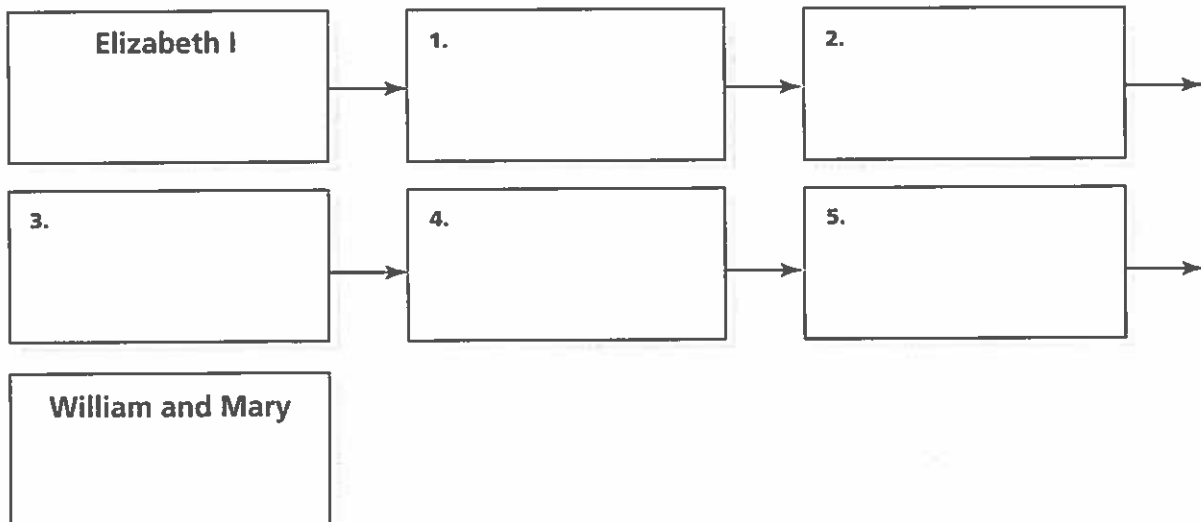
DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Are you concerned about inflation? How have you been affected by inflation? How many times has the price of a postage stamp increased in your lifetime?

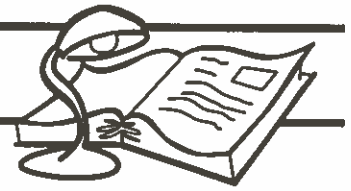
In the last section, you read about the religious wars in France and other countries in the sixteenth century. In this section, you will learn how religious disputes continued in many countries and led to the Thirty Years' War in Germany. You will also learn about the revolutions in England during the seventeenth century and about the social and economic problems, such as inflation, that plagued Europe during this time.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the diagram below to help you take notes. Identify the rulers of England after Elizabeth I and before William and Mary.



Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 2 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Economic and Social Crises** (page 434)

From 1560 to 1650, Europe had severe economic and social crises. One major economic problem was **inflation**, or rising prices. The influx of gold and silver from the Americas was one cause of the inflation. There was also a growing population in the sixteenth century. This increased the demand for land and food and drove up prices for both. Spain's economy was seriously failing by the 1640s. It had grown dependent on imported silver, and the silver mines were producing less silver. Italy was the financial center of Europe in the Renaissance, but it was also declining economically.

The population in Europe increased from about 60 million in 1500 to 85 million by 1600. By 1620, the population began to level off. By 1650, it began to decline, especially in central and southern Europe. Warfare, plague, and famine all contributed to the population decline.

6. What were some of the causes of inflation in the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries?

- **The Witchcraft Trials** (page 435)

A belief in **witchcraft**, or magic, had been part of traditional village culture for centuries. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, an intense hysteria about witchcraft affected the lives of many Europeans. More than a hundred thousand people were charged with witchcraft. As more and more people were brought to trial, the fear of witches grew. So did the fear of being accused of witchcraft. Poor, common people were the ones most often accused. More than 75 percent of those accused were women. Most of them were single or widowed and over 50 years old. Under torture, accused witches usually confessed.

By 1650, the witchcraft hysteria had begun to lessen. Officials were less willing to disrupt their societies with witch trials. People were also less willing to believe in the old view of a world haunted by evil spirits.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 2 (continued)

7. Which people were most likely to be accused of witchcraft?

• **The Thirty Years' War** (page 435)

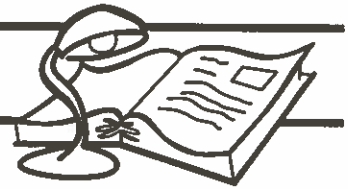
Religious disputes continued in Germany after the Peace of Augsburg in 1555. One reason for the disputes was that Calvinism had not been recognized by the peace settlement. Religion played an important role in the start of the Thirty Years' War, but there were also political and territorial motives for this war. The war began in 1618. At first, it was a struggle between Catholic forces and Protestant nobles in Bohemia. The Protestant nobles were primarily Calvinists who rebelled against the Hapsburg emperors. Soon the conflict became a political one. Denmark, Sweden, France, and Spain all entered the war. The war became a struggle between France and the rulers of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire. Most of the battles of the war were fought on German soil. For 30 years, Germany was plundered and destroyed. The Peace of Westphalia ended the war in 1648. It stated that all German states, including the Calvinist ones, could determine their own religion. The states that had made up the Holy Roman Empire were recognized as independent states. This brought an end to the Holy Roman Empire. Germany would not be united again for another two hundred years. France, on the other hand, emerged from the war as the dominant nation in Europe.

8. What was the impact of the Thirty Years' War on Germany and France?

• **Revolutions in England** (page 437)

The civil war in England is known as the English Revolution. It began as a struggle between the king and Parliament to determine what role each should play in governing England. After Queen Elizabeth died in 1603, the Tudor dynasty came to an end. The Stuart line of rulers began when Elizabeth's

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 2 (continued)

cousin, the king of Scotland, became James I of England. He ruled from 1603 to 1625. James believed in the **divine right of kings** (that kings receive their power from God and are responsible only to God). Parliament, on the other hand, believed that the king or queen and Parliament ruled England together.

Religion was also an issue. The **Puritans** (Protestants in England inspired by Calvinist ideas) did not like the king's strong defense of the Church of England. The Puritans were part of the Church of England, but they wanted to make it more Protestant. Many of England's wealthy landowners had become Puritans. These Puritans were an important part of the House of Commons, the lower house of Parliament.

The conflict began during the reign of James but came to a head during the reign of his son, Charles I. Charles ruled from 1625 to 1649. In 1628, Parliament passed a petition that prohibited the passing of any taxes without Parliament's consent. At first, Charles I accepted this petition, but he later changed his mind, because the petition put limits on the king's power. Charles also tried to impose more ritual on the Church of England. To the Puritans, this was a return to Catholic practices. When Charles tried to force them to accept his religious policies, thousands of Puritans went to America.

In 1642, a civil war began between the supporters of the king (the Cavaliers or Royalists) and the parliamentary forces (called the Roundheads because of their short hair). Parliament was victorious. This was due mainly to the New Model Army of Oliver Cromwell. This army was made up primarily of extreme Puritans who believed that they were doing battle for God. After the victory, Cromwell purged Parliament of any members who had not supported him. What was left of the Parliament is known as the Rump Parliament. The Rump Parliament had Charles I executed on January 30, 1649. Parliament then abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords and declared England a republic, or **commonwealth**. Cromwell found it difficult to work with the Rump Parliament and finally dispersed it by force. After destroying both the king and Parliament, Cromwell set up a military dictatorship.

Cromwell ruled from 1653 until he died in 1658. In 1660, Parliament made Charles II king. He was the son of Charles I. He ruled until his death in 1685. Parliament passed laws that made the Church of England the state religion again. The laws also took away some rights of Catholics and Puritans. Charles II was sympathetic to Catholicism. He suspended the laws that Parliament had passed, but Parliament forced him to back down.

In 1685, James II, the brother of Charles II, became king. He was an open and devout Catholic. He named Catholics to high positions in the government and military. In 1688, a group of English noblemen invited the Dutch leader, William of Orange, to invade England. William of Orange was the husband of James' daughter, Mary. William and Mary were Protestants. They raised an army and "invaded" England. James fled to France. With almost no bloodshed, England had undergone a "Glorious Revolution."

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 2 (continued)

In January 1689, Parliament offered the throne to William and Mary. They accepted it, along with a Bill of Rights. The Bill of Rights set forth Parliament's right to make laws and levy taxes. It also stated that standing armies could only be raised with Parliament's consent. The rights of citizens to keep arms and have a jury trial were also confirmed. The bill laid the foundation for a limited, or constitutional, monarchy. Another important action of Parliament was the Toleration Act of 1689. This act granted Puritans, but not Catholics, the right of free public worship. Few English citizens would ever again be persecuted for religion. By deposing one king and establishing another, Parliament destroyed the divine-right theory. William was king, not by the grace of God, but by the grace of Parliament.

9. What was the "Glorious Revolution" in England?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 441–447

RESPONSE TO CRISIS: ABSOLUTISM

KEY TERMS

- absolutism** a system of government in which a ruler holds total power (page 441)
- czar** the Russian word for caesar, which became the title of the Russian rulers beginning with Ivan IV (page 445)
- boyars** the Russian nobility (page 446)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

What do you think is the purpose of dress codes? Do you think dress codes should be enforced in public schools? Why or why not?

In the last section, you read about the wars, revolutions, and economic problems in Europe during the seventeenth century. In this section, you will learn how monarchs in certain countries gained absolute power during this time. One of these absolute monarchs, Peter the Great, even told people how they should dress.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Identify the countries of the following monarchs and summarize their achievements.

Monarch	Country	Achievements
Louis XIV	1.	2.
Frederick William the Great Elector	3.	4.
Peter the Great	5.	6.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• France Under Louis XIV (page 441)

The reign of Louis XIV has been regarded as the best example of the practice of absolutism in the seventeenth century. **Absolutism** is a system in which a ruler holds total power. In seventeenth-century Europe, absolutism was tied to the idea of the divine right of kings. Absolute monarchs had tremendous powers. They had the ability to make laws, levy taxes, administer justice, control the state's officials, and determine foreign policy.

French history for the 50 years before Louis was a period of struggle. Both Louis XIII and Louis XIV were only boys when they became kings. Royal ministers controlled the government. Cardinal Richelieu, Louis XIII's chief minister, strengthened the power of the monarchy. Because the Huguenots were seen as a threat to the king's power, Richelieu took away their political and military rights. He also set up a network of spies to uncover plots by nobles against the government. When plots were discovered, he executed the conspirators. Louis XIV came to the throne in 1643 at the age of four. Due to the king's young age, Cardinal Mazarin, the chief minister, took control of the government. During the time of Mazarin, there was a revolt led by nobles who were unhappy with the growing power of the monarchy, but the revolt was crushed. When Mazarin died in 1661, Louis XIV, now age 23, took over supreme power. He had complete authority over foreign policy, the Church, and taxes. He created a myth of himself as the Sun King—the source of light for all of his people.

Louis set up his royal court at Versailles. His court served three purposes. It was the personal household of the king. The chief offices of the state were located there, so Louis could watch over them. It was also the place where people came to find favors and offices for themselves. The royal council was the king's chief administrative body. To keep nobles and royal princes from becoming too powerful, Louis removed them from the royal council. At the same time, he invited them to court, where he could keep them busy with court life and out of politics. At the local level, however, Louis's power was limited. The nobles, local officials, and town councils had more influence than the king in the day-to-day operations of the local governments. As a result, the king bribed people in the provinces to see that his policies were carried out. Louis had an anti-Protestant policy. He ordered the destruction of Huguenot churches and closed their schools. As many as two hundred thousand Huguenots left France for England, the United Provinces, and the German states.

Louis developed a standing army of four hundred thousand. He waged four wars between 1667 and 1713. His ambitions caused many nations to form coalitions against him. Through his wars, Louis added some territory to France's northeastern frontier and set up a member of his own family on the throne of Spain. The cost of pursuing wars, building palaces, and maintaining

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

his court made finances a crucial issue for Louis XIV. His controller-general of finances was Jean-Baptiste Colbert. Colbert followed the ideas of mercantilism. To decrease imports, he raised tariffs (taxes) on foreign goods. He also created a merchant marine to carry French goods. Nonetheless, when Louis XIV died in 1715, he left France with great debts and surrounded by enemies.

7. What is absolutism?

- **Absolutism in Central and Eastern Europe** (page 444)

After the Thirty Years' War, there was no German state, but over three hundred "Germanies." Two of these states, Prussia and Austria, became great powers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Frederick William the Great Elector laid the foundation for the Prussian state. He built a large and efficient standing army. To maintain the army and his own power, Frederick William set up the General War Commissariat to levy taxes for the army and oversee its growth. The Commissariat soon became an agency for civil government as well. Many of its officials were members of the Prussian aristocracy, known as the Junkers. They also served as officers in the army. In 1701, Frederick William's son officially gained the title of king. Elector Frederick III became King Frederick I.

The Austrian Hapsburgs had long played an important role in European politics as Holy Roman emperors. The Hapsburgs made a difficult transition in the seventeenth century. After the Thirty Years' War, they had lost the German Empire, but now they created a new empire in eastern and southeastern Europe. The core of the new Austrian Empire was the traditional Austrian lands in present-day Austria, the Czech Republic, and Hungary. After the defeat of the Turks in 1687, Austria took control of all of Hungary, Transylvania, Croatia, and Slavonia. By the beginning of the eighteenth century, the Austrian Hapsburgs had a new empire, but it never became a highly centralized, absolutist state. This was chiefly because it was made up of so many different national groups. Each of these areas had its own laws and political life. No common sentiment tied the regions together.

8. How was the Austrian Empire of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries different from the old Hapsburg Empire?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

• Russia Under Peter the Great (page 445)

In the sixteenth century, Ivan IV became the first ruler to take the title of **czar**, the Russian word for caesar. Ivan expanded the territories of Russia eastward. He also crushed the power of the Russian nobility, known as the **boyars**. He was known as Ivan the Terrible because of his ruthless deeds. When Ivan's dynasty came to an end in 1598, a period of anarchy known as the Time of Troubles followed. This period did not end until the Zemsky Sobor, or national assembly, chose Michael Romanov as the new czar in 1613.

The Romanov dynasty lasted until 1917. One of its most prominent members was Peter the Great. Peter became czar in 1689. He was an absolutist monarch who claimed the divine right to rule. A few years after becoming czar, Peter made a trip to the West. When he returned to Russia, he was determined to westernize Russia. He borrowed European technology, especially for the military. Under Peter the Great, Russia became a great military power. One of his first goals was to reorganize the army. He employed both Russians and Europeans as officers. He built a standing army of 210,000 men. He also formed the first Russian navy. After his trip to the West, Peter introduced Western customs, practices, and manners into Russia. He ordered the preparation of the first Russian book of etiquette to teach Western manners. Because Westerners did not wear beards or long coats, Russian beards had to be shaved and coats shortened. Because Western women mixed freely with men, Peter insisted that Russian upper-class women remove the veils that had traditionally covered their faces and move out into society. Peter also held gatherings in which both sexes could mix for conversation and dancing, a practice he had learned in the West.

Peter also wanted to "open a window to the West," an ice-free port with year-round access to Europe. This could only be achieved on the Baltic Sea. At that time, however, the Baltic coast was controlled by Sweden. Peter fought a long war with Sweden and finally acquired the lands he needed. In 1703, Peter began the construction of a new city, St. Petersburg, on the Baltic Sea. St. Petersburg was finished during his lifetime and became the Russian capital until 1918.

9. How did Peter's trip to the West change Russia?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 448–451

THE WORLD OF EUROPEAN CULTURE

KEY TERMS

Mannerism a movement in art that emerged in Italy in the 1520s and 1530s, which emphasized emotions, suffering, and religious ecstasy (page 448)

baroque a movement in art that began in Italy in the late sixteenth century, which tried to bring together the classical ideals of Renaissance art and the spiritual feelings of the sixteenth-century religious revival (page 449)

natural rights rights with which humans are born, including rights to life, liberty, and property (page 451)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever attended the performance of a Shakespearean play? Have you read any of Shakespeare's works? Which ones do you like best?

In the last three sections, you read about political, economic, and religious developments in Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In this section, you will learn about developments in art, literature, and political thought during this period. Two of the world's greatest writers, Shakespeare and Cervantes, lived during this time.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. Two political thinkers, Thomas Hobbes and John Locke, both lived in England during the seventeenth century, but they developed quite different political theories. Compare and contrast their political ideas in this chart.

	Thomas Hobbes	John Locke
Title of political work	1.	2.
View of human nature	3.	4.
Reason given for why humans developed governments/social contracts	5.	6.
Type of government promoted	7.	8.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

- **Mannerism** (page 448)

A new movement called **Mannerism** emerged in Italy in the 1520s and 1530s. The religious upheavals of the Reformation caused the worldly enthusiasm of the Renaissance to decline. People were anxious and uncertain and wished for spiritual experiences. This was reflected in Mannerism. The rules of proportion were deliberately ignored. Elongated figures were used to show suffering, heightened emotions, and religious ecstasy. Mannerism spread from Italy to other parts of Europe. It reached its high point in the work of El Greco. In his paintings, El Greco used elongated and contorted figures. He portrayed them in shades of yellow and green against an eerie background of stormy grays.

9. How did Mannerism reflect the uncertainty of the Reformation period?

- **The Baroque Period** (page 449)

Mannerism was eventually replaced by a new movement—the **baroque**. This movement began in Italy in the last quarter of the sixteenth century and spread to the rest of Europe and even Latin America. Baroque artists tried to bring together the classical ideals of Renaissance art with the spiritual feelings of the sixteenth-century religious revival. The baroque painting style was known for its use of dramatic effects to arouse the emotions. Baroque art and architecture also reflected the search for power in the seventeenth century. Baroque churches and palaces were magnificent and richly detailed. Perhaps the greatest baroque artist was the Italian architect and sculptor Gian Lorenzo Bernini. He completed Saint Peter's Basilica in Rome.

10. What effect did Baroque artists try to achieve?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)

• A Golden Age of Literature (page 449)

The period in England from the late sixteenth to the early seventeenth centuries is often called the Elizabethan Era, because so much of it fell within the reign of Queen Elizabeth. During this period, there were many cultural achievements. Drama, in particular, flourished during this period. Of all the dramatists, none is more famous than William Shakespeare. During the Elizabethan period, theater was a very successful business. Both the lower classes and the well-to-do enjoyed the theater. Because Elizabethan audiences varied so much, playwrights had to write works that pleased many different kinds of people. Shakespeare understood this. He was a master of the English language, but he also had a remarkable understanding of human psychology.

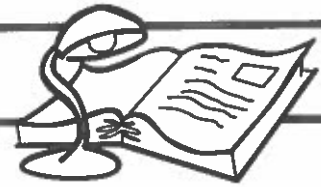
The theater also flourished in Spain. Every large town had a public playhouse, including Mexico City in the New World. Touring companies brought the latest Spanish plays to all parts of the Spanish Empire. Beginning in the 1580s, the standard for playwrights was set by Lope de Vega. He wrote an extraordinary number of plays, perhaps 1500 in all. He wrote his plays to please his audiences and satisfy public demand. His plays are witty, charming, action-packed, and realistic. Other forms of literature also flourished during this time. One of the greatest achievements of the golden age of Spanish literature was the work of Miguel de Cervantes. His novel *Don Quixote* is considered one of the greatest literary works of all time.

11. What form of literature particularly flourished in England and Spain in the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries?

• Political Thought (page 451)

Two English philosophers, Thomas Hobbes and John Locke, developed political theories in response to the English revolutions of the seventeenth century. Their theories were very different. Thomas Hobbes wrote a political work called *Leviathan*. It was published in 1651. Hobbes was alarmed by the revolutionary upheavals in England. His work tried to deal with the problem of disorder. He believed that humans were guided not by reason and moral ideals, but by a ruthless struggle for self-preservation. He believed that people made a social contract and agreed to form a state to save themselves from destroying one another. Hobbes called the state "that great Leviathan to which we owe our peace and defense." People in the state agreed to be governed by an absolute ruler who possessed unlimited power. Hobbes believed that absolute power was necessary to preserve order in society.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)

John Locke wrote a political work in 1690 called *Two Treatises of Government*. Locke did not believe in the absolute rule of one person. He believed that before society was organized, humans lived in a state of equality and freedom, not a state of war. He believed that humans had certain **natural rights** (rights with which they were born). These included rights to life, liberty, and property. He believed that people agreed to establish a government to ensure the protection of their rights. The contract between people and government involved mutual obligations. Government would protect the rights of people, and people would act reasonably toward government. If a government broke the contract, people could form a new government. Locke's ideas can be found in the American Declaration of Independence and the U.S. Constitution.

12. What are "natural" rights?
