

6. “The Bill of Rights”: The author states that the Bill of Rights laid the foundation for a constitutional monarchy. How? What key aspects of this document testify to the exceptional nature of English state politics in the seventeenth century? Why was there no “bill of rights” in France or Russia in the late seventeenth century? Was England unique, and if so, why? (p. 462, in the section Limited Monarchy and Republics)

7. “William Shakespeare: In Praise of England”: Beside patriotism, what other motives may Shakespeare have had in writing this tribute to England? What are the elements in this excerpt from *Richard II* that makes it one of the most famous evocations of England ever written? (p. 468, in the section The Flourishing of European Culture)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Social Crises, War, and Rebellions

I. The Witchcraft Craze

- A. Witchcraft existed before the sixteenth and seventeenth century; part of traditional village life
- B. Spread of Witchcraft
 - 1. increased prosecutions and executions starting in the sixteenth century because of Church influence
 - 2. accusations against witches: swearing allegiance to the devil, using evil incantations to kill livestock, etc.
 - 3. reasons for witchcraft prosecutions: religious uncertainty and social turmoil
 - 4. Women as primary victims, especially elderly widows
- C. Decline: begins by mid-seventeenth century

II. The Thirty Years War (1618 – 1648)

- A. Background to the war
 - 1. religious conflict
 - 2. dynastic-nationalist considerations – Europe-wide struggle
 - 3. tensions in the Holy Roman Empire between Habsburgs and princes
- B. The Bohemian Phase (1618 – 1625): Conflict between Archduke Ferdinand (Catholic – later Emperor Ferdinand II) and Frederick V (Protestant) for control of Bohemia
- C. The Danish Phase (1625 – 1629): King Christian IV intervenes for the Protestant cause, but is defeated, which ends Danish supremacy in the Baltic.
- D. The Swedish Phase (1630 – 1635): Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden (Lutheran) intervenes and is defeated by the imperial army.
- E. The Franco-Swedish Phase (1635 – 1648): The Catholic French support the Protestant Swedes against the Catholic Habsburgs, ending in peace negotiations.
- F. Outcomes
 - 1. Peace of Westphalia (1648) officially separates religion and politics
 - 2. widespread destruction in the HRE

6. The Ottoman Empire. MAP 15.6. Where did the Ottoman Empire gain territory by 1481? 1521? 1556? What concerns might Austria have had about the movements of the Ottoman Empire? What might be the possible explanations for those territorial acquisitions? Were the Ottomans a serious threat to most of Europe, or just southeastern Europe? Why? Was the Ottoman Empire a victim of “imperial overstretch”? Why, or why not? (p. 454, in the section Absolutism in Central, Eastern, and Northern Europe)

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS FOR THE PRIMARY SOURCES (BOXED DOCUMENTS)

1. “A Witchcraft Trial in France”: What does this document reveal about the spread of witchcraft persecutions in the seventeenth century? What does this document indicate about the legal procedures involved in the trial of witches, and how might these procedures have worked to condemn the innocent? What do these passages suggest about early modern European conceptions of justice? What does the trial record suggest about the status of women in the seventeenth century? What might the trial suggest about superstition, religion and folklore in French society? (p. 434, in the section Social Crises, War, and Rebellions)
2. “The Destruction of Magdeburg in the Thirty Years’ War”: Total War is a concept in which all parts of society are involved in, and effected by a conflict, how does this document show that in some ways the Thirty Years War was a Total War? Considering this was a war of religion, what seemed to be a major motivation of the average foot soldier? Analyze the speaker, audience, and message of the document. Knowing those three things, why should we accept the report as credible and why should we also be suspicious of it? (p. 439, in the section Social Crises, War, and Rebellions)
3. “The King’s Day Begins”: How does Saint-Simon describe the royal waking and dressing ceremony? What does this account reveal about the authority of the Louis XIV, and what message does it communicate about his relationship with the nobles who attended him? Is this a flattering or critical account of the king? (p. 445, in the section The Practice of Absolutism: Western Europe)
4. “Peter the Great Deals with a Rebellion”: How did Peter deal with the revolt of the Streltsy? What does his approach to this problem indicate about the tsar? Was Peter’s bloody punishment of the rebels typical of seventeenth century rulers? Could Peter the Great be considered a totalitarian leader? (p. 451, in the section Absolutism in Central, Eastern, and Northern Europe)
5. “Opposing Viewpoints: Oliver Cromwell: Three Perspectives”: How do Cromwell’s own assessments differ from those of Ludlow and Clarendon? What do the selections suggest about Cromwell’s motives and actions? What might account for the different perspectives each provides about Cromwell, and picture of Cromwell emerges from the consideration of multiple points of view? (p. 460, in the section Limited Monarchy and Republics)

III. A Military Revolution?

- A. Evolving and/or new tactics and technologies
- B. Gustavus Adolphus develops first standing army
- C. The cost of a modern military requires heavier taxes

IV. Rebellions

- A. Peasant Revolts (1590 – 1640)
- B. Noble Revolts in France (1648 – 1652)

The Practice of Absolutism: Western Europe

I. Background

- A. Absolutism: ultimate authority rests in the hands of a divine right monarch
- B. Divine-right monarchy theorized by Bossuet

II. Absolute Monarchy in France

- A. Foundations of French Absolutism: Cardinal Richelieu
 - 1. eliminated political/military rights of Huguenots
 - 2. undermined noble plots
 - 3. administrative reforms: intendants
 - 4. debt continues to spiral

III. The Reign of Louis XIV (1643 – 1715)

A. Administration of the Government

- 1. royal court is center of household and government
- 2. ministers are subservient
- 3. some degree of control over parliaments

B. Religious Policy

- 1. Edict of Fontainebleau (1685) revokes Edict of Nantes
- 2. 200,000 Huguenots leave France

C. Financial Issues: Jean Baptist Colbert (1619 – 1683) and mercantilism

D. Daily Life at Versailles: symbol for absolutist state

- 1. purposes of Versailles: a way to control nobility by keeping them busy
- 2. court life and etiquette is complex; nobles forced to jockey for position

E. The Wars of Louis XIV

- 1. professional army: 100,000 men in peacetime; 400,000 in wartime
- 2. four wars between 1667 – 1713
 - a. Invasion of Spanish Netherlands (1667)
 - b. Annexation of Alsace and Lorraine, occupation of Strasbourg (1679)
 - c. War of the League of Augsburg (1689 – 1697)
 - d. War of the Spanish Succession (1702 – 1713)

IV. The Decline of Spain

Absolutism in Central and Eastern Europe

I. The German States

A. The Rise of Brandenburg-Prussia

- 1. The Hohenzollern Dynasty
- 2. Frederick William the Great Elector (1640 – 1688) lays foundations: strong army and General War Commissariat as an agency for civil government
- 3. Junkers serve as officers – have unlimited power over peasantry
- 4. Frederick III (1688 – 1713) named King of Prussia (1701)

- B. The Emergence of Austria
 - 1. Habsburgs and the new Austrian Empire
 - 2. Leopold I (1658 – 1705) defeats Ottomans and expands territory
 - 3. never becomes centralized and unified; holdings are too diverse
 - II. Italy: From Spanish to Austrian Rule
 - III. Russia: From Fledgling Principality to Major Power
 - A. Ivan IV the Terrible (1533 – 1584): first tsar
 - 1. expands Russia eastwards
 - 2. crushes power of boyars (Russian nobility)
 - B. Romanov Dynasty (1613 – 1917)
 - C. Stratified Society
 - D. The Reign of Peter the Great (1689 – 1725)
 - 1. visits the West (1697 – 1698) and seeks to emulate it
 - a. reorganizes armed forces
 - b. reorganizes central government, dividing Russia into provinces
 - c. seeks control of the Russian Church
 - d. introduces western customs
 - e. adopts mercantilist policies
 - 2. defeats Sweden and gains control of Estonia, Livonia and Karelia
 - 3. constructs St. Petersburg
 - IV. The Great Northern States
 - A. Denmark
 - B. Sweden
 - V. The Ottoman Empire
 - A. Suleiman the Magnificent (1520 – 1566)
 - B. Ottomans viewed as a European Power in first half of 17th century
 - C. New Offensives in the second half of the 17th century thwarted
 - VI. The Limits of Absolutism
 - A. Power of rulers not actually absolute
 - B. Local institutions still had power
 - C. Landed aristocracy maintain immense power
- Limited Monarchy and Republics
- I. The Weakness of the Polish Monarchy
 - A. elective monarchy, controlled by Sejm (Polish diet)
 - B. kings have to share power with Sejm
 - C. 1652: liberum veto reduces government to chaos
 - II. The Golden Age of the Dutch Republic
 - A. The United Provinces = Atlantic power
 - B. Internal Dissension
 - 1. The House of Orange and the Stadholders
 - 2. The States General opposes the House of Orange
 - 3. William III (1672 – 1702) dies without an heir, continuing the struggle
 - C. Trade damaged by wars with France and England
 - D. Life in Seventeenth-Century Amsterdam: commercial and financial center of Europe

III. England and the Emergence of Constitutional Monarchy

- A. King James I (1603 – 1625) and Parliament
 - 1. first of Stuart dynasty
 - 2. alienated Parliament by claiming divine right of kings
 - 3. Parliament and the power of the purse
 - 4. Religious conflict with the Puritans
- B. Charles I (1625 – 1649) and the move toward revolution
 - 1. 1628 Petition of Right largely ignored by Charles
 - 2. “Personal Rule” (1629 – 1640): Parliament does not meet
 - 3. religious policy angers Puritans – suspected of being Catholic
 - 4. forced to call Parliament to approve new taxes in 1640 – conflict leads to civil war
- C. Civil War in England
 - 1. Oliver Cromwell leads Parliamentarians and New Model Army
 - 2. Charles I executed (January 30, 1649)
- D. Cromwell and new governments
 - 1. Rump Parliament abolishes the monarchy and House of Lords
 - 2. conflict with the Levellers
 - 3. Cromwell dissolves Parliament (April 1653)
 - 4. Cromwell named Lord Protector; first constitution, the Instrument of Government, fails
 - 5. dissolves Parliament again (1655) and divides country into 11 regions, ruling by military force
 - 6. Cromwell dies (1658); monarchy re-established
- E. Restoration of the monarchy
 - 1. Charles II (1660 – 1685) and continued conflict with Parliament
 - 2. Declaration of Indulgence (1672) – suspends religious laws
 - 3. Test Act (1673) – Only Anglicans could hold military and civil offices
 - 4. James II (1685 – 1688), Catholic, succeeds Charles II in 1685: new Declaration of Indulgence (1687) offends Parliament
- F. A Glorious Revolution
 - 1. Catholic son born to James II in 1688
 - 2. Parliament invites Mary (Protestant daughter of James II) and her husband, William of Orange, to invade England
 - 3. bloodless revolution – Mary and William of Orange are offered throne
 - 4. Bill of Rights and Toleration Act of 1689
 - 5. Parliament’s authority definitively established
- G. Responses to the Revolution
 - 1. Thomas Hobbes (1588 – 1679): Leviathan (1651): human nature is corrupt; people need a strong ruler
 - 2. John Locke (1632 – 1704): Two Treatises of Government: people have inalienable rights and form a social contract with their government

The Flourishing of European Culture

- I. The Changing Faces of Art
 - A. Mannerism
 - 1. distorted rules of proportion

2. sense of suffering and strong emotional atmosphere
 3. best known artist: El Greco
- B. The Baroque Period
1. dramatic effect arouses emotions
 2. magnificent, richly detailed art
 3. artists: Peter Paul Rubens, Gian Lorenzo Bernini, Artemisia Gentileschi
- C. French Classicism: emphasized clarity, simplicity, balance and harmony of design (Poussin)
- D. Dutch Realism: realistic portrayals of secular, everyday life (Rembrandt)
- II. A Wondrous Age of Theater
- A. William Shakespeare (1564 – 1614): reflects understanding of the human condition
 - B. Spain's Golden Century: Lope de Vega wrote 1500 plays
 - C. French Drama: Racine and Molière write for an elite audience and depend on royal patronage

GLOSSARY

Absolutism: a form of government where the sovereign power or ultimate authority rested in the hands of a monarch who claimed to rule by divine right and was therefore responsible only to God.

Baroque: an artistic movement of the late sixteenth century and early seventeenth century, characterized by the use of dramatic effects to heighten emotional intensity.

Boyars: members of the Russian nobility

Divine-right monarchy: a monarchy based on the belief that monarchs receive their power directly from God and are responsible to no one except God.

Gentry: well-to-do English landowners below the level of nobility; many converted to Puritanism.

Intendants: royal officials in seventeenth-century France who were sent into the provinces to execute the orders of the central government.

Janissaries: in the Ottoman Empire, an elite fighting force personally loyal to the sultan, made up of boys from Christian families who are trained from their childhood

Mannerism: an artistic movement, emerging in Italy in the 1520s and 1530s, characterized by a sense of spiritual anxiety and suffering.

Parlements: provincial law courts in France that often thwart absolutist rule by adhering to local law and custom.

6. "Margaret Cavendish: The Education of Women": How does Cavendish counter the arguments of those who criticize her? How does she justify her right to education and to exercise reason? (p. 487, in the section Women in the Origins of Modern Science)?

7. "The Father of Modern Rationalism": Describe Descartes's principles of inquiry and compare them to Newton's rules of reasoning. What are the main similarities between these systems of thinking? How might either or both sets of rules for the mind change how individual thinkers thought about themselves, about others, about politics, and about existing systems of European power politics and police of society? (p. 490, in the section Toward a New Earth: Descartes, Rationalism, and a New View of Humankind)

8. "Pascal: 'What is a Man in the Infinite?': Why did Pascal question whether human beings could achieve scientific certainty? Does Pascal seem to argue that the Copernican Revolution, with its vastness, was a proof of the existence of God? What does the sheer scale of Pascal's thought (and disquiet) tell you about the impact of the Scientific Revolution on the consciousness and conscience of Europeans? (p. 495, in the section The Scientific Method and the Spread of Scientific Knowledge)

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Background to the Scientific Revolution

- I. Ancient Authors and Renaissance Artists
 - A. Renaissance Humanists mastered Greek and questioned medieval authority
 - B. Renaissance artists impact on scientific study through close observation of nature
- II. Technical Innovations and Mathematics
 - A. More emphasis on practical problems
 - B. Printing press spreads ideas quickly
 - C. Mathematics is key to understanding the nature of things

III. Renaissance Magic

Toward a New Heaven: A Revolution in Astronomy

- I. Cosmological Views of Later Middle Ages
 - A. Synthesis of Aristotle, Ptolemy, and Christian Theology
 - B. Geocentric conception of the universe
 1. ten spheres surrounded the Earth
 2. Christianized Ptolemaic universe
 3. perfect circular orbits
- II. Copernicus (1473-1543)
 - A. On The Revolution of the Heavenly Spheres posited a heliocentric universe
 - B. creates doubt about the Ptolemaic system but retained many of its aspects
- III. Brahe (1546-1601): kept detailed astronomical data for twenty years
- IV. Kepler (1571-1630)
- V. Galileo (1564 – 1642)
 - A. First European to use the telescope systematically
 - B. The Starry Messenger claimed that the universe is composed of material substance

- C. Galileo and the Inquisition
 1. ordered Galileo to reject the Copernican thesis
 2. ignores Church and publishes Dialogue on the Two World Systems
 3. forced to recant in 1633; spends the rest of his life in house arrest
- D. Galileo and the Problem of Motion
- VI. Newton (1642 – 1727)
 - A. As early as 1666, invented the calculus, a mathematical means of calculating rates of change; began investigations into the composition of light; and inaugurated work on the law of universal gravitation
 - B. Became Chair of Mathematics at Cambridge University
 - C. Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy (1684 – 1686): The Principia
 - D. Newton and the Occult: studied alchemy and Hermeticism
 - E. Universal Law of Gravitation
 1. culmination of theories of Copernicus, Kepler, and Galileo
 2. three laws of motion
 3. law of gravitation explained attraction between objects
 4. secrets of natural world can be explained by scientists
 5. Newton's world-machine, conceived as operating absolutely in time, space, and motion, dominated the Western worldview until the twentieth century

Advances in Medicine and Chemistry

- I. Galen and Medieval Medicine
 - A. Relied on animal dissection; picture of human anatomy inaccurate
 - B. Belief in two separate blood systems and four bodily humors
 - C. Treatment of disease involved purging and bleeding (often harmful) and herbal remedies (sometimes beneficial)
- II. Paracelsus (1493-1541)
 - A. Rejected the work of Aristotle and Galen
 - B. Macrocosmic-microcosmic principle
 - C. Disease due to chemical imbalances
- III. Vesalius (1514 – 1564)
 - A. On the Fabric of the Human Body (1543)
 - B. Dissection of a human body allows him to correct many of Galen's errors
- IV. William Harvey (1578-1657)
 - A. On the Motion of the Heart and Blood (1628)
 - B. Corrected Galen's errors regarding the circulation of the blood
- V. Chemistry
 - A. Robert Boyle (1627-1691) conducts controlled experiments
 - B. Antoine Lavoisier (1743-1794) invents system of naming chemical elements

Women in the Origins of Modern Science

- I. New Opportunities for Women (but only the most privileged)
- II. Margaret Cavendish (1623 – 1673)
 - A. Observations upon Experimental Philosophy and Grounds of Natural Philosophy
 - B. Attacked rationalist and empiricist approaches to scientific knowledge
- III. Maria Merian (1647-1717): German entomologist

- IV. Maria Winkelmann (1670 – 1720)
 - A. Famous German astronomer
 - B. Assisted husband, Gottfried Kirch, at astronomical observatory in Berlin
 - C. Discovered comet
 - D. Rejected for a post by the Berlin Academy
- V. Debate over the nature and value of women
 - A. Querelles des femmes: women portrayed as inherently base, prone to vice, easily swayed, and “sexually insatiable”
 - B. Women joined debate in the 17th century and reject this view
 - C. Science used to perpetrate old stereotypes about women
 - D. Scientific revolution reaffirmed traditional ideas about women’s nature
 - E. Male takeover of traditional midwifery

Toward a New Earth: Descartes, Rationalism, and a New View of Humankind

- I. Background on Rene Descartes (1596 – 1650)
 - A. Born into a French noble family
 - B. Jesuit education led him to study law
 - C. November 1619: “ecstatic illumination of the mystic”
- II. Discourse on Method (1637)
 - A. Starting point is doubt
 - B. “I think, therefore I am.”
 - C. Separation of mind and matter: Cartesian Dualism
 - D. Father of modern rationalism

The Scientific Method and the Spread of Scientific Knowledge

- I. The Scientific Method
 - A. Francis Bacon (1561 – 1626)
 - 1. rejects Copernicus and Kepler; misunderstands Galileo
 - 2. The Great Instauration (The Great Restoration) never finished
 - 3. correct scientific method built on inductive principles
 - 4. interested more in practical science than pure science
 - B. Descartes: deduction and mathematical logic
 - C. Newton unites Bacon’s empiricism and Descartes’ rationalism
- II. The Spread of Scientific Knowledge
 - A. The Scientific Societies
 - 1. English Royal Society received formal charter in 1662 from Charles II
 - 2. French Royal Academy of Sciences formally recognized by Louis XIV in 1666
 - 3. recognized practical value of scientific research
 - 4. focus on theoretical work in mechanics and astronomy
 - 5. demonstrated the benefits of science proceeding as a cooperative venture
 - B. Science and Society
 - 1. offered new ways to exploit resources for profit
 - 2. political interests used the new science to bolster social stability
 - 3. princes and kings interested in practical applications and prestige
- III. Science and Religion
 - A. Conflict between Science and Religion
 - B. “Natural Philosophers” attempt to differentiate between religion and science

- C. Growing secularization of European intellectual life
- D. Spinoza (1632-1677): pantheism
- E. Pascal (1623 – 1662)
 - 1. sought to keep science and religion united
 - 2. sought to convert rationalists to Christianity; failed to achieve this goal
 - 3. Christianity not contrary to reason; reason had limits

GLOSSARY

Cartesian dualism: Descartes' principle of the separation of mind and matter (and mind and body) that enabled scientists to view matter as something separate from themselves that could be investigated by reason.

Empiricism: the practice of relying on observation and experiment.

Geocentric conception: the idea that the earth is at the center of the universe and that the sun and other celestial objects revolve around the earth.

Heliocentric conception: the idea that the sun (not the earth) is at the center of the universe.

Querelles des femmes: "arguments about women." A centuries-old debate about the nature of women that continued during the Scientific Revolution as those who argued for the inferiority of women found additional support in the new anatomy and medicine.

Rationalism: a system of thought based on the belief that human reason and experience are the chief sources of knowledge.

Scientific method: a method of seeking knowledge through inductive principles; uses experiments and observations to develop generalizations.

Scientific Revolution: the transition from the medieval worldview to a largely secular, rational, and materialistic perspective; began in the seventeenth century and was popularized in the eighteenth.

World-machine: Newton's conception of the universe as one huge, regulated, and uniform machine that operated according to natural laws in absolute time, space, and motion.

SUGGESTED INTERNET RESOURCES

The Galileo Project:

<http://galileo.rice.edu/>

A massive site devoted to all aspects of Galileo's life and work equipped with numerous links to documents and other relevant source readings.