Beginning in the late fifteenth century, Europeans engaged in a vigorous period of state building. The result was the creation of independent monarchies in western and central Europe that formed the basis of a new European state system. These European states then began to expand into the rest of the world.

Also during this period, two great new Islamic empires, the Ottomans in Turkey and the Safavids in Persia, arose in Southwest Asia. A third Islamic empire—the Mogul Empire—unified the subcontinent of India. Least affected by the European expansion were the societies of East Asia: China and Japan.

Primary Sources Library
See pages 994–995 for primary source readings to accompany Unit 3.

Use The World History Primary Source Document Library CD-ROM to find additional primary sources about The Early Modern World.
“Dare to Know.”

—Immanuel Kant
Revolution

In the 1600s and 1700s, revolution traveled back and forth across the Atlantic Ocean. The pattern started with the arrival of the first English colonists in North America. The colonists carried with them ideals born of the English Revolution. They believed that governments existed to protect the rights and freedoms of citizens.

The spark that sent the spirit of revolution flashing across Europe and the Americas began in the minds of sixteenth-century European scientists. Galileo and others challenged established scientific ideas supported by the Catholic Church. Political authority began to be questioned.

In 1776, American colonists began a revolution to win their freedom from Great Britain. Thomas Jefferson, the principal author of the Declaration of Independence, clearly stated the reasons for proclaiming independence:

*We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness.*
In 1791, the ideals of the American and French Revolutions traveled across the Atlantic and the Caribbean to the French-held colony of Saint Domingue on the island of Hispaniola. Inspired by talk of freedom, enslaved Africans took up arms. Led by a formerly enslaved man, Toussaint-Louverture, and other island leaders, the rebels fought for thirteen years against the French. On January 1, 1804, Saint Domingue, present-day Haiti, became the second nation in the Americas to achieve independence from colonial rule. “We have asserted our rights,” declared the revolutionaries. “We swear never to yield them to any power on earth.”

Why It Matters

Political and intellectual revolutions changed the way people thought about established ideas and institutions. How did this change in perception eventually lead to the American view of government today?
Renaissance and Reformation
1350–1600

Key Events
As you read, look for the key events in the history of the Renaissance and the Reformation in Europe.
• Between 1350 and 1550, Italian intellectuals began to reexamine the culture of the Greeks and Romans. Historians later referred to this period of European history as the Renaissance.
• Martin Luther’s break with the Catholic Church led to the emergence of the Protestant Reformation.
• During the period known as the Catholic Reformation, the Catholic Church enacted a series of reforms that were successful in strengthening the Church.

The Impact Today
The events that occurred during this time period still impact our lives today.
• Western art is founded on classical styles developed by the Greeks and Romans.
• Machiavelli’s views on politics had a profound influence on later political leaders in the Western world and are still studied in universities today.
• The Jesuits have founded many Catholic colleges and universities in the United States.

Renaissance art and architecture flourished in Florence. The Duomo, a Renaissance church, contains artwork by many important Renaissance artists.

**HISTORY Online**

**Chapter Overview**
Visit the Glencoe World History Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on Chapter 12–Chapter Overview to preview chapter information.

**Timeline**

- **1508** Michelangelo begins painting the Sistine Chapel
- **1517** Martin Luther initiates the Protestant Reformation
- **1519** Charles I of Spain is elected Holy Roman Emperor
- **1534** Henry VIII creates the Church of England
- **1545** The Council of Trent is formed
Around 1500, Pope Julius II wanted the great Italian artist Michelangelo to paint the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in Rome. “This is not my trade,” Michelangelo protested; he was a sculptor, not a painter. He recommended other painters to the pope, but the pope persisted.

Michelangelo needed the money and undertook the project. He worked, on and off, for four years, from May 1508 to October 1512. For a long time he refused to allow anyone, including the pope, to see his work.

Julius grew anxious and pestered Michelangelo on a regular basis about when the ceiling would be finished. Tired of the pope’s requests, Michelangelo once replied that the ceiling would be completed “when it satisfies me as an artist.” The pope responded, “We want you to finish it soon.” He then threatened that if Michelangelo did not “finish the ceiling quickly he would have him thrown down from the scaffolding.”

Fearing the pope’s anger, Michelangelo quickly completed his work. When he climbed down from the scaffold for the last time, he was tired and worn out. Because he had been on his back so long while painting the ceiling, it was said that he now found it easier to read by holding a book up rather than down. The Sistine Chapel ceiling, however, is one of the great masterpieces in the history of Western art.

Why It Matters

In the fifteenth century, intellectuals in Italy were convinced that they had made a decisive break with the Middle Ages and had entered a new age of human achievement. Today, we call this period of European history the Renaissance. Michelangelo was but one of the great figures of this time. Another was Martin Luther of Germany, whose break with the Roman Catholic Church at the beginning of the sixteenth century led to the Protestant Reformation and a new era in the history of Christianity.

History And You  Identify two pieces of public art in your community. Research what commendations or criticism the city received following the unveiling of these pieces. Create a multimedia presentation with your findings.
The Renaissance

Main Ideas
- Between 1350 and 1550, Italian intellectuals believed they had entered a new age of human achievement.
- City-states were the centers of political, economic, and social life in Renaissance Italy.

Key Terms
urban society, secular, mercenary, dowry

People to Identify
Leonardo da Vinci, Francesco Sforza, Cosimo de’ Medici, Lorenzo de’ Medici, Niccolò Machiavelli

Places to Locate
Milan, Venice, Florence, Rome

Preview Questions
1. What was the Renaissance?
2. Describe the political world that existed in the Italian states.

Reading Strategy
Categorizing Information Use a web diagram like the one below to identify the major principles of Machiavelli’s work, The Prince.

Voices from the Past
Inspired by Cesare Borgia, who conquered central Italy and set up a state, Niccolò Machiavelli wrote The Prince, a short work on political power. He said:

“Everyone realizes how praiseworthy it is for a prince to honor his word and to be straightforward rather than crafty in his dealings; nonetheless experience shows that princes who have achieved great things have been those who have given their word lightly, who have known how to trick men with their cunning, and who, in the end, have overcome those abiding by honest principles. . . . A prince, therefore, need not necessarily have all the good qualities I mentioned above, but he should certainly appear to have them. . . . He should not deviate from what is good, if that is possible, but he should know how to do evil, if that is necessary.”

—The Prince, George Bull, trans., 1981

The Prince reflected the practice of politics in Renaissance Italy.

The Italian Renaissance

The word renaissance means rebirth. A number of people who lived in Italy between 1350 and 1550 believed that they had witnessed a rebirth of the ancient Greek and Roman worlds. To them, this rebirth marked a new age. Historians later called this period the Renaissance, or Italian Renaissance—a period of European history that began in Italy and spread to the rest of Europe. What, then, are the most important characteristics of the Italian Renaissance?

First, Renaissance Italy was largely an urban society. As the Middle Ages progressed, powerful city-states became the centers of Italian political, economic, and social life. Within this growing urban society, a secular, or worldly, viewpoint
emerged as increasing wealth created new possibilities for the enjoyment of material things.

Second, the Renaissance was an age of recovery from the disasters of the fourteenth century such as the plague, political instability, and a decline of Church power. Recovery went hand in hand with a rebirth of interest in ancient culture. Italian thinkers became aware of their own Roman past—the remains of which were to be seen all around them. They also became intensely interested in the culture that had dominated the ancient Mediterranean world. This revival affected both politics and art.

Third, a new view of human beings emerged as people in the Italian Renaissance began to emphasize individual ability. As Leon Battista Alberti, a fifteenth-century Italian, said, “Men can do all things if they will.” A high regard for human worth and a realization of what individuals could achieve created a new social ideal. The well-rounded, universal person was capable of achievements in many areas of life. Leonardo da Vinci (VIHN•chee), for example, was a painter, sculptor, architect, inventor, and mathematician.

Of course, not all parts of Italian society were directly affected by these three general characteristics of the Italian Renaissance. The wealthy upper classes, who made up a small percentage of the total population, more actively embraced the new ideas and activities. Indirectly, however, the Italian Renaissance did have some impact on ordinary people. Especially in the cities, many of the intellectual and artistic achievements of the period were highly visible and difficult to ignore. The churches, wealthy homes, and public buildings were decorated with art that celebrated religious and secular themes, the human body, and an appreciation of classical antiquity.

**Reading Check**  
**Summarizing** What were the characteristics of the Italian Renaissance?

**The Italian States**

During the Middle Ages, Italy had failed to develop a centralized monarchical state. The lack of a single strong ruler made it possible for a number of city-states in northern and central Italy to remain independent. Three of them—Milan, Venice, and
Florence—expanded and played crucial roles in Italian politics.

The Italian city-states prospered from a flourishing trade that had expanded in the Middle Ages. Italian cities traded with both the Byzantine and Islamic civilizations to the east. Italian trading ships had also moved into the western Mediterranean and then north along the Atlantic seaboard. These ships exchanged goods with merchants in both England and the Netherlands. Italian merchants had profited from the Crusades as well and were able to set up new trading centers in eastern ports. There, the Italian merchants obtained silks, sugar, and spices, which they carried back to Italy and the West.

**Milan** Milan, located in northern Italy at the crossroads of the main trade routes from Italian coastal cities to the Alpine passes, was one of the richest city-states in Italy. In the fourteenth century, members of the Visconti family established themselves as dukes of Milan and extended their power over all of Lombardy.

The last Visconti ruler of Milan died in 1447. **Francesco Sforza** then conquered the city and became its new duke. Sforza was the leader of a band of **mercenaries**—soldiers who sold their services to the highest bidder.

Both the Visconti and Sforza rulers worked to build a strong centralized state. By creating an efficient tax system, they generated enormous revenues for the government.

**Venice** Another major northern Italian city-state was the republic of Venice. As a link between Asia and western Europe the city drew traders from all over the world. Officially Venice was a republic with an elected leader called a **Doge**. In reality a small group of merchant-aristocrats, who had become wealthy through their trading activities, ran the government of Venice on behalf of their own interests. Venice’s trade empire was tremendously profitable and made Venice an international power.

**Florence** The republic of Florence dominated the region of Tuscany. In the course of the fourteenth century, a small but wealthy group of merchants established control of the Florentine government. They led the Florentines in a series of successful wars against their neighbors and established Florence as a major city-state in northern Italy.

In 1434, **Cosimo de’ Medici** (MEH•duh•chee) took control of the city. The wealthy Medici family controlled the government from behind the scenes. Using their wealth and personal influence, Cosimo, and later **Lorenzo de’ Medici**, his
grandson, dominated the city at a time when Florence was the cultural center of Italy.

During the late 1400s, Florence experienced an economic decline. Most of its economy was based on the manufacturing of cloth. Increased competition from English and Flemish cloth makers drove down profits.

During this time a Dominican preacher named Girolamo Savonarola began condemning the corruption and excesses of the Medici family. Citizens, tired of Medici rule, and frustrated by economic events, turned to Savonarola. So many people followed him that the Medici family turned Florence over to his followers.

Eventually people tired of Savonarola’s strict regulations on gambling, horseracing, swearing, painting, music, and books. Savonarola also attacked the corruption of the Church, which angered the pope. In 1498, Savonarola was accused of heresy and sentenced to death. The Medici family returned to power.

The Italian Wars The growth of powerful monarchical states in the rest of Europe eventually led to trouble for the Italian states. Attracted by the riches of Italy, the French king Charles VIII led an army of thirty thousand men into Italy in 1494 and occupied the kingdom of Naples in southern Italy. Northern Italian states turned for help to the Spanish, who gladly agreed to send soldiers to Italy. For the next 30 years, the French and Spanish made Italy their battleground as they fought to dominate the country.

A decisive turning point in their war came in 1527. On May 5, thousands of troops belonging to the Spanish king Charles I arrived at the city of Rome along with mercenaries from different countries. They had not been paid for months. When they yelled, “Money! Money!” their leader responded, “If you have ever dreamed of pillaging a town and laying hold of its treasures, here now is one, the richest of them all, queen of the world.” The next day the invading forces smashed down the gates and pushed their way into the city. The troops went berserk in a frenzy of bloodshed and looting. Church officials were sold as slaves, and churches and palaces were sacked while drunken soldiers fought over the spoils. The destruction did not end until the authorities were finally forced to establish some order. The terrible sack of Rome in 1527 by the armies of the Spanish king Charles I ended the Italian wars and left the Spanish a dominant force in Italy.

History through Art

*Entry of Charles VIII into Naples by Eloi Firmin Feron, 1837* Some scholars believe that the Italian wars helped spread Renaissance ideals and practices. *How could the wars have had that effect?*

Machiavelli and the New Statecraft

No one gave better expression to the Italians’ love affair with political power than Niccolò Machiavelli (MA•kee•uh•VEH•lee). His book *The Prince* is one of the most influential works on political power in the western world.
Machiavelli’s central thesis in *The Prince* concerns how to acquire—and keep—political power. In the Middle Ages, many writers on political power had stressed the ethical side of a prince’s activity—how a ruler ought to behave based on Christian principles. Machiavelli rejected this approach.

From Machiavelli’s point of view, a prince’s attitude toward power must be based on an understanding of human nature, which he believed was basically self-centered. He wrote, “One can make this generalization about men: they are ungrateful, fickle, liars, and deceivers, they shun danger and are greedy for profit.” Political activity, therefore, should not be restricted by moral principles. A prince acts on behalf of the state. For the sake of the state, he must be willing to let his conscience sleep.

Machiavelli was among the first to abandon morality as the basis for analyzing political activity. His views on politics have had a profound influence on political leaders who followed.

**Reading Check**  **Explaining** Why was *The Prince* an important work on political power?

**Renaissance Society**

In the Middle Ages, society was divided into three estates, or social classes (see Chapter 9). Although this social order continued into the Renaissance, some changes became evident. We examine the nobility and the peasants and townspeople here. The clergy are discussed later in the chapter.

**The Nobility** Throughout much of Europe, landholding nobles were faced with declining incomes during the greater part of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Many members of the old nobility, however, retained their lands and titles; new blood also came into their ranks.

By 1500, nobles, old and new, again dominated society. Although they made up only about 2 to 3 percent of the population in most countries, the nobles held important political posts and served as advisers to the king.

By this time, the noble, or aristocrat, was expected to fulfill certain ideals. These ideals were clearly expressed in *The Book of the Courtier*, written by the Italian Baldassare Castiglione (KAHS•teel•YOH•NAY) in 1528.

In his work, Castiglione described the characteristics of a perfect Renaissance noble. First, a noble was born, not made. He was expected to have character, grace, and talent. Second, the perfect noble had to develop two basic skills. Because the chief aim of a noble was to be a warrior, he had to perform military and physical exercises. Unlike the medieval knight, however, who was primarily concerned with acquiring military skill, the Renaissance noble was also expected to gain a classical education and enrich his life with the arts. Third, the noble needed to follow a certain standard of conduct. Nobles were not supposed to hide their achievements but to show them with grace.
What was the purpose of these standards?

"I think that the aim of the perfect Courtier is so to win for himself the favor and mind of the prince whom he serves that he may be able to tell him, and always will tell him, the truth about everything he needs to know, without fear or risk of displeasing him; and that when he sees the mind of his prince inclined to a wrong action, he may dare to oppose him... so as to dissuade him of every evil intent and bring him to the path of virtue."

The aim, then, of the perfect noble was to serve his prince in an effective and honest way. Nobles would adhere to Castiglione’s principles for hundreds of years while they continued to dominate European life socially and politically.

**Peasants and Townspeople** In the Middle Ages, peasants had made up the overwhelming mass of the third estate. In the Renaissance, they still constituted 85 to 90 percent of the total European population, except in the highly urban areas of northern Italy and Flanders.

Serfdom continued to decrease with the decline of the manorial system. Increasingly, throughout the late Middle Ages, the labor owed by a peasant to a lord was converted into rent on land paid in money. By 1500, especially in western Europe, more and more peasants became legally free.

Townspeople made up the rest of the third estate. In the Middle Ages, townspeople were mostly merchants and artisans. The Renaissance town or city of the fifteenth century, however, was more diverse.

At the top of urban society were the patricians. Their wealth from trade, industry, and banking enabled them to dominate their communities economically, socially, and politically. Below them were the burghers—the shopkeepers, artisans, guilds, and professionals.
masters, and guild members who provided the goods and services for their fellow townspeople.

Below the patricians and the burghers were the workers, who earned pitiful wages, and the unemployed. Both groups lived miserable lives. These people made up perhaps 30 or 40 percent of the urban population.

During the late 1300s and the 1400s, urban poverty increased dramatically throughout Europe. One rich merchant of Florence, who had little sympathy for the poor, wrote:

“Those that are lazy in a way that does harm to the city, and who can offer no just reason for their condition, should either be forced to work or expelled from the city. The city would thus rid itself of that most harmful part of the poorest class.”

Family and Marriage The family bond was a source of great security in the dangerous urban world of Renaissance Italy. To maintain the family, parents carefully arranged marriages, often to strengthen business or family ties. Details were worked out well in advance, sometimes when children were only two or three years old. The most important aspect of the marriage contract was the size of the dowry, a sum of money given by the wife’s family to the husband upon marriage.

The father-husband was the center of the Italian family. He gave it his name, managed all finances (his wife had no share in his wealth), and made the decisions that determined his children’s lives. The mother’s chief role was to supervise the household.

A father’s authority over his children was absolute until he died or formally freed his children. In Renaissance Italy, children did not become adults on reaching a certain age. Instead, childhood came to children when their fathers went before a judge and formally freed them. The age of adulthood varied from the early teens to the late twenties.

Reading Check Contrasting How was the Renaissance noble different from the medieval knight?

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SECTION 1 ASSESSMENT

Checking for Understanding
1. Define urban society, secular, mercenary, dowry. 
4. Explain how the Spanish became involved in the Italian wars. 
5. Summarize the characteristics of Castiglione’s perfect noble.

Critical Thinking
6. Explain Why was a strong family bond so important in Renaissance Italy? 
7. Contrasting Information Use a table like the one below to describe the differences between the social structure of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Middle Ages</th>
<th>Renaissance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nobility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peasants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Townspeople</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analyzing Visuals
8. Identify details in the painting of Venice on page 376 that show it is a major city-state with a profitable trade empire. Find other images of Venice in your school library and compare them to this painting.

Writing About History
9. Expository Writing Read a few passages from The Prince. Write a brief essay explaining whether or not you agree with Machiavelli’s theory of politics.
The Intellectual and Artistic Renaissance

Main Ideas
- The most important intellectual movement associated with the Renaissance was humanism.
- The Renaissance produced many great artists and sculptors such as Michelangelo, Raphael, and Leonardo da Vinci.

Key Terms
humanism, fresco

People to Identify
Petrarch, Dante, Michelangelo, Jan van Eyck, Albrecht Dürer

Places to Locate
Canterbury, Flanders

Preview Questions
1. What were the characteristics of Italian Renaissance humanism?
2. What were the chief achievements of European Renaissance painters?

Reading Strategy
Summarizing Information
Use a table like the one below to describe the three pieces of literature written by Dante, Chaucer, and de Pizan. What was the primary importance of each of these works?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divine Comedy</th>
<th>The Canterbury Tales</th>
<th>The Book of the City of Ladies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Preview of Events

- 1300
  c. 1310 Dante writes the Divine Comedy
  c. 1390 Chaucer writes The Canterbury Tales
- 1350
- 1400
  c. 1415 Donatello creates his statue of St. George
  c. 1434 Jan van Eyck paints the Arnolfini portrait
- 1450
- 1500
  c. 1505 Leonardo da Vinci paints the Mona Lisa

Voices from the Past

Pico della Mirandola, a Renaissance philosopher, said in his Oration on the Dignity of Man:

"You, constrained by no limits in accordance with your own free will, shall ordain for yourself the limits of your nature. We have set you at the world’s center that you may from there more easily observe whatever is in the world. We have made you neither of heaven nor of earth, neither mortal nor immortal, so that with freedom of choice and with honor, as though the maker and molder of yourself, you may fashion yourself in whatever shape you shall prefer."

— The Renaissance Philosophy of Man, Ernest Cassirer, Paul Kristeller, and John Randall, Jr., eds., 1948

There is no better expression of the Renaissance’s exalted view of the importance of the individual.

Italian Renaissance Humanism

Secularism and an emphasis on the individual characterized the Renaissance. These characteristics are most noticeable in the intellectual and artistic accomplishments of the period. A key intellectual movement of the Renaissance was humanism.
Humanism was based on the study of the classics, the literary works of ancient Greece and Rome. Humanists studied such things as grammar, rhetoric, poetry, moral philosophy, and history—all of which was based on the works of ancient Greek and Roman authors. Today these subjects are called the humanities.

Petrarch (PEE•TRAHRK), who has often been called the father of Italian Renaissance humanism, did more than any other individual in the fourteenth century to foster the development of humanism. Petrarch looked for forgotten Latin manuscripts and set in motion a search for similar manuscripts in monastic libraries throughout Europe.

He also began the humanist emphasis on using pure classical Latin (Latin as used by the ancient Romans as opposed to medieval Latin). Humanists used the works of Cicero as a model for prose and those of Virgil for poetry.

In Florence, the humanist movement took a new direction at the beginning of the fifteenth century. Fourteenth-century humanists such as Petrarch had described the intellectual life as one of solitude. They rejected family and a life of action in the community. In contrast, humanists in the early 1400s took a new interest in civic life. They believed that it was the duty of an intellectual to live an active life for one’s state, and that their study of the humanities should be put to the service of the state. It is no accident that they served as secretaries in the Italian city-states and to princes or popes.

Examining Why is Petrarch called the father of Italian Renaissance humanism?

Vernacular Literature

The humanist emphasis on classical Latin led to its widespread use in the writings of scholars, lawyers, and theologians. However, some writers wrote in the vernacular (the language spoken in their own regions, such as Italian, French, or German). In the fourteenth century, the literary works of the Italian author Dante (DAHN•tay) and the English author Geoffrey Chaucer helped make vernacular literature more popular.

Dante’s masterpiece in the Italian vernacular is the Divine Comedy. It is the story of the soul’s journey to salvation. The lengthy poem is divided into three major sections: Hell, Purgatory, and Heaven, or Paradise. Dante is led on an imaginary journey through these three realms until he reaches Paradise, where he beholds God, or “the love that moves the sun and the other stars.”

Chaucer used the English vernacular in his famous work The Canterbury Tales. His beauty of expression and clear, forceful language were important in making his dialect the chief ancestor of the modern English language.

The Canterbury Tales consists of a collection of stories told by a group of 29 pilgrims journeying to the tomb of Saint Thomas à Becket at Canterbury, England. This format gave Chaucer the chance to portray an entire range of English society, from the high to the low born.

Another writer who used the vernacular was Christine de Pizan, a Frenchwoman who is best known for her works written in defense of women. In The Book of the City of Ladies, written in 1404, she denounced the many male writers who had argued that women, by their very nature, are unable to learn and are easily swayed.

Women, de Pizan argued, could learn as well as men if they could attend the same schools:

"Should I also tell you whether a woman’s nature is clever and quick enough to learn speculative sciences as well as to discover them, and likewise the manual arts. I assure you that women are equally well-suited and skilled to carry them out and to put them to sophisticated use once they have learned them."

Reading Check Explaining What literary format does Chaucer use to portray English society?

Education in the Renaissance

The humanist movement had a profound effect on education. Renaissance humanists believed that education could dramatically change human beings.
They wrote books on education and opened schools based on their ideas.

At the core of humanist schools were the liberal studies. Humanists believed that the liberal studies (what we call today the liberal arts) enabled individuals to reach their full potential. One humanist wrote, “We call those studies liberal by which we attain and practice virtue and wisdom; which calls forth and develops those highest gifts of body and mind which ennoble men.”

What, then, were the liberal studies? According to the humanists, students should study history, moral philosophy, eloquence (or rhetoric), letters (grammar and logic), poetry, mathematics, astronomy, and music. In short, the purpose of a liberal education (and thus the reason for studying the liberal arts) was to produce individuals who follow a path of virtue and wisdom. These individuals should also possess rhetorical skills so they can persuade others to take this same path.

Following the Greek ideal of a sound mind in a sound body, humanist educators also stressed physical education. Pupils were taught the skills of javelin throwing, archery, and dancing, and they were encouraged to run, wrestle, hunt, and swim.

Humanist educators thought that a humanist education was a practical preparation for life. Its aim was not to create great scholars but complete citizens. Humanist schools provided the model for the basic education of the European ruling classes until the twentieth century.

Females were largely absent from these schools. The few female students who did attend humanist schools studied the classics and were encouraged to know some history as well as how to ride, dance, sing, play the lute (a stringed instrument), and appreciate poetry. They were told not to learn mathematics or rhetoric. It was thought that religion and morals should be foremost in the education of “Christian ladies” so that they could become good mothers and wives.

Reading Check Explaining How did a humanist education prepare a student for life?

The Artistic Renaissance in Italy

Renaissance artists sought to imitate nature in their works. They wanted onlookers to see the reality of the objects or events they were portraying. At the same time, these artists were developing a new world perspective. In this new view, human beings became the focus of attention—the “center and measure of all things,” as one artist proclaimed.

New Techniques in Painting The frescoes painted by Masaccio (muh•ZAH•che•oh) in Florence at the beginning of the fifteenth century have long been regarded as the first masterpieces of early Renaissance (1400–1490) art. A fresco is a painting done on fresh, wet plaster with water-based paints. Whereas human figures in medieval paintings look flat, Masaccio’s have depth and come alive. By mastering the laws of perspective, which enabled him to create the illusion of three dimensions, Masaccio developed a new, realistic style of painting.
This new, or Renaissance, style was used and modified by other Florentine painters in the fifteenth century. Especially important were two major developments. One stressed the technical side of painting—understanding the laws of perspective and the organization of outdoor space and light through geometry. The second development was the investigation of movement and human anatomy. The realistic portrayal of the individual person, especially the human nude, became one of the chief aims of Italian Renaissance art.

**Sculpture and Architecture** The revolutionary achievements of Florentine painters in the fifteenth century were matched by equally stunning advances in sculpture and architecture. The sculptor Donatello spent time in Rome studying and copying the statues of the Greeks and Romans. Among his numerous works was a statue of Saint George, a realistic, freestanding figure.

The architect Filippo Brunelleschi (BROO•nuhl•EHS•kee) was inspired by the buildings of classical Rome to create a new architecture in Florence. The Medici, the wealthy ruling family of Florence, hired Brunelleschi to design the church of San Lorenzo. The classical columns and rounded arches that Brunelleschi used in the church’s design create an environment that does not overwhelm the worshiper, as Gothic cathedrals might. Instead, the church provides comfort as a space created to fit human, and not divine, needs. Like painters and sculptors, Renaissance architects sought to reflect a human-centered world.

By the end of the fifteenth century, Italian painters, sculptors, and architects had created a new artistic world. Many artists had mastered the new techniques...
for realistically portraying the world around them and were now ready to move into new forms of creative expression.

**Reading Check** Explaining How did Renaissance paintings differ from medieval paintings?

**Masters of the High Renaissance** The final stage of Italian Renaissance painting, which flourished between 1490 and 1520, is called the High Renaissance. The High Renaissance in Italy is associated with three artistic giants, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, and Michelangelo.

Leonardo mastered the art of realistic painting and even dissected human bodies to better see how nature worked. However, he also stressed the need to advance beyond such realism. It was Leonardo’s goal to create idealized forms that would capture the perfection of nature and the individual—perfection that could not be expressed fully by a realistic style.

At age 25, Raphael was already regarded as one of Italy’s best painters. He was especially admired for his numerous madonnas (paintings of the Virgin Mary). In these, he tried to achieve an ideal of beauty far surpassing human standards.

Raphael is also well known for his frescoes in the Vatican Palace. His *School of Athens* reveals a world of balance, harmony, and order—the underlying principles of the art of the classical world of Greece and Rome.

Michelangelo, an accomplished painter, sculptor, and architect, was another artistic master of the High Renaissance. Fiercely driven by his desire to create, he worked with great passion and energy on a remarkable number of projects.

Michelangelo’s figures on the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in Rome reveal an ideal type of human being with perfect proportions. The beauty of this idealized human being is meant to be a reflection of divine beauty. The more beautiful the body, the more god-like the figure.

**Reading Check** Identifying Name the three Italian artists most closely associated with the High Renaissance.

**The Northern Artistic Renaissance** Like the artists of Italy, the artists of northern Europe became interested in portraying their world realistically. However, their approach was different from the Italians’. This was particularly true of the artists of the Low Countries (present-day Belgium, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands).
Circumstance played a role in the differences. The large wall spaces of Italian churches had given rise to the art of fresco painting. Italian artists used these spaces to master the technical skills that allowed them to portray humans in realistic settings. In the north, the Gothic cathedrals with their stained glass windows did not allow for frescoes. Thus, northern artists painted illustrations for books and wooden panels for altarpieces. Great care was needed to depict each object on a small scale.

The most important northern school of art in the fifteenth century was found in Flanders, one of the Low Countries. The Flemish painter Jan van Eyck (EYEK) was among the first to use oil paint, which enabled the artist to use a wide variety of colors and create fine details as in his painting Giovanni Arnolfini and His Bride. Like other Northern Renaissance artists, however, van Eyck imitated nature not by using perspective, as the Italians did, but by simply observing reality and portraying details as best he could.

By 1500, artists from the north had begun to study in Italy and to be influenced by what artists were doing there. One German artist who was greatly affected by the Italians was Albrecht Dürer. He made two trips to Italy and absorbed most of what the Italians could teach on the laws of perspective.

As can be seen in his famous Adoration of the Magi, Dürer did not reject the use of minute details characteristic of northern artists. He did try, however, to fit those details more harmoniously into his works in accordance with Italian artistic theories. Like the Italian artists of the High Renaissance, Dürer tried to achieve a standard of ideal beauty that was based on a careful examination of the human form.

**Reading Check**

**Examining** Why was Jan van Eyck’s use of oil paint significant?
The Genius of Leonardo da Vinci

During the Renaissance, artists came to be viewed as creative geniuses with almost divine qualities. The painter Giorgio Vasari helped create this image by writing a series of brief biographies of Italy’s great artists, including Leonardo da Vinci.

In the normal course of events many men and women are born with various remarkable qualities and talents; but occasionally, in a way that transcends nature, a single person is marvelously endowed by heaven with beauty, grace, and talent in such abundance that he leaves other men far behind, all his actions seem inspired, and indeed everything he does clearly comes from God rather than from human art.

Everyone acknowledged that this was true of Leonardo da Vinci, an artist of outstanding physical beauty who displayed infinite grace in everything he did and who cultivated his genius so brilliantly that all problems he studied he solved with ease. He possessed great strength and dexterity; he was a man of regal spirit and tremendous breadth of mind; and his name became so famous that not only was he esteemed during his lifetime but his reputation endured and became even greater after his death...

He was marvelously gifted, and he proved himself to be a first-class geometrician in his work as a sculptor and architect. In his youth, Leonardo made in clay several heads of women with smiling faces, of which plaster casts are still being made, as well as some children's heads executed as if by a mature artist. He also did many architectural drawings both of ground plans and of other elevations, and, while still young, he was the first to propose reducing the Arno River to a navigable canal between Pisa and Florence. He made designs for mills, . . . and engines that could be driven by water-power; and as he intended to be a painter by profession he carefully studied drawing from life.... Altogether, his genius was so wonderfully inspired by the grace of God, his powers of expression were so powerfully fed by a willing memory and intellect, and his writing conveyed his ideas so precisely, that his arguments and reasonings confounded the most formidable critics. In addition, he used to make models and plans showing how to excavate and tunnel through mountains without difficulty, so as to pass from one level to another; and he demonstrated how to lift and draw great weights by means of levers and hoists and ways of cleaning harbors and using pumps to suck up water from great depths."

—Giorgio Vasari, Lives of the Artists

A detail from da Vinci’s Last Supper, shown as the painting was being restored in the late 1990s

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. Name the qualities that Vasari admires in Leonardo da Vinci.
2. How does Vasari’s description of da Vinci reflect the ideals of Italian Renaissance humanism?
1509
Erasmus writes his satire The Praise of Folly

On April 18, 1521, Martin Luther stood before the emperor and princes of Germany in the city of Worms and declared:

"Since then Your Majesty and your lordships desire a simple reply, I will answer without horns and without teeth. Unless I am convicted by Scripture and plain reason—I do not accept the authority of popes and councils, for they have contradicted each other—my conscience is captive to the Word of God. I cannot and I will not recant anything, for to go against conscience is neither right nor safe. Here I stand, I cannot do otherwise. God help me. Amen."

—Here I Stand: A Life of Martin Luther, Roland Bainton, 1950

With these words Martin Luther refused to renounce his new religious ideas. Luther’s words became the battle cry of the Protestant Reformation.

Erasmus and Christian Humanism

The Protestant Reformation is the name given to the religious reform movement that divided the western Church into Catholic and Protestant groups. Although Martin Luther began the Reformation in the early sixteenth century, several earlier developments had set the stage for religious change.

One such development grew from widespread changes in intellectual thought. During the second half of the fifteenth century, the new classical learning that was
part of Italian Renaissance humanism spread to northern Europe. From that came a movement called Christian humanism, or Northern Renaissance humanism. The major goal of this movement was the reform of the Catholic Church.

The Christian humanists believed in the ability of human beings to reason and improve themselves. They thought that if people read the classics, and especially the basic works of Christianity, they would become more pious. This inner piety, or inward religious feeling, would bring about a reform of the Church and society. Christian humanists believed that in order to change society, they must first change the human beings who make it up.

The best known of all the Christian humanists was Desiderius Erasmus (ih•RAZ•muhs). He called his view of religion “the philosophy of Christ.” By this, he meant that Christianity should show people how to live good lives on a daily basis rather than provide a system of beliefs that people have to practice to be saved. Erasmus stressed the inwardness of religious feeling. To him, the external forms of medieval religion (such as pilgrimages, fasts, and relics) were not all that important.

To reform the Church, Erasmus wanted to spread the philosophy of Christ, provide education in the works of Christianity, and criticize the abuses in the Church. In his work The Praise of Folly, written in 1509, Erasmus humorously criticized aspects of his society that he believed were most in need of reform. He singled out the monks for special treatment. Monks, he said, “insist that everything be done in precise detail. . . . Just so many knots must be on each shoe and the shoelace must be of only one color.”

Erasmus sought reform within the Catholic Church. He did not wish to break away from the Church, as later reformers would. His ideas, however, did prepare the way for the Reformation. As people of his day said, “Erasmus laid the egg that Luther hatched.”

How did Erasmus pave the way for the Reformation?

Religion on the Eve of the Reformation
Why were Erasmus and others calling for reform? Corruption in the Catholic Church was one reason. Between 1450 and 1520, a series of popes—known as the Renaissance popes—failed to meet the Church’s spiritual needs. The popes were supposed to be the spiritual leaders of the Catholic Church. As leaders of the Papal States, however, they were all too often more concerned with Italian politics and worldly interests than with spiritual matters.

Julius II, the fiery “warrior-pope,” personally led armies against his enemies. This disgusted Christians who viewed the pope as a spiritual, not a military, leader. One critic wrote, “How, O bishop standing in the room of the Apostles, dare you teach the people the things that pertain to war?”

Many church officials were also concerned with money and used their church offices to advance their careers and their wealth. At the same time, many ordinary parish priests seemed ignorant of their spiritual duties. People wanted to know how to save their souls, and many parish priests were unable to offer them advice or instruction.

While the leaders of the Church were failing to meet their responsibilities, ordinary people desired meaningful religious expression and assurance of their salvation or acceptance into Heaven. As a result, for some, the process of obtaining salvation became almost mechanical. Collections of relics grew more popular as a means to salvation. According to church practice at that time, through veneration of a
relic, a person could gain an **indulgence**—release from all or part of the punishment for sin. Frederick the Wise, Luther’s prince, had amassed over five thousand relics. Indulgences attached to them could reduce time in purgatory by 1,443 years. The Church also sold indulgences, in the form of certificates.

Other people sought certainty of salvation in the popular mystical movement known as the Modern Devotion. The Modern Devotion downplayed religious dogma and stressed the need to follow the teachings of Jesus. This deepening of religious life was done within the Catholic Church. However, many people soon found that the worldly-wise clergy had little interest in the spiritual needs of their people. It is this environment that helps to explain the tremendous impact of Luther’s ideas.

**Reading Check**

Explaining What was the Modern Devotion?

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**Martin Luther**

*TURNING POINT* In this section, you will learn how, on October 31, 1517, Martin Luther nailed his Ninety-five Theses to the door of the Castle Church in Wittenberg, Germany. The publication of Luther’s theses began the Protestant Reformation.

Martin Luther was a monk and a professor at the University of Wittenberg, where he lectured on the Bible. Through his study of the Bible, Luther arrived at an answer to a problem—the certainty of salvation—that had bothered him since he had become a monk.

Catholic teaching had stressed that both faith and good works were needed to gain personal salvation. In Luther’s eyes, human beings were powerless in the sight of an almighty God and could never do enough good works to earn salvation.

Through his study of the Bible, Luther came to believe that humans are not saved through their good works but through their faith in God. If an individual has faith in God, then God makes that person just, or worthy of salvation. God will grant salvation because God is merciful. God’s grace cannot be earned by performing good works. This idea, called justification (being made right before God) by faith, became the chief teaching of the Protestant Reformation. Because Luther had arrived at the doctrine of justification by faith by studying the Bible alone, the Bible became for Luther, as for all other Protestants, the primary source of religious truth.

**The Ninety-five Theses** Luther did not see himself as a rebel, but he was greatly upset by the widespread selling of indulgences. Especially offensive in his eyes was the monk Johann Tetzel, who sold indulgences with the slogan: “As soon as the coin in the coffer [money box] rings, the soul from purgatory springs.” People, Luther believed, were simply harming their chances for salvation by buying these pieces of paper.

On October 31, 1517, Luther, who was greatly angered by the Church’s practices, posted his Ninety-five Theses on the door of the Castle Church in Wittenberg. The theses were a stunning attack on abuses in the sale of indulgences. Thousands of copies of the Ninety-five Theses were printed and spread to all parts of Germany. Pope Leo X did not take the issue seriously, however. He said that Luther was simply “some drunken German who will amend his ways when he sobers up.”
A Break with the Church By 1520, Luther had begun to move toward a more definite break with the Catholic Church. He called on the German princes to overthrow the papacy in Germany and establish a reformed German church. Luther also attacked the Church’s system of sacraments. In his view, they were the means by which the pope and the Church had destroyed the real meaning of the gospel for a thousand years. He kept only two sacraments—baptism and the Eucharist (also known as Communion). Luther also called for the clergy to marry. This went against the long-standing Catholic requirement that the clergy remain celibate, or unmarried.

Through all these calls for change, Luther continued to emphasize his new doctrine of salvation. It is faith alone, he said, and not good works, that justifies and brings salvation through Christ.

Unable to accept Luther’s ideas, the Church excommunicated him in January 1521. He was also summoned to appear before the imperial diet—or legislative assembly—of the Holy Roman Empire, which was called into session at the city of Worms by the newly elected emperor Charles V. The emperor thought he could convince Luther to change his ideas, but Luther refused.

The young emperor was outraged. “A single friar who goes counter to all Christianity for a thousand years,” he declared, “must be wrong!” By the Edict of Worms, Martin Luther was made an outlaw within the empire. His works were to be burned and Luther himself captured and delivered to the emperor. However, Luther’s ruler, Elector Frederick of Saxony, was unwilling to see his famous professor killed. He sent Luther into hiding and then protected him when he returned to Wittenberg at the beginning of 1522.

The Rise of Lutheranism During the next few years, Luther’s religious movement became a revolution. Luther was able to gain the support of many of the German rulers among the numerous states that made up the Holy Roman Empire. These rulers quickly took control of the Catholic churches in their territories, forming state churches whose affairs were supervised by the government.

As part of the development of these state-dominated churches, Luther also set up new religious services to replace the Catholic mass. These featured a worship service consisting of Bible readings, preaching of the word of God, and song. The doctrine developed by Luther soon came to be known as Lutheranism, and the churches as Lutheran churches. Lutheranism was the first Protestant faith.

In June 1524, Luther faced a political crisis when German peasants revolted against their lords. The peasants looked to Luther to support their cause, but Luther instead supported the lords. To him, the state and its rulers were called by God to maintain the peace necessary for
the spread of the gospel. It was the duty of princes to stop revolt. By the following spring, the German princes had crushed the peasants. Luther found himself even more dependent on state authorities for the growth of his church.

**Reading Check** **Contrasting** How did Luther’s theory of salvation differ from what the Catholic Church believed was necessary for salvation?

**Politics in the German Reformation**

From its very beginning, the fate of Luther’s movement was closely tied to political affairs. Charles V, the Holy Roman emperor (who was also Charles I, the king of Spain), ruled an immense empire consisting of Spain and its colonies, the Austrian lands, Bohemia, Hungary, the Low Countries, the duchy of Milan in northern Italy, and the kingdom of Naples in southern Italy.

Politically, Charles wanted to keep this enormous empire under the control of his dynasty—the Hapsburgs. Religiously, he hoped to preserve the unity of his empire by keeping it Catholic. However, a number of problems kept him busy and cost him both his dream and his health. These same problems helped Lutheranism survive by giving Lutherans time to organize before having to face the Catholic forces.

The chief political concern of Charles V was his rivalry with the king of France, Francis I. Their conflict over disputed territories in a number of areas led to a series of wars that lasted more than 20 years. At the same time, Charles faced opposition from Pope Clement VII. Guided by political considerations, the pope had joined the side of the French king. The advance of the Ottoman Turks into the eastern part of Charles’s empire forced the emperor to send forces there as well.

Finally, the internal political situation in the Holy Roman Empire was not in Charles’s favor. Germany was a land of several hundred territorial states. Although all owed loyalty to the emperor, Germany’s development in the Middle Ages had enabled these states to free themselves from the emperor’s authority. Many individual rulers of the German states supported Luther as a way to assert their own local authority over the authority of the empire and Charles V.

By the time Charles V was able to bring military forces to Germany, the Lutheran princes were well organized. Unable to defeat them, Charles was forced to seek peace.

An end to religious warfare in Germany came in 1555 with the Peace of Augsburg. This agreement formally accepted the division of Christianity in Germany. The German states were now free to choose between Catholicism and Lutheranism. Lutheran states were to have the same legal rights as Catholic states. The peace settlement did not recognize the principle of religious toleration for individuals, however. The right of each German ruler to determine the religion of his subjects was accepted, but not the right of the subjects to choose their own religion.

**Reading Check** **Evaluating** How did the Peace of Augsburg influence the political and religious development of Germany?
Summarizing Information

Why Learn This Skill?
Imagine you have been assigned a chapter on the Renaissance for a midterm. After taking a short break, you discover that you cannot recall important information. What can you do to avoid this problem?

When you read a long selection, it is helpful to take notes. Summarizing information—reducing large amounts of information to a few key phrases—can help you remember the main ideas and important facts.

Learning the Skill
To summarize information, follow these guidelines when you read:

• Distinguish the main ideas from the supporting details. Use the main ideas in the summary.
• Use your own words to describe the main ideas. Do not copy the selection word for word.
• Summarize the author’s opinion if you think it is important.
• If the summary is almost as long as the reading selection, you are including too much information. The summary should be very short.

Practicing the Skill
Read the selection below, and then answer the questions that follow.

For the next 30 years, the French and Spanish made Italy their battleground as they fought to dominate the country. A decisive turning point in their war came in 1527. On May 5, thousands of troops belonging to the Spanish king Charles I arrived at the city of Rome along with mercenaries from different countries. They had not been paid for months. When they yelled, “Money! Money!” their leader responded, “If you have ever dreamed of pillaging a town and laying hold of its treasures, here now is one, the richest of them all, queen of the world.”

The next day the invading forces smashed down the gates and pushed their way into the city. The terrible sack of Rome in 1527 by the armies of the Spanish king Charles I ended the Italian wars and left the Spanish a dominant force in Italy.

1. What are the main ideas of this paragraph?
2. What are the supporting details of the main ideas?
3. Write a brief summary of two or three sentences that will help you remember what the paragraph is about.

Applying the Skill
Read and summarize two articles from the front page of a newspaper. Have a classmate ask you questions about them. How much were you able to remember after summarizing the information?

Glencoe’s Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook, Level 2, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
In order to fight Protestantism, the Catholic Ignatius Loyola founded a new religious order. He insisted on certain principles:

"We must put aside all judgment of our own, and keep the mind ever ready and prompt to obey in all things the true Spouse of Jesus Christ, our holy Mother, the Roman Catholic Church... If we wish to proceed securely in all things, we must hold fast to the following principle: What seems to me white, I will believe black if the Catholic Church so defines. For I must be convinced that in Christ our Lord, the bridegroom, and in His spouse the Catholic Church, only one Spirit holds sway, which governs and rules for the salvation of souls."

—*Spiritual Exercises of Ignatius Loyola*, Louis J. Puhl, trans., 1951

Loyola’s ideal of complete obedience to the church was the cornerstone of his fight against the spread of Protestant groups.

**The Zwinglian Reformation**

With the Peace of Augsburg, what had at first been merely feared was now certain: the ideal of Christian unity was forever lost. Even before the Peace of Augsburg, however, division had appeared in Protestantism. One of these new groups appeared in Switzerland.
**Calvin and Calvinism**

**John Calvin** was educated in his native France. After his conversion to Protestantism, however, he was forced to flee Catholic France for the safety of Switzerland. In 1536, he published the *Institutes of the Christian Religion*, a summary of Protestant thought. This work immediately gave Calvin a reputation as one of the new leaders of Protestantism.

On most important doctrines, Calvin stood very close to Luther. He, too, believed in the doctrine of justification by faith alone to explain how humans achieved salvation. However, Calvin also placed much emphasis on the all-powerful nature of God—what Calvin called the “power, grace, and glory of God.”

Calvin’s emphasis on the all-powerful nature of God led him to other ideas. One of these ideas was **predestination**. This “eternal decree,” as Calvin called it, meant that God had determined in advance who would be saved (the elect) and who would be damned (the reprobate). According to Calvin, “He has once for all determined, both whom he would admit to salvation, and whom he would condemn to destruction.”

The belief in predestination gave later Calvinists the firm conviction that they were doing God’s work.

**Huldrych Zwingli** was a priest in Zürich. The city council of Zürich, strongly influenced by Zwingli, began to introduce religious reforms. Relics and images were abolished. All paintings and decorations were removed from the churches and replaced by whitewashed walls. A new church service consisting of scripture reading, prayer, and sermons replaced the Catholic mass.

As his movement began to spread to other cities in Switzerland, Zwingli sought an alliance with Martin Luther and the German reformers. Both the German and Swiss reformers realized the need for unity to defend themselves against Catholic authorities, but they were unable to agree on the meaning of the sacrament of Communion. (See page 994 to read excerpts from Martin Luther and Huldrych Zwingli’s *A Reformation Debate* in the Primary Sources Library.)

In October 1531, war broke out between the Protestant and Catholic states in Switzerland. Zürich’s army was routed, and Zwingli was found wounded on the battlefield. His enemies killed him, cut up his body, and burned the pieces, scattering the ashes. The leadership of Protestantism in Switzerland now passed to John Calvin.

**Reading Check**

What religious reforms were introduced in Zürich?

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**Picturing History**

John Calvin is shown speaking before leaders in Geneva. What attitudes about Calvin and the Protestant movement does the artist convey in this painting?
on Earth. This conviction, in turn, made them determined to spread their faith to other people. Calvinism became a dynamic and activist faith.

In 1536, Calvin began working to reform the city of Geneva. He created a church government that used both clergy and laity in the service of the church. The Consistory, a special body for enforcing moral discipline, was set up as a court to oversee the moral life and doctrinal purity of Genevans. The Consistory had the right to punish people who deviated from the church’s teachings and moral principles. Citizens in Geneva were punished for such varied “crimes” as dancing, singing obscene songs, drunkenness, swearing, and playing cards.

Calvin’s success in Geneva made the city a powerful center of Protestantism. Following Calvin’s lead, missionaries trained in Geneva were sent to all parts of Europe. Calvinism became established in France, the Netherlands, Scotland, and central and eastern Europe.

By the mid-sixteenth century, Calvinism had replaced Lutheranism as the most important and dynamic form of Protestantism. Calvin’s Geneva stood as the fortress of the Protestant Reformation. John Knox, the Calvinist reformer of Scotland, called it “the most perfect school of Christ on earth.”

**Reading Check** Explaining How did the Consistory enforce moral discipline in Geneva?

**The Reformation in England**

The English Reformation was rooted in politics, not religion. King Henry VIII wanted to divorce his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, with whom he had a daughter, Mary, but no son. Since he needed a male heir, Henry wanted to marry Anne Boleyn. Impatient with the pope’s unwillingness to annul (declare invalid) his marriage to Catherine, Henry turned to England’s own church courts.

As the archbishop of Canterbury, head of the highest church court in England, Thomas Cranmer ruled in May 1533 that the king’s marriage to Catherine was “null and absolutely void.” At the beginning of June, Anne was crowned queen. Three months later a child was born. Much to the king’s disappointment, the baby was a girl. She would later become Queen Elizabeth I.

In 1534, at Henry’s request, Parliament moved to finalize the break of the Catholic Church in England with the pope in Rome. The Act of Supremacy of 1534 declared that the king was “taken, accepted, and reputed the only supreme head on earth of the [new] Church of England.” This position gave the king control over religious doctrine, clerical appointments, and discipline. Thomas More, a Christian humanist and devout Catholic, opposed the king’s action and was beheaded.

Henry used his new powers to dissolve the monasteries and sell their land and possessions to wealthy landowners and merchants. The king received a great boost to his treasury and a group of supporters who now had a stake in the new order. In matters of doctrine, however, Henry remained close to Catholic teachings.

When Henry died in 1547, he was succeeded by Edward VI, a sickly nine-year-old, the son of his third wife. During Edward’s reign, church officials who favored Protestant doctrines moved the Church of England, also called the Anglican Church, in a Protestant direction. New acts of Parliament gave the clergy the right to marry and created a new Protestant church service. These rapid changes aroused much opposition. When Mary, Henry’s daughter by Catherine of Aragon, came to the throne in 1553, England was ready for a reaction.
The Descendants of the Anabaptists

Despite being persecuted for their belief in the complete separation of church and state, Anabaptists managed to survive.

Menno Simons was a popular leader of Anabaptism in the Netherlands. He dedicated his life to the spread of a peaceful Anabaptism that stressed separation from the world as the means for living a truly Christ-like life. Because of persecution, Menno Simons’s followers, known as Mennonites, spread from the Netherlands into Germany and Russia. In the nineteenth century, many moved to Canada and the United States, where Mennonite communities continue to flourish.

In the 1690s, Jacob Ammann took the lead in encouraging a group of Swiss Mennonites to form their own church. They came to be known as the Amish (after the name Ammann). By the end of the seventeenth century, many of the Amish had come to North America in search of a land where they could practice their religion freely.

Today, Amish communities exist throughout Canada and the United States. One of the largest groups of Amish can be found in Pennsylvania, where they are known as the Pennsylvania Dutch. The Amish continue to maintain the Anabaptist way of life as it first developed in the sixteenth century. They live simple lives and refuse to use any modern devices, including cars and electricity.

There was no doubt that Mary was a Catholic who wanted to restore England to Roman Catholicism. However, the way she went about it had the opposite effect. Among other actions, she had more than three hundred Protestants burned as heretics, earning her the nickname “Bloody Mary.” As a result of her policies, England was even more Protestant by the end of Mary’s reign than it had been at the beginning.

The Anabaptists

Reformers such as Luther had allowed the state to play an important, if not dominant, role in church affairs. However, some people strongly disliked giving such power to the state. These were radicals known as the Anabaptists.

To Anabaptists, the true Christian church was a voluntary community of adult believers who had undergone spiritual rebirth and had then been baptized. This belief in adult baptism separated Anabaptists from Catholics and Protestants who baptized infants.

Anabaptists also believed in following the practices and the spirit of early Christianity. They considered all believers to be equal, a belief they based on the accounts of early Christian communities in the New Testament. Each Anabaptist church chose its own minister, or spiritual leader. Because all Christians were considered priests, any member of the community was eligible to be a minister (though women were often excluded).

Finally, most Anabaptists believed in the complete separation of church and state. Not only was government to be kept out of the realm of religion, it was not even supposed to have any political authority over real Christians. Anabaptists refused to hold political office or bear arms, because many took literally the biblical commandment “Thou shall not kill.”

Their political beliefs, as much as their religious beliefs, caused the Anabaptists to be regarded as dangerous radicals who threatened the very fabric of sixteenth-century society. Indeed, the chief thing...
Less than 100 years after Luther posted the Ninety-five Theses, the religious affiliations of Europeans were greatly altered.

1. **Interpreting Maps** What religions would not have been on this map prior to 1517?

2. **Applying Geography Skills** Summarize why Protestant religions spread as shown on the map.

Effects on the Role of Women

The Protestants were important in developing a new view of the family. Protestantism had eliminated the idea that special holiness was associated with celibacy and had abolished both monasticism and the requirement of celibacy for the clergy. The family could now be placed at the center of human life. The “mutual love between man and wife” could be extolled.

Were idea and reality the same, however? More often, reality reflected the traditional roles of husband as the ruler and wife as the obedient servant whose chief duty was to please her husband. Luther stated it clearly:

“The rule remains with the husband, and the wife is compelled to obey him by God’s command. He rules the home and the state, wages war, defends his possessions, tills the soil, builds, plants, etc. The woman on the other hand is like a nail driven into the wall... so the wife should stay at home and look after the affairs of the household, as one who has been deprived of the ability of administering those...
affairs that are outside and that concern the state. She does not go beyond her most personal duties.”

Obedience to her husband was not a woman’s only role. Her other important duty was to bear children. To Calvin and Luther, this function of women was part of the divine plan. Family life was the only destiny for most Protestant women. Overall, then, the Protestant Reformation did not change women’s subordinate place in society.

Reading Check Evaluating What impact did the Protestant Reformation have on women?

The Catholic Reformation

By the mid-sixteenth century, Lutheranism had become rooted in Germany and Scandinavia, and Calvinism had taken hold in Switzerland, France, the Netherlands, and eastern Europe. In England, the split from Rome had resulted in the creation of a national church. The situation in Europe did not look particularly good for the Catholic Church.

However, the Catholic Church also had a revitalization in the sixteenth century, giving it new strength and enabling it to regain much that it had lost. This Catholic Reformation was supported by three chief pillars: the Jesuits, reform of the papacy, and the Council of Trent.

The Society of Jesus, known as the Jesuits, was founded by a Spanish nobleman, Ignatius of Loyola. Loyola gathered together a small group of followers, which was recognized as a religious order by the pope in 1540. All Jesuits took a special vow of absolute obedience to the pope, making them an important instrument for papal policy. Jesuits used education to spread their message. Jesuit missionaries were very successful in restoring Catholicism to parts of Germany and eastern Europe and in spreading it to other parts of the world.

History through Art

Council of Trent by Titian The Council of Trent is thought to be the foundation of the Catholic Reformation. How does Titian’s painting convey this idea?
Reform of the papacy was another important factor in the Catholic Reformation. The participation of Renaissance popes in dubious financial transactions and Italian political and military affairs had created many sources of corruption. It took the jolt of the Protestant Reformation to bring about serious reform.

Pope Paul III perceived the need for change and took the bold step of appointing a Reform Commission in 1537 to determine the Church’s ills. The commission blamed the Church’s problems on the corrupt policies of the popes. Paul III (who recognized the Jesuits as a new religious order) also began the Council of Trent, another pillar of the Catholic Reformation.

In March 1545, a group of cardinals, archbishops, bishops, abbots, and theologians met in the city of Trent, on the border between Germany and Italy. There, they began the Council of Trent, which met off and on for 18 years.

The final decrees of the Council of Trent reaffirmed traditional Catholic teachings in opposition to Protestant beliefs. Both faith and good works were declared necessary for salvation. The seven sacraments, the Catholic view of the Eucharist, and clerical celibacy were all upheld. Belief in purgatory and in the use of indulgences was strengthened, although the selling of indulgences was forbidden.

After the Council of Trent, the Roman Catholic Church possessed a clear body of doctrine and was unified under the supreme leadership of the pope. With a renewed spirit of confidence, the Catholic Church entered a new phase, as well prepared as the Calvinists to do battle for the Lord.
Chapter Summary

The Renaissance was a period of great intellectual and artistic achievement. Religious rebirth followed in the 1500s.

1. Italy experiences an artistic, intellectual, and commercial awakening.
   - **VENICE:** The city becomes an international trading power.
   - **FLORENCE:** The Medici family improves city life and sponsors humanists and artists.

2. Ideas quickly spread from Italy to northern Europe.
   - **ENGLAND:** King Henry VIII invites humanists to court.
   - **FLANDERS:** Artists use oil paints to depict fine detail in their paintings.
   - **FRANCE:** Architects create elegant castles that combine Gothic and classical styles.

3. Reformers begin to challenge both secular and religious rules and practices.
   - **GERMANY:** Martin Luther begins the Protestant Reformation. The Peace of Augsburg divides Germany into Catholic and Protestant states.
   - **ENGLAND:** King Henry VIII breaks with the pope to create the Church of England. Catholic Queen Mary executes Protestants.
   - **SWITZERLAND:** John Calvin promotes the concept of predestination.

4. The Catholic Church enacts reforms.
   - **ITALY:** The Council of Trent defines Catholic Church doctrine and tries to end Church abuses. The Jesuits, who take special vows of obedience to the pope, help spread Catholicism.

Using Key Terms

1. Soldiers who sell their services to the highest bidder are called ______.
2. The study of grammar, rhetoric, moral philosophy, and history was the basis of the intellectual movement called ______.

Reviewing Key Facts

10. **History** Which family dominated Florence during the Renaissance?
11. **Culture** Who wrote The Canterbury Tales?
12. **Culture** The Renaissance was a rebirth of the ideas of which ancient civilizations?
13. **History** According to Erasmus, what should be the chief concerns of the Christian church?
14. **Culture** How did Renaissance artists portray the human body?
15. **Government** How were the city-states of Renaissance Italy governed? What social classes were present in the typical city-state?
16. **History** How did Ignatius of Loyola help to reform Catholicism?
17. **History** Why did the Renaissance begin in Italy?
18. **Culture** Name the title and the author of one of the most influential works on political power.
19. **Culture** When were children considered adults in Renaissance Italy?

Critical Thinking

20. **Analyzing** Why did Martin Luther split with the Catholic Church? Identify the causes that led to the Protestant Reformation.
21. **Explaining** List one masterpiece of Renaissance literature or art and explain how it reflects Renaissance ideals.

Writing About History

22. **Expository Writing** Analyze how the Reformation shaped the political and religious life of Europe. Be sure to identify the historical effects of the Reformation.
Analyzing Sources

Read the following description by Luther of a woman’s role in marriage.

The rule remains with the husband, and the wife is compelled to obey him by God’s command. He rules the home and the state, wages war, defends his possessions, tills the soil, builds, plants, etc. The woman on the other hand is like a nail driven into the wall... so the wife should stay at home and look after the affairs of the household, as one who has been deprived of the ability of administrating those affairs that are outside and that concern the state. She does not go beyond her most personal duties.

23. What does this quote reveal about the woman’s role in Protestant society?
24. What do you think Luther meant by the statement “The woman on the other hand is like a nail driven into the wall”?

Applying Technology Skills

25. Using the Internet Use the Internet to research a Renaissance artist. Find information about the person’s life and achievements. Using your research, take on the role of that person and create an autobiography about your life and your contributions to the Renaissance.

Making Decisions

26. Select two of the following types of Renaissance people: a noble, merchant, shopkeeper, or peasant. Research what life was like for these individuals. How did their lives vary? Who had the more comfortable lifestyle? Take into account economic and social factors.

Analyzing Maps and Charts

27. Study the map at the top of the page. What are two of the bodies of water that border the Holy Roman Empire?
28. Using a contemporary atlas, name the modern countries that are within the boundaries of what was the Holy Roman Empire.
29. According to this map, was Rome a part of the Holy Roman Empire in 1400?