Revolution and Enlightenment

The Big Ideas

SECTION 1: The Glorious Revolution
Throughout history people have struggled for rights. During the English civil wars and the Glorious Revolution, nobles and wealthy commoners established the principle of representative government.

SECTION 2: The Enlightenment
Moral and ethical principles influence the development of political thought. Enlightenment thinkers believed that human nature was rational and good, and wanted government and society to be based on reason.

SECTION 3: The American Revolution
Throughout history people have struggled for rights. Inspired by a belief in natural rights theory, American colonists rebelled against Britain to found a new nation.

World History—Modern Times Video
The Chapter 2 video, “Women of the Revolution,” chronicles the impact that women had on the course of the American Revolution.
Diderot becomes editor of the Encyclopedia

The Constitution of the United States is ratified by nine states

Montesquieu publishes *The Spirit of the Laws*

American colonies declare independence from Britain

Mary Wollstonecraft publishes *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*
Careful readers piece together information as they read, remembering information from different places in the text. They spot ideas as they go—sometimes these are found in different sentences, pages, or even sections. When the reader makes sense of these related ideas, he or she is synthesizing.

By the end of a section, the reader can usually understand how the different ideas are related to one another. Sometimes authors include a paragraph at the end of a section that will trigger the connections that you, the reader, have already made. The ending paragraph might also forecast topics covered in upcoming sections to help you prepare for additional connections.

Look at this concluding paragraph for Section 1 of Chapter 2. See which two historical groups are referred to in connection with the Glorious Revolution.

SYNTHESIZING

You synthesize when you connect events and ideas to reveal themes. Synthesizing the influences of the Glorious Revolution, Enlightenment, and the American Revolution demonstrates that rights and liberties are a major theme in this period.

... the Glorious Revolution of 1688 had a huge impact. It inspired French thinkers to speak out against absolutism. British colonists ... applauded Parliament’s fight, and saw their own parliaments in the colonies as having the same rights. Fully aware of events in England, the colonists expanded their concept of rights and liberties.

Apply the Skill

As you read this chapter, keep track of the factors that led to the Glorious Revolution as well as the results. Do the same thing when you read about the Enlightenment and the American Revolution. When you are finished, look at your notes for all three developments. Consider the kind of factors that operated in each and think about how they are related to one another. Can you draw any overall conclusions? If so, you are synthesizing.
How do you think that Locke’s ideas have influenced people’s perceptions of themselves and society over time? Make a list of the natural rights that you have just by being human. How would you modify the list that Locke originally proposed?
The Birth of a Son

In early June of 1688, as the late-spring sun warmed the English countryside, the royal family prepared for a birth. Queen Mary, the mother-to-be, was the second wife of King James II. The king, who had come to the throne in 1685, already had two grown daughters, Mary and Anne, by his first wife. Both were Protestant. Mary would succeed her father, but a male heir would take precedence. The problem was that any male heir would be Catholic, for the new queen was Catholic. So too was James II.

As king, James II was head of the Protestant, or Anglican, Church of England. Most of the English people were Protestant, but James wanted to return England to the Catholic fold. His attitude was, as he said, “Know I am your King, I will be obeyed.” He even appointed Catholics as generals of the army. Would James then ignore the wishes of his Protestant Parliament? Would he take England back into the Catholic camp?

On June 10, the queen gave birth to a son. Some of the king’s enemies argued—wrongly—that the child was not really the king’s son but someone else’s infant who had been smuggled into the queen’s bedroom. Outraged at the thought of a Catholic king, seven leaders of Parliament signed a letter inviting William of Orange, the Dutch leader and husband of James’s older daughter, Mary, to come and rule as a Protestant king. William came with an army, James II fled, and England experienced its Glorious Revolution.

Why It Matters

The Glorious Revolution was an important turning point in English history. When William and Mary accepted the throne from Parliament, they agreed to a declaration of rights. This declaration, soon enacted into law as a Bill of Rights, affirmed Parliament’s right to make laws and raise taxes. Parliament was now recognized as a vital part of government, thus laying the foundations for a constitutional monarchy. Years later, with the expansion of the right to vote to all males, England would become a democracy.

History and You In the United States, the legislature, or Congress, had power from the very beginning, but not everyone was represented in Congress. Make a chart showing when each of these groups attained representation: all adult males, women, African Americans, and 18-year-olds.
The Glorious Revolution

Guide to Reading

Section Preview
During the English civil war and the Glorious Revolution, nobles and wealthy commoners established the principle of representative government.

Main Idea
• In the 1600s, absolutist rulers in Europe were asserting that their power came directly from God, but in England Parliament was expanding its political power. (p. 176)
• Civil war broke out in England in 1642 between supporters of the king and the Parliament, and in 1649 Parliament proved victorious. (p. 179)
• England’s Glorious Revolution created a constitutional, or limited, monarchy in which the monarch shared power with Parliament. (p. 181)

Preview of Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1603</td>
<td>Elizabeth I dies</td>
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<tr>
<td>1642</td>
<td>Civil war in England begins</td>
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<tr>
<td>1649</td>
<td>Charles I is executed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1688</td>
<td>Glorious Revolution</td>
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Content Vocabulary
divine right of kings, commonwealth, natural rights

Academic Vocabulary
attribute, restraint, consensus, hypothetical, mutual

People to Identify
Elizabeth I, Puritans, Charles I, Oliver Cromwell, Charles II, James II, William of Orange, John Locke

Reading Objectives
1. Identify problems that troubled Europe between 1560 and 1650.
2. Explain how the Glorious Revolution undermined the divine right of kings.

Reading Strategy
Summarizing Information
As you read this section, use a chart like the one below to summarize the rulers’ positions on religion and power.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ruler</th>
<th>Position on issues of religion and power</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Henry VIII</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Elizabeth I</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Stuarts</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Oliver Cromwell</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William &amp; Mary</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

California Standards in This Section

10.2: Students compare and contrast the Glorious Revolution of England, the American Revolution, and the French Revolution and their enduring effects worldwide on the political expectations for self-government and individual liberty.

10.2.1: Compare the major ideas of philosophers and their effects on the democratic revolutions in England, the United States, France, and Latin America (e.g., John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Simón Bolívar, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison).

10.2.2: List the principles of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights (1689), the American Declaration of Independence (1776), the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789), and the U.S. Bill of Rights (1791).
Background to Revolution

In the 1600s, absolutist rulers in Europe were asserting that their power came directly from God, but in England Parliament was expanding its political power.

Reading Connection Have you ever heard it said that someone acted as if he or she were “above the law”? Read to learn how the English Parliament challenged kings who claimed to be accountable only to God.

At the end of the seventeenth century, English nobles and landowners carried out an important political revolution called the Glorious Revolution. It forced the king to recognize that he must rule in accordance with the laws they approved.

This revolution was one of three great political events in the Western world in this period—the other two were the American Revolution and the French Revolution. Each made a different contribution to the ideas that have shaped the modern world.

Jacques Bossuet, a seventeenth-century French bishop, explained a popular viewpoint:

“It is God who establishes kings. They thus act as ministers of God and His lieutenants on earth. It is through them that he rules. This is why we have seen that the royal throne is not the throne of a man, but the throne of God himself. It appears from this that the person of kings is sacred, and to move against them is a crime. Since their power comes from on high, kings... should exercise it with fear and restraint as a thing which has come to them from God, and for which God will demand an account.”

Bossuet’s ideas about kings became reality during the reign of King Louis XIV.

The Glorious Revolution introduced the principle that the king must bow to the representative body in a nation. The American Revolution clearly spelled out the roles of government institutions and the rights of citizens in a republic. The French Revolution experimented with several forms of government, and went furthest in asserting the principles of liberty and equality for all people, regardless of their economic status.

The Glorious Revolution was the first of these three great revolutions. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, most European countries were governed by absolute rulers who asserted that their power came directly from God. Monarchs who believed in the divine right of kings did not consider themselves accountable to their citizens, but only to God. Individuals who dared to question a monarch’s actions could be put to death. They might be considered sinners against an established religion because they had flaunted a king who was so close to God.

The most famous absolutist ruler was Louis XIV, who ruled France from 1643 to 1715. Louis had an unshakeable belief in divine right and saw no need to consult his subjects, not even his great nobles. Louis’s reign can best be summed up by a famous saying attributed to him: “I am the state.”

In England, the political system had developed in the opposite direction. During the Tudor dynasty of Henry VIII and Elizabeth I, the English monarchs discovered that having the support of Parliament—the body of nobles and wealthy commoners who claimed to represent the nation—was an advantage.

By 1700, however, English monarchs not only ruled with Parliament, but had to recognize that Parliament was the ultimate authority if there were disagreements. The idea that a parliament could limit the monarch’s power is simple, but it took centuries and violent conflict before it was accepted. In England, the conflict began in the 1640s and was not settled until 1688.
How the Tudors Ruled  From 1485 until 1603, England was governed by the Tudors, including King Henry VIII, who reigned from 1509 to 1547, and his daughter Elizabeth I, who reigned from 1558 to 1603. Both were strong and shrewd rulers who regularly consulted Parliament to get support for their policies. Their practices helped create an expectation that Parliament would be listened to.

Henry and Elizabeth needed Parliament’s help in one area especially: religious policies. Conflicts over religion were dividing powerful interests in the kingdom. Henry really created the problem when he demanded that the pope approve a divorce from his first wife, Catherine. Catherine gave birth to several daughters, but Henry wanted a son to succeed him. He wanted the pope to declare his marriage invalid so he could remarry.

The pope refused, not only because declaring a marriage invalid was a rare event, but because Catherine’s royal family in Spain were strong papal supporters. Henry finally decided to declare himself the head of the church in England. English archbishops and bishops were appalled, but Henry ignored them all—the pope, English church courts, and the advice of great nobles. He had Parliament pass the Act of Supremacy in 1534. The king was declared “the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England.”

Why did Parliament agree? First, the king was still the most powerful authority in the kingdom. Second, the king gave many members in Parliament a good reason to support him. Church lands that were seized were sold to them. No family that had been enriched with land would ever want the Catholic Church reestablished in England.

Henry’s church, the Anglican Church, was the product of a political struggle. By Elizabeth’s reign, conflict over religious doctrine was more intense because the Reformation had spread to England. The established Anglican religion made England a Protestant power. England’s rivals for world power, Spain and France, were Catholic. Thus England became firmly committed to Protestantism.

At home, Elizabeth moved to solve religious conflicts made worse by her half sister, Mary, a devout woman. Mary had passed laws to favor Catholicism during her five-year reign. Mary wanted to make England Catholic again and persecuted many people.

Elizabeth repealed these laws when she took the throne. Elizabeth wanted a national Anglican church because it gave the monarch more power. She did not want to upset Catholics too much, however—that might bring on bloody religious wars like those in France and the German states.
Her solution was to support a moderate Protestantism. In many ways, the Anglican Church still was very Catholic: The prayers were not much different, the services looked almost the same, and priests wore similar vestments.

As the Reformation intensified, Elizabeth’s moderation was unacceptable to fervent Protestants. Puritans, especially, were horrified by Anglican services that looked so Catholic. Puritans were Calvinists who wanted to purify the Anglican Church. They thought that individual worshippers should focus on spiritual things at church, not indulge their senses with organ music, stained glass, and incense.

Equally important, the Puritans wanted a congregation to be independent of the government and of bishops who might be corrupted by their lust for power. If congregations elected their own ministers, they would be more godly. These ideas challenged the queen’s power since the queen as head of the church appointed the bishops.

As the conflict heated up, Puritans in Parliament drafted legislation to change religious policies. In 1576, when one Puritan proposed to change the Anglican prayer book, Elizabeth imprisoned him. Government persecution increased, and many Puritans emigrated to found colonies in New England. There Puritanism made a significant contribution to how future generations of Americans felt about the relation between state and church.

The Stuarts and Divine Right The Tudor dynasty ended in 1603 because Elizabeth had no heir. Elizbeth’s cousin, the Stuart king of Scotland, then became James I of England.

The problems between Parliament and the monarch began when the Stuarts came to the English throne. The Stuarts did not understand how the Tudors had ruled. The Stuarts believed in the divine right of kings and wanted to be absolutist rulers like the glorious kings of France. The English Parliament knew a very different tradition.

Conflicts began under James I and intensified during the reign of his son, Charles I. Both kings looked to Louis XIV as their example. They believed they should be able to operate without any restraint from Parliament—to spend money as they wanted, to build fine buildings, or make alliances abroad if they felt like it.

Parliament was outraged. In 1628, Parliament passed a petition that said the king could not impose taxes without its consent. At first, Charles I accepted this petition, but later he realized that it restricted his freedom far too much. He retaliated the next year by not allowing Parliament to meet at all. Some members of Parliament were imprisoned. Others arrived at Parliament only to find that the doors had been bolted shut. They remained locked from 1629 until 1640. During this period—known as the Eleven Years’ Tyranny—Charles ruled without Parliament.

Reading Check

Contrasting How did the Stuarts’ view of Parliament differ from that of the Tudors?

History through Art

In this 1861 work by Ferdinand Piloty, Queen Elizabeth I is shown rallying troops against Spain, England’s traditional enemy. Why does the painting support national feeling?
Civil War and Aftermath

Main Idea Civil war broke out in England in 1642 between supporters of the king and the Parliament, and in 1649 Parliament proved victorious.

Reading Connection If you felt a political leader was acting against the law, what would you do to show your opposition? Read to learn how English leaders expressed their opposition to Charles I.

The English Parliament was very important to governing the nation. From every county, the lords and wealthy landowners and townspeople traveled to London to sit in the House of Lords and the House of Commons. These men were not simply wealthy, but actively involved in serving as a network of officials, sheriffs, and judges in their counties. If a king wanted to govern without Parliament’s support, he would have had to do it by military force.

In 1642 a civil war, known as the English Revolution, broke out between supporters of the king and supporters of Parliament. The king’s supporters were called Cavaliers or Royalists. Parliament’s supporters were called Roundheads because they disapproved of long fashionable curls and cut their hair short.

Parliament won largely because of the New Model Army of Oliver Cromwell, a military genius who knew how to use new tactics and discipline. Like their leader, the soldiers were zealous Puritans who were fighting for their religion. In Cromwell’s words, “This is none other but the hand of God, and to Him alone belongs the glory.”

The victorious forces lost no time in taking control. Cromwell concluded that Charles I could not be trusted and must be put to death. When Parliament hesitated, Cromwell purged Parliament of anyone who disagreed with him.

What was left—the 50 to 60 members of the “Rump Parliament”—had Charles I executed on January 30, 1649. The beheading of the king divided families and horrified much of Europe, especially members of the ruling classes. One writer recounted that “a man in a [mask] . . . held up to the spectators the head, streaming with blood, and cried aloud, ‘This is the head of a traitor.’” Others saw Charles as a martyr. To this day, the British commemorate the anniversary of his death by carrying wreaths to his statue in London.
Cromwell’s Puritan Commonwealth Following Charles’s execution, Parliament abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords and declared England a republic, or **commonwealth**.

Cromwell found it difficult to work with the Rump Parliament and finally dispersed it by force in 1653. As the members of Parliament departed, he shouted, “It is you that have forced me to do this, for I have sought the Lord night and day that He would slay me rather than put upon me the doing of this work.” After eliminating both Parliament and the king, Cromwell set up a military dictatorship.

Under Cromwell’s puritanical rule, the English had to give up going to the theater and most Sunday entertainment. The Puritans wanted a godly society. Used to a freer society, the English people became dissatisfied. When Cromwell died, his son was unable to maintain Cromwell’s system.

The Restoration Soon after Cromwell’s death, Parliament restored the Stuart heir to the English throne—*Charles II*. Most people were relieved to be done with Puritanism and dictatorship. Parliament had not forgotten, however, that the Stuarts had a tendency toward absolutism and got certain agreements that Charles II would respect its power.

England’s time of troubles seemed at an end for a while, but Charles II was sympathetic to Catholicism. Fears of Catholicism surfaced again. If Catholicism were restored, prominent Protestants would lose land and influence. The heir to the throne, Charles’s brother James, did not hide the fact that he was Catholic.

To counter any danger, Parliament introduced the Exclusion Bill to bar James from the throne if he professed his Catholicism. This bill is famous because it created two political groups, later called parties: the Whigs, who did not want a Catholic on the throne; and the Tories, who wanted to follow the lawful succession to the throne.

To foil the Exclusion Bill, Charles dismissed Parliament in 1681. He died in 1685 and **James II**, a devout Catholic, succeeded him. Once again, religion was a cause of conflict with Parliament. James began favoring Catholics for high positions in the government, army, navy, and universities.

Parliament was unhappy, but they did not yet rebel. James was old, and they hoped that things would improve when one of his daughters, Mary or Anne, succeeded. Both girls had been born to his first wife and had been raised Protestant. In 1688, however, James had a son by his second wife, a Catholic. The possibility of a Catholic monarchy and a restored Catholic Church loomed large.

**Reading Check** What was the basis for the English civil war that broke out in 1642?
Glorious Revolution and Limited Monarchy

Main Idea  England’s Glorious Revolution created a constitutional, or limited, monarchy in which the monarch shared power with Parliament.

Reading Connection  Think of a recent conflict dividing your country and how it was settled. Read how English lords brought about a “bloodless revolution” in 1688.

By 1688, England had seen decades of struggle over what institution should have the final authority in the kingdom. It had also seen decades of struggle over religion. England’s lords and landowners reached a quiet consensus. They did not want a king to dictate to them, and they did not want a Catholic king.

A coup was under way. A group of English noblemen invited the Dutch leader, William of Orange, who was married to James’s Protestant daughter Mary, to come to England. William and Mary raised an army and in 1688 arrived without much opposition in England. James and his wife and infant son fled to France. With almost no bloodshed, England had undergone a “Glorious Revolution.”

Now the issue was who would be monarch. In January 1689, Parliament offered the throne to William and Mary if they would accept the Bill of Rights. It set forth Parliament’s right to make laws and levy taxes. It also stated that standing armies could be raised only with Parliament’s consent. The Bill of Rights also confirmed citizens’ right to keep arms and have a jury trial.

The Bill of Rights helped create a system of government based on law and a freely elected Parliament. Many of its provisions were used a century later as a foundation for the American Bill of Rights.

The same year, Parliament also passed the Toleration Act of 1689. It granted Puritans, but not Catholics, the right to free public worship. Very few English citizens were ever again persecuted because of religion. England was one of the most tolerant nations in Europe, and many people persecuted elsewhere sought refuge there.

By deposing one king and establishing another, Parliament had destroyed the divine-right theory of kingship. William, after all, was king by the grace of Parliament, not the grace of God. Parliament also asserted its right to be part of the government.

John Locke  The English struggles of the 1600s inspired John Locke to write Two Treatises of Government, published in 1690. This work criticized absolutism and defended the Glorious Revolution. Locke described how governments are formed, and what justifies them. He believed that before society was organized, human beings lived in a state of equality and freedom. In this state of nature, humans had certain natural rights—rights they were born with.

In the real world, Locke felt there were problems in this hypothetical idea of nature. People could not protect their rights very well. That is why they agreed to contract with a government to protect their rights.

Under this contract, the people and the government had mutual obligations. Government would protect the rights of the people, and the people would act reasonably toward government. If a government broke the contract by not protecting an individual’s natural rights, then people were justified in rebelling and forming a new government.
To Locke, “people” meant the landholding elites, not common people who did not own land. Even though Locke did not advocate democracy, his ideas promoted democracy. In the American and French Revolutions, Locke’s arguments were used to demand the rule of law and individual rights. (See page 771 to read an excerpt from Locke’s Two Treatises of Government in the Primary Sources Library.)

The Glorious Revolution, the American Revolution, and the French Revolution all utilized natural rights theory. The Glorious Revolution was different in two ways from the two later revolutions, however. First, it was not violent—later historians have termed it the “bloodless revolution,” although there had been much violence in the 1640s. Second, the Glorious Revolution was different because it was not the middle class and lower class who were demanding rights, but nobles and wealthy members of Parliament.

Still, the Glorious Revolution of 1688 had a huge impact. It inspired French thinkers to speak out against absolutism. British colonists also took an important lesson from the Glorious Revolution. They applauded Parliament’s fight and saw their own parliaments in the colonies as having the same rights. Fully aware of events in England, the colonists expanded their concept of rights and liberties.

Describing Trace the events of the late 1680s that led to the English Bill of Rights.
The Enlightenment

**Guide to Reading**

**Section Preview**
Enlightenment thinkers, or philosophes, believed that human nature was rational and good, and wanted government and society to be based on reason.

**Main Idea**
- The philosophes believed that they could copy the rational methods of scientists to eliminate unjust laws and create a better society. (p. 184)
- The philosophes’ belief in logic and reason promoted the beginnings of the social sciences, such as economics and political science. (p. 187)

**Preview of Events**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1702</td>
<td>The first daily newspaper is published in London</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1748</td>
<td>Baron de Montesquieu publishes <em>The Spirit of the Laws</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1762</td>
<td>Rousseau publishes <em>The Social Contract</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>1763</td>
<td>Voltaire writes his <em>Treatise on Toleration</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1776</td>
<td>Adam Smith publishes <em>The Wealth of Nations</em></td>
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**Content Vocabulary**
philosophe, deism, separation of powers, social contract, laissez-faire, salon

**Academic Vocabulary**
evidence, affect, concept

**People to Identify**
Isaac Newton, Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau, Adam Smith, Cesare Beccaria, Denis Diderot, Mary Wollstonecraft

**Places to Locate**
Paris, London

**Reading Objectives**
1. Define the central ideas of the Enlightenment.
2. Explain the role that religion played during the Enlightenment.

**Reading Strategy**
**Summarizing Information** Use a diagram like the one below to list main ideas of the Enlightenment.

**California Standards in This Section**

10.2: Students compare and contrast the Glorious Revolution of England, the American Revolution, and the French Revolution and their enduring effects worldwide on the political expectations for self-government and individual liberty.

10.2.1: Compare the major ideas of philosophers and their effects on the democratic revolutions in England, the United States, France, and Latin America (e.g., John Locke, Charles-Louis Montesquieu, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Simón Bolívar, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison).

10.2.2: List the principles of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights (1689), the American Declaration of Independence (1776), the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789), and the U.S. Bill of Rights (1791).

10.2.3: Understand the unique character of the American Revolution, its spread to other parts of the world, and its continuing significance to other nations.
The Enlightenment and the Philosophes

Main Idea The philosophes believed that they could copy the rational methods of scientists to eliminate unjust laws and create a better society.

Reading Connection Think of a time when you experienced an injustice. Read to learn how imprisonment and forced exile affected the ideas of Voltaire.

The Enlightenment was an intellectual movement that began in France. Its leaders were called philosophes (fee•luh•ZAWFS). They were not philosophers in the strict sense of the term, but writers, professors, journalists, economists, and social reformers. They came chiefly from the nobility and the middle class.

Voices from the Past

The French intellectual Voltaire attacked religious intolerance in The Ignorant Philosopher:

“Of course, there is scarce any city or borough in Europe, where blood has not been spilled for religious quarrels; I say, that the human species has been perceptibly diminished, because women and girls were massacred as well as men. I say that Europe would have a third larger population if there had been no theological disputes. In fine, I say, that so far from forgetting these abominable times, we should frequently take a view of them, to inspire an eternal horror for them. . . . It is for our age to make amends by toleration, for this long collection of crimes, which has taken place through the lack of toleration during sixteen barbarous centuries.”

Religious toleration was one of the major themes of the Enlightenment.

These philosophes were amazed by the Scientific Revolution and saw that reason had enabled scientists to discover the secrets of the universe. Reason became their guide and motto. If reason was applied to politics and government, it would be a better, more just society for all.

Although the Enlightenment began in France, two of its heroes were Englishmen, Isaac Newton and John Locke. Newton’s discoveries in math and astronomy showed evidence that the physical universe followed regular natural laws. The philosophes wanted to be like Newton and find the natural laws for human society.

John Locke was another powerful influence in the Enlightenment. He had analyzed how a government should rule in Two Treatises of Government, but in other essays he wrote about how people think and learn. Locke said that when infants were born, their minds were blank—they were a tabula rasa, or blank slate, on which anything could be written. Locke argued that people learned everything from their senses and experiences.

From Locke, Enlightenment thinkers concluded that if a more rational environment was created in society, then people would be rational and good. One writer said that the philosophe is one who “applies himself to the study of society with the purpose of making his kind better and happier.”

The Enlightenment spanned almost a century. Centered in Paris, it was an international movement which evolved over time. For this reason, one can find disagreements on certain issues, but all of the philosophes focused on the themes of reason, natural law, hope, and progress.
Voltaire Of all the great names in the Enlightenment, the greatest was François-Marie Arouet, known simply as Voltaire. A Parisian, Voltaire came from a prosperous middle-class family. He wrote an almost endless stream of pamphlets, novels, plays, letters, essays, and histories, which brought him both fame and wealth.

In 1726, when he was 32, Voltaire clashed with a nobleman in France, who resented an insult Voltaire had directed at him. The nobleman had powerful connections and succeeded in having Voltaire imprisoned. Voltaire was released only when he agreed to leave France and go into exile in England.

This experience affected Voltaire deeply. After his release from prison, he often spoke out against censorship and unjust laws. In the three years he spent in England, he saw a society that he felt was superior. As a man of ideas, he liked the freer air in England—for the most part, men and women could express their opinions openly. On his return to France, he published a work that criticized French institutions as compared to the English. The French king banned the book immediately.

Voltaire was a strong opponent of the Catholic Church. His opposition had a lot to do with the fact that the Church in France supported absolutism. Voltaire opposed traditional Christianity, too, however, because he believed it did not encourage people to think rationally. He mocked what he termed superstition wherever he saw it and campaigned for religious toleration. His Treatise on Toleration of 1763 reminded governments that “all men are brothers under God.”

Voltaire himself was a deist. Deism is based on reason and natural law. The Supreme Being is not a personal God, but an impersonal being. Deists imagined that God had created a world-machine that was perfect. Once set in motion, the universe ran according to natural laws, without the need for constant supervision or occasional miracles.

Montesquieu Charles-Louis de Secondat, the Baron de Montesquieu, came from the French nobility. His most famous work, The Spirit of the Laws, was published in 1748. Montesquieu used the scientific method to make a close study of governments. In a way, Montesquieu was the first political scientist.

Montesquieu identified three basic kinds of governments: (1) republics, suitable for small states; (2) despotism, appropriate for large states; and (3) monarchies, ideal for moderate-size states. He used England as an example of a monarchy.

Montesquieu believed that England’s government had three branches: the executive (the monarch), the legislative (Parliament), and the judicial (the courts of law). He thought that the English government functioned through a separation of powers in which the executive, legislative, and judiciary placed limits and controls on each other. By preventing one group from having too much power, and by creating a system of checks and balances, the English had created the most freedom and security for the nation.

Montesquieu was actually inaccurate in his analysis of English government. Power was not strictly separated as he claimed, but distributed in a much more complex way. As just one example, the king had many connections to Parliament through noble families. Yet essentially Montesquieu was right to say that power was balanced in the English system.

It was in America that Montesquieu’s concept of separation of powers made a contribution. Montesquieu’s work was translated into English, and Americans read it. They followed his ideas about separation of powers, and checks and balances, very closely in the United States Constitution.

Rousseau By the late 1760s, a new generation of philosophers had come to maturity. Most famous of these talented writers and thinkers was Jean-Jacques Rousseau (ru•SOH). Rousseau was very different from Voltaire, the sophisticated man of Paris, or from Montesquieu, an aristocrat.
Rousseau was born into a poor middle-class family in Switzerland. As a young man, he wandered through France and Italy, making a living by holding odd jobs for low pay. Eventually he made his way to Paris, where he wrote several essays. His writings attracted the attention of Voltaire and other philosophes, but Rousseau was always the outsider. He did not like city life and often withdrew to be alone for long periods.

In *Discourse on the Origins of the Inequality of Mankind*, Rousseau argued that people had adopted laws and government to preserve their property. In doing so, they had become enslaved by government. What should people do to regain their freedom?

In his famous work *The Social Contract*, published in 1762, Rousseau presented a strikingly new idea about society. John Locke had written about a contract between people and the government. Rousseau’s *social contract* was something different, an agreement among a whole society that it would be governed by the general will. Individuals who wanted to follow their own self-interests must be forced to abide by the general will. “This means nothing less than that [they] will be forced to be free,” said Rousseau. In Rousseau’s theory, the general will represents what is best for the entire community.

Another important work by Rousseau is *Emile*. Written in the form of a novel, Emile discusses the education of “the natural man.” Rousseau argued that education should foster, and not restrict, children’s natural instincts.

Most Enlightenment thinkers talked and wrote constantly about reason. Rousseau believed that emotion held another kind of truth and was also important to human development. His goal was a balance between heart and mind, between emotion and reason.

Rousseau’s ideas about women were not very advanced. Women were “naturally” different from men: “To fulfill her functions, . . . [a woman] needs a soft life. . . . How much care and tenderness does she need to hold her family together.” He thought women should learn obedience and nurturing skills so that they could care for their husbands and children. He once wrote that he preferred the traditional woman. “I would a thousand times have a homely girl, simply brought up than a learned lady and a wit who would make a literary circle of my house.” Not everyone, however, agreed with Rousseau.
Toward a New Social Science

Main Idea The philosophes’ belief in logic and reason promoted the beginnings of the social sciences, such as economics and political science.

Reading Connection Have you heard of studies that influence how politicians draft new laws? Read to learn about the time when studies in the social sciences first began to influence government.

The philosophes believed that scientific methods could be used to study society. In time, this conviction led to new fields of study, the social sciences. Economics and political science were two of the first social sciences to develop.

The founders of the modern social science of economics were the Physiocrats in France and the philosopher Adam Smith in Scotland.

The Physiocrats argued that if individuals were free to pursue their economic self-interest, everyone would be better off in the end. Believing in this principle, the Physiocrats argued that the state should not interrupt the free play of natural economic forces by imposing government regulations. The state should leave the economy alone.

This doctrine became known by its French name, **laissez-faire** (leh•say•FEHR), meaning “to let (people) do (what they want).” The best statement of laissez-faire was made in 1776 by Adam Smith in his famous work *The Wealth of Nations*. Like the Physiocrats, Smith believed that the state should not interfere in the economy. Instead, Smith argued that the law of supply and demand would naturally regulate the economy for everyone’s best interest.

In fact, Smith argued that the government had only three very basic roles: protecting society from invasion (the army); keeping up certain public works, such as roads and canals, that private individuals could not afford; and defending citizens from injustice (the police).

The power of the Enlightenment ideas can be seen in writings on another aspect of society: crime and punishment. By the eighteenth century, most European states had developed a system of courts to formally sentence criminals. Punishments were often cruel. Governments felt extreme punishments were necessary to deter crime because their police forces were weak and thus unable to capture criminals.

Following the thinking of the philosophes, one man came up with different conclusions. Cesare Beccaria proposed a new approach to justice in *On Crimes and Punishments*, written in 1764. Beccaria argued that brutal punishments did not stop others from turning to crime. Moreover, it set an example of barbarism: “Is it not absurd, that the laws, which punish murder, should, in order to prevent murder, publicly commit murder themselves?”

**People In History**

Mary Wollstonecraft
1759–1797—English writer

Mary Wollstonecraft is considered by many to be the founder of the European and American movements for women’s rights. Wollstonecraft was largely self-educated. For a while, she earned a living as a governess but soon moved to a writing career and worked for a magazine publisher.

All along, Wollstonecraft continued to develop her ideas on education and women’s rights. She wrote in 1792: “Make women rational creatures, and free citizens, and they will quickly become good wives; that is—if men do not neglect the duties of husbands and fathers!”

Mary Wollstonecraft married the philosopher William Godwin in 1797. She died shortly after the birth of their daughter, Mary Wollstonecraft Godwin Shelley, who wrote the famous novel *Frankenstein.*
Spread of the Enlightenment

**Main Idea** Enlightenment ideas spread in France through salons and in the Western world through an expansion of the reading public.

**Reading Connection** Think about the careers open to American women today. Read to learn how the Enlightenment first promoted ideas about women’s rights.

It was wealthy elites who experienced the Enlightenment to the fullest. However, the movement also spread to literate people in urban areas of Europe.

**Salons and the Growth of Reading** In the eighteenth century, many more books began to be published. In 1750, French publishers came out with about 300 titles, and by 1780, that number had climbed to about 1,600. Publishers were aiming at a new market, too, new readers among the middle class, which included women and artisans and even a few workers in the cities.

Between 1751 and 1772, a French philosophe named Denis Diderot published a 28-volume Encyclopedia, or Classified Dictionary of the Sciences, Arts, and Trades. The Encyclopedia became a major weapon in the philosophes’ crusade against the old French society, attacking superstition and calling for political changes. Many copies were sold, spreading Enlightenment ideas. Magazines also changed ideas. In Great Britain, an important center for the new magazines, 25 periodicals were published in 1700, 103 in 1760, and 158 in 1780. Along with magazines came daily newspapers. The first was printed in London in 1702. Newspapers were relatively cheap and were even provided free in many coffeehouses.

Enlightenment ideas also spread through salons. Salons were the elegant drawing rooms of the wealthy upper class’s great urban houses. Guests gathered in them to discuss ideas. Salons brought writers and artists together with aristocrats and wealthy middle-class people. This mixing of the classes was itself a sign of progress.

**Magazines, Then and Now**

Bookstores and newsstands carry thousands of magazines that appeal to an enormous variety of interests. We can find magazines on fishing, car racing, fashion, politics, television, furniture making, tourism, wrestling, and a host of other subjects.

The first magazines in Europe were a product of a growing reading public in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, especially among the middle classes. The first magazine was published in Germany in 1633. It contained poems and articles on religion, the chief interest of its editor, Johann Rist.

Many early magazines had serious goals. Joseph Addison and Richard Steele’s Spectator, begun in 1711, aimed to “bring Philosophy out of the closets and libraries, schools and colleges, to dwell in clubs and assemblies, at tea-tables and coffeehouses.”

Some publishers began to broaden the appeal of their magazines. Some attracted women readers. Ladies’ Mercury, published in Britain, provided advice on marriage, sewing patterns, and gossip. Its success inspired a host of similar magazines.

Pretend you are an eighteenth-century magazine editor assigned to write an article for the next edition. Choose a person or an event discussed in Chapter 2 to be the subject of your article (use outside resources if necessary). You could also select one Enlightenment idea and present it to your readers.
**Women and the Enlightenment**  Salons were always hosted by women. In this role, women found themselves in a position to sway political opinion and influence literary and artistic taste. At her fashionable home in Paris, for example, Marie-Thérèse de Geoffrin, the wife of a wealthy merchant, held gatherings that became the talk of France and of all Europe. Distinguished foreigners, including a future king of Sweden and a future king of Poland, competed to receive invitations.

For centuries, male intellectuals had argued that women were naturally inferior to men and so it was necessary for men to dominate women. By the time of the Enlightenment, however, female thinkers did not find that these ideas met the test of reason. The English writer Mary Wollstonecraft made the strongest statement for the rights of women. Many see her as the original founder of the movement for women’s rights.

In *A Vindication of the Rights of Women*, Wollstonecraft identified two problems with how some Enlightenment thinkers viewed women. She asked why the same people who argued that women must obey men without question also said that an absolutist government was wrong.

Wollstonecraft also argued that the Enlightenment was based on an ideal of reason in all human beings. Because women have reason, they too are entitled to natural rights. Women, Wollstonecraft declared, should have equal rights in education, as well as in economic and political life.

**The Enlightenment in America**  The Enlightenment had a powerful effect on colonists in America. The British colonies were still part of European society in many ways, and educated men and women read the same books and journals as the elites of Europe—at least as soon as they could get them for their libraries or borrow them.

Thomas Jefferson, who drafted the Declaration of Independence, first encountered the writings of Enlightenment thinkers when he was a college student in the early 1760s. He and James Madison, another influential American leader, were both attracted to the ideas of John Locke.

One of the most obvious examples of Locke’s influence can be seen in the Declaration of Independence. Numerous phrases in the Declaration bear a resemblance to statements in Locke’s *Two Treatises of Government*. Perhaps Locke had the most impact through his argument that citizens were justified in rebelling against a government that causes harm to those it governs. Americans were certain that the British government of King George III had caused them harm, and that they were justified in rebelling.

**Reading Check**  Evaluating How did Mary Wollstonecraft use the Enlightenment ideal of reason?

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**SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT**

**Checking for Understanding**

1. **Vocabulary** Define: philosophe, evidence, affect, deism, separation of powers, concept, social contract, laissez-faire, salon.

2. **People** Identify: Isaac Newton, Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau, Adam Smith, Cesare Beccaria, Denis Diderot, Mary Wollstonecraft.


**Reviewing Big Ideas**

4. Explain the influence of Isaac Newton and John Locke on Enlightenment thinkers.

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Historical Analysis** Connecting Ideas  What did Rousseau mean when he stated that if any individual wants to pursue his own self-interest at the expense of the common good, “He will be forced to be free”? (CA III 1)

6. **Summarizing Information** Use a diagram like the one below to identify factors that helped spread Enlightenment ideas throughout Europe.

![Factors that Spread Enlightenment](image)

**Analyzing Visuals**

7. Describe the scene in the painting on page 182, which portrays Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Franklin, and John Adams drafting the Declaration of Independence. Does the scene suggest the seriousness of what they were doing?

**Writing About History**

8. **Persuasive Writing** Mary Wollstonecraft argued that women are entitled to the same rights as men. In an essay, present an argument for today’s audience on the same issue, using evidence and logic. (CA 10/WA 2.4.a,c)
Inspired by a belief in natural rights theory, American colonists rebelled against Britain to found a new nation.

- In theory, the colonies were governed by the British, but in practice colonial legislatures often acted independently. (p. 191)
- After the French and Indian War, the British angered colonists by imposing new taxes to help pay for the war. (p. 191)
- Drawing on natural rights theory and the ideas of John Locke, the Declaration of Independence declared the colonies to be independent of the British Crown. (p. 192)

Americans won their independence from Britain in 1783 and later ratified a constitution that clearly spelled out the rights of individuals and the limits of government. (p. 194)

Americans struggled to find a balance between individual freedom and a unified central government. (p. 196)

Content Vocabulary
- colony, Stamp Act, Declaration of Independence, Articles of Confederation, federal system, Bill of Rights

Academic Vocabulary
- tension, correspondence, amendments, assembly

People to Identify
- William Pitt the Elder, King George III, George Washington, Thomas Jefferson

Places to Locate
- Yorktown

Reading Objectives
1. Identify the causes of the American Revolution.
2. Describe the short-term and long-term impact of the American Revolution.

Reading Strategy
Summarizing Information

Use a chart like the one below to identify key aspects of the government created by the American colonists.

California Standards in This Section

Reading this section will help you master these California History–Social Science standards.

10.1.3: Consider the influence of the U.S. Constitution on political systems in the contemporary world.

10.2: Students compare and contrast the Glorious Revolution of England, the American Revolution, and the French Revolution and their enduring effects worldwide on the political expectations for self-government and individual liberty.

10.2.2: List the principles of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights (1689), the American Declaration of Independence (1776), the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789), and the U.S. Bill of Rights (1791).

10.2.3: Understand the unique character of the American Revolution, its spread to other parts of the world, and its continuing significance to other nations.
How the Colonies Learned Self-Government

Main Idea In theory, the colonies were governed by the British, but in practice colonial legislatures often acted independently.

Reading Connection What issues might make you want to declare independence from your parents, teachers, and friends? Read to discover why colonists took their first steps to political independence.

By 1750, more than one million people lived in the thirteen British colonies in North America. Located on the eastern coast of the present United States, they attracted many settlers and became prosperous.

Voices from the Past

On July 2, 1776, the Second Continental Congress adopted a resolution declaring the independence of the American colonies. It read:

“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. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it and to institute new Government.”

The ideas of the Enlightenment had clearly made an impact on the colonies in North America. Despite their close ties to their European mother countries, the colonies of Latin America and British North America were developing in ways that sometimes differed significantly from those of Europe.

The colonies were established to supply raw materials to Britain and to be a market for British goods. In theory, the British Board of Trade, and ultimately the Parliament, were in charge of them, but the colonies had set up their own legislatures. For decades, these legislatures operated with little interference from Britain.

Each of the 13 legislatures functioned like a miniature Parliament and made its own laws. White male citizens who owned land elected the representatives. There were also county and local government institutions which passed laws for towns and villages.

Reading Check Comparing How did American and British views of their legislatures differ?

British and French Rivalry in North America

Main Idea After the French and Indian War, the British angered colonists by imposing new taxes to help pay for the war.

Reading Connection Think about the various kinds of taxes that may affect your life. Read this section to see how colonists reacted to taxes they felt were unjust.

The French and British colonies in North America were set up differently. French North America, consisting of Canada and Louisiana, was run by the French government as a vast trading area. The French state was unable to get people to move to North America, so its colonies were thinly populated, in contrast to those of Britain.

Between 1756 and 1763, Britain and France fought one another in the Seven Years’ War. The American phase of the war is known as the French and Indian War. The British and the French were fighting for control of North America, especially for control of the Ohio River valley. British settlers wanted to expand into this vast area, and French forts stood in their way.

Thomas Jefferson
At first, the French, with the help of their Indian allies, scored some victories. British fortunes were revived by William Pitt the Elder, Britain’s prime minister. Pitt was convinced that the French colonial empire would have to be destroyed for Britain to have its own empire. He used the British navy to defeat the weaker French fleet. The British had the advantage—the French now had a hard time reinforcing their troops in America.

In 1759, British forces defeated the French on the Plains of Abraham, outside Quebec. The French were forced to make peace. By the Treaty of Paris, they transferred Canada and the lands east of the Mississippi to Great Britain. Their ally Spain transferred Spanish Florida to British control. In return, the French gave their Louisiana territory to the Spanish. By 1763, Great Britain had become the world’s greatest colonial power.

After achieving victory in the Seven Years’ War, British leaders wanted to get new revenues from the colonies. These revenues would be used to cover war costs, as well as to pay for the expenses of maintaining an army to defend the colonies.

In 1765, Parliament imposed the Stamp Act on the colonies. This act required that certain printed materials, such as legal documents and newspapers, carry a stamp showing that a tax had been paid to Britain. Opposition was widespread and often violent, and the act was repealed in 1766. The crisis was over, but the cause of the dispute was not resolved.

**Reading Check** Why did British leaders impose the Stamp Act on colonists, and what response did it elicit?

### The American Revolution

**Main Idea** Drawing on natural rights theory and the ideas of John Locke, the Declaration of Independence declared the colonies to be independent of the British Crown.

**Reading Connection** What comes to mind when you celebrate the Fourth of July? Read to learn how and why the colonists took the bold and risky step of declaring independence.

The tension between Great Britain and the colonies had started before the Stamp Act was passed. The British expected the colonies to import mostly British goods. Parliament passed taxes on non-British goods to make them more expensive. To avoid these tariffs, the colonists had been smuggling them. The British then clamped down on smugglers,
even searching private homes for illegal goods. The colonists were angry because they thought of themselves as English citizens protected by English laws.

On the same day that Parliament repealed the Stamp Act, it passed the Declaratory Act. The Declaratory Act said that Parliament had the right to tax and make decisions for the colonies “in all cases.” New taxes on basic goods were passed. The new taxes—and the undermining of the colonial legislatures—angered the colonists. “No taxation without representation!” became the rallying cry behind anti-British demonstrations, boycotts, and even destruction of property.

As a result of the colonists’ actions, the British sent more troops to the colonies. Clashes between the British soldiers and the colonists grew more volatile. One clash, the Boston Massacre, left five colonists dead and led to the spread of anti-British propaganda. In order to restore the peace and reestablish trade relations, the British repealed all taxes except for the tea tax, and the colonists put an end to boycotts on British goods. However, the push for economic independence was growing stronger.

After two years of relative calm, tension mounted when Parliament passed the Tea Act of 1773. This act allowed the struggling British East India Company to bypass American merchants and sell their tea directly to colonial shopkeepers. This made British tea cheaper than all other tea, gave the British a monopoly, and decreased profits for American merchants.

The Colonists Unite in Protest The colonists had had enough. Previously, at Thomas Jefferson’s urging, the colonies had formed committees of correspondence to allow them to communicate with each other about the British. They used these committees to keep East India Company tea out of America. At Boston Harbor, two ships carrying the tea were forced to turn around and another had its cargo seized. In December 1773, colonists boarded one ship and dumped 342 chests of tea into the harbor, an event that became known as the Boston Tea Party. Despite this radical act, most colonists were still not ready to throw off British rule.

When King George III heard about the Boston Tea Party, he ordered Parliament to pass the Coercive Acts to punish Massachusetts and put an end to colonial rebellion. The acts—renamed the Intolerable Acts by the colonists—violated several traditional English rights, including the right to a trial by jury and the right to not be forced to quarter, or house, troops in one’s own home.

The Continental Congresses To counteract British actions, the colonies organized the First Continental Congress, which met in Philadelphia in September 1774. The mood of many colonists could be summed up by the words of Patrick Henry, who said, “The distinctions between Virginians, Pennsylvanians, New Yorkers, and New Englanders are no more. . . . I am not a Virginian, but an American.”

This Continental Congress called for the repeal of the 13 Parliament acts passed since 1763, the boycott of British goods, and the formation of colonial militias. It sent the king a Declaration of Rights and Grievances that stated their loyalty but condemned the Coercive Acts. The delegates agreed to meet again in 1775 if the crisis had not been resolved.

The reaction of King George III and Parliament did not calm the colonists. When colonial militias were formed, the king sent more British troops to the colonies. In the spring of 1775, British troops in Boston were sent to seize the arms and supplies of militias stored in Concord, Massachusetts. On their way, the British ran into colonial militias in Lexington. By the time the British got to Concord, they faced more militias and found that the supplies had been removed. The British were harassed all the way back to Boston, with 99 killed and 174 wounded. News of the fighting spread to other colonies. In Boston, the
colonial militia began to stream in and soon the British were surrounded.

**The Second Continental Congress** Because of how the British reacted, the Second Continental Congress was called and met in May 1775. The first issue was the formation of an organized army, the Continental Army, which was to be commanded by George Washington. Before the Continental Army had a chance to organize, the British sent more soldiers to Boston to suppress revolt. The colonial militia found out about the plan and met the British at the Battle of Bunker Hill. Desperately short on supplies, the colonists managed to kill or wound 1,000 British soldiers. A military stalemate resumed in Boston, but American confidence was rising.

Still, the colonists did not rush headlong into war. After the fighting in Lexington and Concord, more than a year passed before the decision was made to declare independence from the British Empire.

In July 1775, the Second Continental Congress sent the Olive Branch Petition to assure King George III of their desire for peace. The colonists asked the king to protect their rights as English citizens, which they felt Parliament had been taking away. King George refused to look at the petition. Instead, he sent 30,000 hired German troops to the colonies to fight the rebellious colonists.

Although some colonists, called Loyalists, wanted to remain loyal English citizens, others, called Patriots, began calling for independence. Beginning in January 1776, Patriot Thomas Paine’s pamphlets, called Common Sense, began circulating throughout the colonies. Paine’s writings began to convince people that both Parliament and King George III were acting like tyrants, and complete independence from Great Britain was necessary if Americans were to secure their rights.

**The Birth of a New Nation**

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**Main Idea** Americans won their independence from Britain in 1783 and later ratified a constitution that clearly spelled out the rights of individuals and the limits of government.

**Reading Connection** Can you think of a time when a goal you had finally became a reality? Read to learn about the steps colonists took when they finally won independence.

On July 4, 1776, the Second Continental Congress approved a declaration of independence written by Thomas Jefferson. Based in large part on the ideas of John Locke, the Declaration of Independence declared the colonies to be “free and independent
states absolved from all allegiance to the British Crown.” Like Locke, Jefferson stated that life, liberty, and property are natural rights and it is the government’s duty to protect those rights. When governments do not, they can be rightfully overthrown. The people of the American colonies reacted with celebration to the Declaration of Independence. The American Revolution had formally begun.

The Declaration of Independence amounted to a declaration of war against Great Britain. Such a declaration was an enormous gamble. The Continental Army was a brand-new creation. The soldiers were a motley group of ordinary citizens—small farmers, artisans, and merchants. They had no regular military training and usually agreed to serve for only a short time. These so-called Patriots faced the world’s best military force, one supported by a rich nation with a healthy economy.

The Patriots had some important advantages, though. The British had to ship soldiers and supplies across the Atlantic, while the Patriots were fighting on home ground.

One of the most important advantages that the Patriots had was their motivation to fight. Most of the British and German soldiers were fighting as part of a job or for money. For the Patriots, it was a battle for their freedom.

A critical factor for the American victory was the financial support from other countries, especially France. The French, eager to inflict damage on the British in any way possible, gave arms and money to the Americans from early in the war. French officers and soldiers served under General Washington. One famous Frenchman, the Marquis de Lafayette, wrote this about the American Revolution: “The future of America is closely bound up with the future of all mankind.” Spain and the Dutch Republic, other British rivals, were also eager to fight against Great Britain. The British had their hands full.

Both sides expected the war to be short, but it dragged on for about seven years, from 1776 to 1783. When the army of General Cornwallis was finally forced to surrender to combined American and French forces under Washington at Yorktown in 1781, the British decided to end the war.

The Treaty of Paris, signed in 1783, recognized the independence of the American colonies and granted the Americans control of the western territory from the Appalachians to the Mississippi River.

**Reading Check**

**Explaining** Why did foreign countries support the American cause?

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**History through Art**

*The March to Valley Forge, 1883* was painted by William B.T. Trego. It conveyed the suffering General Washington and his Continental Army endured during the brutal winter of 1777 at their headquarters in Pennsylvania. How do you think the public felt about this event in the year it was painted?
Ruling a New Nation

Main Idea Americans struggled to find a balance between individual freedom and a unified central government.

Reading Connection Have you heard the phrase cost-benefit analysis? Read to learn how Americans balanced the costs and benefits of government.

The thirteen American colonies had gained their independence. The former colonies were now states which had to come together to form a country. Because they had just fought a war to free themselves from a king, the states feared the potential for concentrated power. Also, each state was primarily concerned for its own interests. For these reasons, the states had little enthusiasm for creating a united nation with a strong central government.

The Articles of Confederation, the nation’s first constitution, thus did little to provide for a strong central government. It soon became clear that the government under the Articles lacked the power to deal with many problems. A movement for a different form of national government arose.

The Articles of Confederation had been approved in 1781. In the summer of 1787, 55 delegates met in Philadelphia to revise the Articles. The convention’s delegates decided to throw out the Articles of Confederation and write a plan for an entirely new national government. That meeting became known as the Constitutional Convention.

The Constitution The proposed Constitution created a federal system in which power would be shared between the national government and the state governments. The national, or federal, government was given the power to levy taxes, raise an army, regulate trade, and create a national currency.

The Framers, or writers, of the Constitution used Montesquieu’s ideas and divided the federal government into three branches, each with some power to check the workings of the others. The first branch was the executive branch, with a president serving as the chief executive. The president had the power to execute laws, veto the legislature’s acts, supervise foreign affairs, and direct military forces.

Like the British Parliament, the second, or legislative, branch of government had two houses, a Senate and a House. State legislatures elected the Senate, while the people voted directly for the House of Representatives. Here, too, the Framers built in a system of checks and balances.

The Supreme Court and other courts deemed necessary by Congress made up the judiciary, or third branch of government. The courts would enforce the Constitution as the “supreme law of the land.”
The Bill of Rights To take effect, the Constitution had to be ratified by nine states. The Constitution was finally approved, but in several states, the voting margin was slim. It was the promise that a bill of rights would be added to the Constitution that won sufficient supporters.

Why did many colonists insist on a bill of rights? Americans had just gone through a terrible war fighting the tyranny of the British king and Parliament. They wanted to be sure that there were written guarantees defining the limits of the government and the rights of the individual.

In 1789 the new Congress proposed 12 amendments. The 10 amendments that the states approved became the Bill of Rights. They guaranteed freedom of religion, speech, press, petition, and assembly. The Bill of Rights clearly laid out a number of other rights that Americans considered absolute: the right against unreasonable searches and arrests, the right to bear arms, and the right to trial by jury. One of the most well-known of these rights is the right to due process.

A long history lies behind the Bill of Rights, including the Magna Carta set before King John in 1215. The natural rights theory of the Enlightenment was, however, the most direct influence on this document. Even at the time, American and European intellectuals felt that the U.S. Constitution embodied the ideas of the Enlightenment. The price of achieving equality and freedom had been high, but now the way was open to build a better society.

A Model for Democracy The American Revolution took place when Enlightenment ideas were gaining ground everywhere in the West. In France, the home of the Enlightenment, educated people wanted a society based on reason, not simply on outdated traditions from medieval times. There were other causes for the French Revolution, too—famine, a financial crisis, and nobles’ discontent with the king. Yet the new American republic was a great inspiration to the French. In 1789, the same year the American Bill of Rights was proposed, the French Revolution broke out. It, too, created a new government, one based on representative institutions and individual rights.

The American experience inspired Latin America, too. Between 1807 and 1825, while Europe was in turmoil, landowners and middle-class merchants carried out revolts against Spain in Mexico, Argentina, Peru, Chile, Venezuela, and Bolivia.

In the twentieth century, the American legacy continued to inspire independence movements. Nationalist leaders in Africa and Southeast Asia looked to the United States for political principles and a model for constitutional government. The same was true for Eastern Europeans and Russians. Even in China, where there is still no representative government, the American Revolution has provided a stirring example for citizens who want a free and open society.

Contrasting What was the main difference between the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution?

Reading Check

1. Vocabulary Define: colony, Stamp Act, tension, correspondence, Declaration of Independence, Articles of Confederation, federal system, amendments, Bill of Rights, assembly.


4. List the freedoms guaranteed under the American Bill of Rights.

Critical Thinking

5. Analyzing Cause and Effect Why did the American colonies declare their independence from the British Empire? [CAIII.2]

6. Summarizing Information Use a chart like the one below to identify the significant events and conflicts that led to the American Revolution.

Conflicts Between British and Colonists

Analyzing Visuals

7. Examine the painting The March to Valley Forge on page 195. Use details from the painting to explain whether this artist sympathizes with the Patriots or Loyalists.

Writing About History

8. Expository Writing Do further research on how the French supported the colonies during the American Revolution. Then write an essay analyzing the importance of French assistance. [CAlOWS1.3]
Three influential Enlightenment authors wrote about how they thought progress should be recorded and maintained. Read about their eighteenth-century views on the triumphs of civilization.

**SOURCE 1: The Progress of Man**

Edward Gibbon (1737–1794) published the first volume of *The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* in 1776. Here, he celebrates how far mankind has progressed and his belief in future progress.

... [A] philosopher may be permitted ... to consider Europe as one great republic, whose various inhabitants have attained almost the same level of politeness and cultivation. ... The savage nations of the globe are the common enemies of civilized society; and we may inquire with anxious curiosity, whether Europe is still threatened with a repetition of those calamities which formerly oppressed the arms and institutions of Rome. ... 

... [From an] abject condition, perhaps the primitive and universal state of man, he has gradually arisen to command the animals, to fertilise the earth, to traverse the ocean, and to measure the heavens. His progress in the improvement and exercise of his mental and corporeal faculties has been irregular and various, infinitely slow in the beginning, and increasing by degrees with redoubled velocity. ... Yet the experience of four thousand years should enlarge our hopes, and diminish our apprehensions; we cannot determine to what height the human species may aspire in their advances towards perfection; but it may safely be presumed that no people, unless the face of nature is changed, will relapse into their original barbarism. ...

Since the first discovery of the arts, war, commerce, and religious zeal have diffused, among the savages of the Old and New World, those inestimable gifts: they have been successfully propagated; they can never be lost. We may therefore acquiesce in the pleasing conclusion that every age of the world has increased, and still increases, the real wealth, the happiness, the knowledge, and perhaps the virtue, of the human race.

**SOURCE 2: Encyclopédie**

The Encyclopédie was published under the direction of Denis Diderot (1713–1784) in 28 volumes. More than 140 writers contributed articles. In defining encyclopédie, Diderot focuses on why sharing knowledge is important to progress.

ENCYCLOPÉDIE, f. n. (Philosophy). This word means the interrelation of all knowledge. ... [T]he aim of an encyclopédie is to collect all the knowledge scattered over the face of the earth, to present its general outlines and structure to the men with whom we live, and to transmit this to those who will come after us, so that the work of past centuries may be useful to the following centuries, that our children, by becoming more educated, may at the same time become...
more virtuous and happier, and that we may not die without having deserved well of the human race.

It would be desirable for the government to authorize people to go into the factories and shops, to see the craftsmen at their work, to question them, to draw the tools, the machines, and even the premises.

... What is the good of divulging the knowledge a nation possesses, its private transactions, its inventions, its industrial processes, its resources, its trade secrets, its enlightenment, its arts, and all its wisdom? This is what they [narrow minds] say; and this is what they might add: would it not be desirable if, instead of enlightening the foreigner, we could spread darkness over him or even plunge all the rest of the world into barbarism so that we could dominate more securely over everyone? These people do not realize that they occupy only a single point on our globe and that they will endure only a moment in its existence. To this point and to this moment they would sacrifice the happiness of future ages and that of the entire human race.

SOURCE 3: The Social Contract

The Social Contract, published in 1762, is one of the most famous works of Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778). It argues that each person must enter into a contract with everyone in the community to secure freedom. In this excerpt, Rousseau explains the difference between the general will and the individual will.

... [T]he act of association consists of a reciprocal commitment between society and the individual, so that each person, in making a contract, as it were with himself, finds himself doubly committed, first as a member of the sovereign body in relation to individuals, and secondly as a member of the state in relation to the sovereign.

As soon as the multitude is united thus in a single body, no one can injure any one of the members without attacking the whole, still less injure the whole without each member feeling it. Duty and self-interest thus equally oblige the two contracting parties to give each other mutual aid; and the same men should seek to bring together in this dual relationship, all the advantages that flow from it.

For every individual as a man may have a private will contrary to, or different from, the general will that he has as a citizen. His private interest may speak with a very different voice from that of a public interest.

There is often a great difference between the will of all [what all individuals want] and the general will; the general will studies only the common interest while the will of all studies private interest, and is indeed no more than the sum of individual desires. But if we take away from these same wills, the pluses and minuses which cancel each other out, the sum of the difference is the general will.

From the deliberations of a people properly informed, and provided its members do not have any communication among themselves, the great number of small differences will always produce a general will and the decision will always be good.

5sovereign: supreme; principal

SOURCE 1: According to Gibbon, in what ways has “primitive man” progressed over time? What assures the author that this progress will continue?

SOURCE 2: Why does Diderot believe that knowledge should be collected and shared among all people? Which group does he think will especially benefit from this shared knowledge?

SOURCE 3: What is the difference between “general will” and “individual will”? Why does Rousseau claim the general will is always good?

Comparing and Contrasting Sources
1. What do both Gibbon and Diderot agree is a necessary duty of man to contribute to the happiness of the human race?
Reviewing Content Vocabulary

1. In the __________, power is shared between the national government and the state government.
2. The intellects, or thinkers, of the Enlightenment were generally called __________.
3. The doctrine that maintains that the state should not intervene in economics is called __________.
4. The belief that the monarch receives power directly from God is called __________.
5. John Locke believed people had certain __________ to life, liberty, and property.
6. Montesquieu believed that the government functioned through a __________, which allowed the branches of government to limit and control each other.
7. The first ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution, added to secure its ratification, are called the __________.
8. At the Constitutional Convention, the ineffective __________ were scrapped in order to create a new government.
9. According to Rousseau, through a __________, an entire society agrees to be governed by the general will.
10. Parliament abolished the monarchy and declared England a republic or __________.

Reviewing the Main Ideas

Section 1

23. What was the basic reason behind the Glorious Revolution?
24. Explain why Elizabeth demonstrated moderation in her religious policy.

Section 2

25. What was the Enlightenment?
26. List the primary occupations of the philosophes.

Section 3

27. What was the major accomplishment of the Second Continental Congress?
28. Explain the difference between French and British colonies.
Self-Check Quiz
Visit the Glencoe World History—Modern Times Web site at wh.mt.glencoe.com and click on Chapter 2–Self-Check Quiz to prepare for the Chapter Test.

Critical Thinking
29. Reading Skill Synthesizing Describe the connection between the principles of a limited monarchy, the U.S. Constitution, and the Enlightenment.

30. Summarizing Explain how separation of powers works in the American government today and give specific examples.

Writing About History
31. Historical Analysis Understanding Chronology Writing a separate paragraph for each example, trace how the relationships between the English Parliament and rulers changed, covering Henry VIII, Elizabeth I, Charles I, Oliver Cromwell, and James II.

32. Although Enlightenment thinkers disagreed over certain issues, they all focused on the themes of reason, natural law, and progress. Explain the influence of any of these themes on the Enlightenment.

33. Expository Writing Analyze how John Locke, Montesquieu, Rousseau, and Voltaire influenced the United States Constitution. Which thinker(s) had the most impact on the writers of the Constitution?

Analyzing Sources Read the following quote from John Locke’s Essay Concerning Human Understanding:

“Let us then suppose the mind to be, as we say, white paper, void of all character, without any ideas. How comes it to be furnished? Whence has it all the materials of reason and knowledge? To this I answer, in one word, from experience. . . . Our observation, employed either about external sensible objects or about the internal operations of our minds perceived and reflected on by ourselves, is that which supplies our understanding with all the materials of thinking.”

34. According to Locke, how did the blank mind become knowledgeable?

35. How did one gain the experience necessary to nurture the mind?

Analyzing Maps and Charts
Study the map above to answer the following questions.

36. After the Revolutionary War, what were the borders for the United States on the north? On the south? On the west?

37. What natural borders helped define the United States during this period?

38. How does the extent of the United States in 1783 compare to the extent of the United States today?

Standards Practice
Directions: Choose the best answer to the following question.

39. In England, the Glorious Revolution of 1688 led to
A the end of the Tudor reign.
B the end of Anglican influence in English political life.
C the dominance of Parliament in lawmaking.
D the restoration of the divine right of kings.

CA Standard 10.2.2 List the principles of the Magna Carta, the English Bill of Rights (1689), the American Declaration of Independence (1776), the French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (1789), and the U.S. Bill of Rights (1791).
Language not only allows us to communicate, it affects the way we think and even how we may view ourselves. It creates an identity for a community of people and shapes their experiences.

Today about 6,500 languages are spoken around the world. Hundreds of these will disappear in this century because younger generations no longer speak them. Others will be overpowered by the influence of English, a language that has spread through technology, global commerce, telecommunications, and tourism.

### Major World Languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language(s)</th>
<th>Native Speakers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese languages</td>
<td>1,198,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>322,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>341,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindi/Urdu</td>
<td>426,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bengali</td>
<td>207,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic languages</td>
<td>204,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>176,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>167,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>125,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>100,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>77,000,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

English Spoken Here

Old English (5th–11th Centuries)

If you were to travel back in time to visit Robin Hood, you would not be able to understand him. Even though you would both be speaking English, the language you speak has changed a great deal since the days of Robin and his merry men. Can you recognize any words from this old English conversation?

“Hast thu hafoc?”
Do you have a hawk?

“Ic habbe.”
I have.

“Canst thu temian hig?”
Do you know how to tame them?

“Gea, ic cann. Hwat sceoldon hig me buton ic cuthe temian hig?”
Yes, I do. What use would they be to me if I could not tame them?

—From a tenth-century lesson

Modern English (15th Century–Present)

Although you might find Shakespeare difficult to understand, his English is essentially the language that evolved into the way we speak and read today.

JULIET: How camest thou hither, tell me, and wherefore?
The orchard walls are high and hard to climb,
And the place death, considering who thou art,
If any of my kinsmen find thee here.

ROMEO: With love’s light wings did I o’er perch these walls,
For stony limits cannot hold love out,
And what love can do, that dares love attempt,
Therefore thy kinsmen are no stop to me.

—From Romeo and Juliet

Middle English (11th–15th Centuries)

Middle English evolved when the Normans conquered England, bringing their language, French, with them. Many different dialects of English were spoken, but the dialect spoken in London became dominant. Geoffrey Chaucer’s Canterbury Tales (1390) is an example.

In this viage shal telle tales tweye
To Caunterbury-ward I mene it so,
And homward he shal tellen othere two,
Of aventures that whilom han bifalle.

On this trip [you each] shall tell two tales
On the way to Canterbury,
And homeward [you] shall tell another two,
Of adventures that once had happened.

—From the Prologue of Canterbury Tales
How did writing begin? Early writing systems were derived from pictures. Every word would correspond to one or more symbols. For example, the word house might be written as a symbol that looked like a simplified house. Ancient Egyptian and Mayan hieroglyphics are examples.

The Phoenicians were among the first to develop an alphabet with characters that could be combined to make different sounds. The Greeks adapted it and passed it on to the Romans. The Roman alphabet is the alphabet most Western languages, such as English, use today.

How would you write “How are you?” to the people you meet around the world through the Internet?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Languages written from left to right</th>
<th>Languages written from right to left</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danish Hvordan gaar det?</td>
<td>Arabic كيف حاكم؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greek Πώς είσαι σήμερα?</td>
<td>Hebrew בש𝘵וזימורא?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindi आप कैसे हैं?</td>
<td>Persian چطور می‌توانید؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian Как поживаете?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish ¿Cómo está usted?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swahili Hujambo?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tagalog (Philippines) Kumusta po kayo?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai สบายดีหรือยัง</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese Anh (Chi) có khoe không?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Languages written from top to bottom:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Languages written from top to bottom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese 你好 worms?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese お元気ですか</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean 어勒결자나니요?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reading Chinese Characters

Chinese characters are combined in thousands of ways to make new words. In this example, when the character for tree is inserted into the character for box, you have a tree growing in a box, which is the character for “be in trouble.”

Here are some other Chinese words divided into their elements. See if you can figure out what these characters mean.

1. 火山 火山
   fire + mountain = ______

2. 林木 林木 林木 林木 林木
   tree + tree + tree + tree + tree = ______

EXAMPLE

木 环 困

tree + box = be in trouble
Disappearing Languages

Before World War II, it is estimated that over 11 million Jews spoke Yiddish, a language based on German, Hebrew, and other languages. Many Yiddish speakers were killed in the Holocaust. Children of Holocaust survivors often forgot the language or chose not to use it in their new homelands. Today, the number of Yiddish speakers is approximately 2 million, most of whom are elderly. When these people die, there will be few people left who speak the language, even though it is preserved in literature and oral records.

Many minority cultures around the world face the same problem. Often, these people live in areas that were once subjugated or conquered by other countries. The new rulers forced native peoples to adopt a new culture, often by prohibiting the use of the local language. In the United States, Native American children were frequently sent to boarding schools where they were forced to speak English and were punished if they spoke their own language. Not surprisingly, where there had once been hundreds of Native American languages, today there are only 175, and many of those will soon be extinct.

Fortunately, many struggling languages are making a comeback. In places like Ireland, northern Spain, and even Hawaii, schools are teaching traditional languages, and their usage is becoming widely accepted. Native Americans are also taking steps to revive their languages, as demonstrated by the Navajo newspaper at right. With language comes renewed interest in culture, and many ethnic groups who revive their language also find that they revive hope and self-worth within their people.

English As an International Language

Mahesh is an Indian who lives in Trinidad. His wife is from Venezuela. To communicate they speak English. He works for an international oil company where he conducts business worldwide in English. On TV he watches CNN news, and he enjoys going to American movies.

English was first spread through colonization. Though usually unwelcome, English eventually became a way of communicating between ethnic groups who shared a country but not a common language. In the late twentieth century, English became even more dominant as American language and culture spread through global business (think Coca-Cola and McDonald’s), media, and technology. The Israeli sign with English translations at left is an example of how English is being used worldwide.

Today, English is spoken in 115 countries as either the official language or as an important minority language. Although many people do not like it, the globalization of English has made communication and interaction between peoples easier. On the other hand, many smaller languages and cultures are being lost as the world becomes more homogeneous.