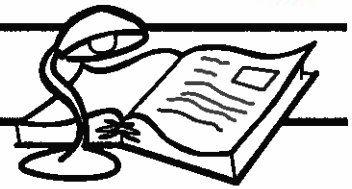


Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 3

For use with textbook pages 441–447

RESPONSE TO CRISIS: ABSOLUTISM

KEY TERMS

absolutism a system of government in which a ruler holds total power (page 441)

czar the Russian word for caesar, which became the title of the Russian rulers beginning with Ivan IV (page 445)

boyars the Russian nobility (page 446)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

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

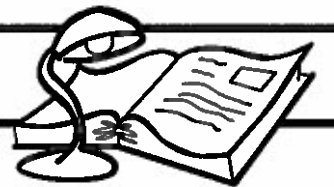
In the last section, you read about the wars, revolutions, and economic problems in Europe during the seventeenth century. In this section, you will learn how monarchs in certain countries gained absolute power during this time. One of these absolute monarchs, Peter the Great, even told people how they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

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

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

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

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• France Under Louis XIV (page 441)

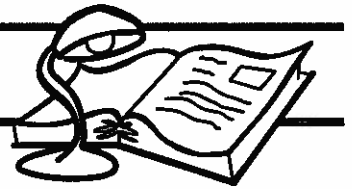
The reign of Louis XIV has been regarded as the best example of the practice of absolutism in the seventeenth century. **Absolutism** is a system in which a ruler holds total power. In seventeenth-century Europe, absolutism was tied to the idea of the divine right of kings. Absolute monarchs had tremendous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

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

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

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

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

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

7. What is absolutism?

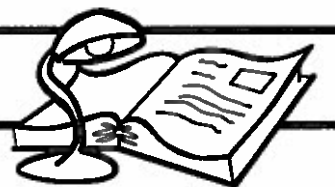
• Absolutism in Central and Eastern Europe (page 444)

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

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

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

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Chapter 14, Section 3 (continued)

• Russia Under Peter the Great (page 445)

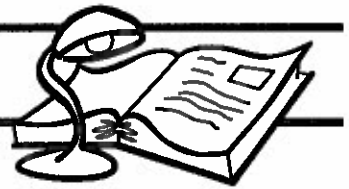
In the sixteenth century, Ivan IV became the first ruler to take the title of **czar**, the Russian word for caesar. Ivan expanded the territories of Russia eastward. He also crushed the power of the Russian nobility, known as the **boyars**. He was known as Ivan the Terrible because of his ruthless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

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

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

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

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 4

For use with textbook pages 448–451

THE WORLD OF EUROPEAN CULTURE

KEY TERMS

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

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

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

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

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

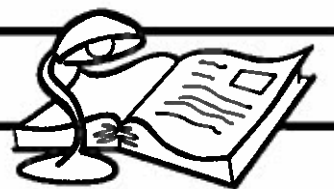
In the last three sections, you read about political, economic, and religious developments in Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In this section, you will learn about developments in art, literature, and political thought during this period. Two of the world's greatest writers, Shakespeare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

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

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

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

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)

READ TO LEARN

• Mannerism (page 448)

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

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

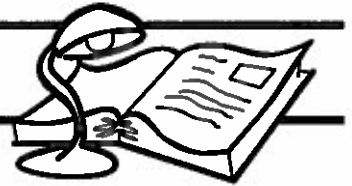
• The Baroque Period (page 449)

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

10. What effect did Baroque artists try to achieve?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide

Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)



• A Golden Age of Literature (page 449)

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

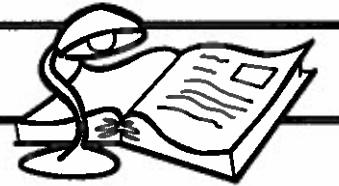
The theater also flourished in Spain. Every large town had a public playhouse, including Mexico City in the New World. Touring companies brought the latest Spanish plays to all parts of the Spanish Empire. Beginning in the 1580s, the standard for playwrights was set by Lope de Vega. He wrote an extraordinary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

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

• Political Thought (page 451)

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

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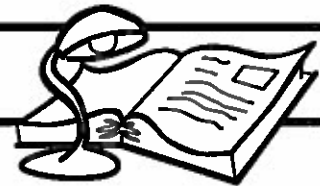


Chapter 14, Section 4 (continued)

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

12. What are "natural" rights?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 1

For use with textbook pages 457–463

THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

KEY TERMS

janissary a soldier in the Ottoman sultans' elite guard (page 458)

pasha a local official in the Ottoman empire, who collected taxes, maintained law and order, and was directly responsible to the sultan's court (page 459)

gunpowder empire an empire whose success was based largely on its mastery of the technology of firearms (page 460)

sultan the head of the Ottoman empire (page 460)

harem ("sacred place") the private domain of a sultan (page 461)

grand vizier a chief minister who led the meetings of the imperial council in the Ottoman Empire (page 461)

ulema a group of religious advisers in the Ottoman Empire who administered the legal system and the schools for educating Muslims (page 461)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

How is religious toleration guaranteed in the United States? Why do you think some people are not tolerant of religious beliefs that are different from their own?

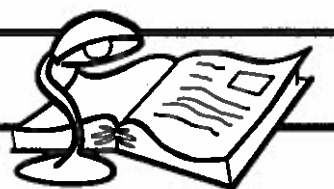
In this section, you will learn about the empire of the Ottoman Turks. Although the Ottomans were Sunni Muslims, they were generally tolerant of other religions in their empire.

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the chart below to help you take notes. List the areas that were conquered by the Ottoman rulers in this chart.

Ruler	Areas Conquered
Mehmet II	1.
Selim I	2.
Süleyman I	3.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 1 *(continued)*

READ TO LEARN

- **Rise of the Ottoman Turks** (*page 457*)

In the late thirteenth century, a new group of Turks began to build power in the northwest corner of the Anatolian Peninsula. The name of the leader of this group of Turks was Osman. As the Seljuk Empire began to decline in the early fourteenth century, the Osman Turks began to expand. This was the beginning of the Ottoman dynasty.

The Ottomans expanded westward and eventually controlled the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles. These two straits (narrow passageways) connect the Black Sea and the Aegean Sea. The Byzantine Empire had previously controlled this area. In the fourteenth century, the Ottoman Turks expanded into the Balkans. Ottoman rulers took the title of sultan and began to build a strong military by developing an elite guard called **janissaries**. The Ottomans also began to master firearms. The Ottomans defeated the Serbs at the Battle of Kosovo in 1389. During the 1930s, they took over Bulgaria.

4. What steps did the Ottomans take to build a strong military?

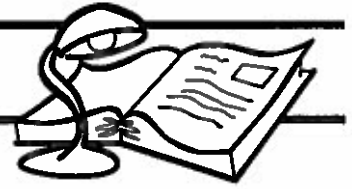
- **Expansion of the Empire** (*page 458*)

Under the leadership of Mehmet II, the Ottomans moved to end the Byzantine Empire. They attacked Constantinople. The Byzantines fought for almost two months to save their city, but the Ottomans finally conquered it. The Byzantine emperor died in the final battle. The Ottomans made Constantinople their capital. It was later renamed Istanbul. The Ottomans now dominated the Balkans and the Anatolian Peninsula. From 1514 to 1517, Sultan Selim I took control of Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Arabia. He now controlled several of the holy cities of Islam, including Jerusalem, Makkah, and Madinah. He declared himself to be the new caliph, defender of the Islamic faith and successor to Muhammad. Ottoman forces then moved westward along the African coast, eventually reaching almost to the Strait of Gibraltar. Where possible, the Ottomans preferred to administer their conquered lands through local rulers. The central government appointed officials, called **pashas**. The pashas collected taxes, maintained law and order, and were responsible to the sultan's court in Constantinople.

During the reign of Süleyman I, the Ottomans attacked Europe. They advanced up the Danube and seized Belgrade. In 1526, at the Battle of Mohacs on the Danube, they won a major victory over the Hungarians. The Ottomans

Reading Essentials and Study Guide

Chapter 15, Section 1 (continued)



then conquered most of Hungary, moved into Austria, and advanced as far as Vienna. They were defeated at Vienna in 1529. They also extended their power into the western Mediterranean until a large Ottoman fleet was destroyed by the Spanish at Lepanto in 1571. For the next hundred years, the Ottomans did not try to conquer any more of eastern Europe. In the second half of the seventeenth century, however, they again went on the offensive. By mid-1683, the Ottomans had marched through the Hungarian plain and attacked Vienna. But an army of Europeans forced them to retreat, and they were pushed out of Hungary. They would never again be a threat to central Europe.

5. How did the Ottomans prefer to administer their conquered territories?

• Nature of Ottoman Rule (page 460)

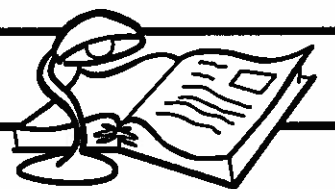
The Ottoman Empire is often called a “**gunpowder empire**.” Gunpowder empires were formed by outside conquerors who unified the regions that they conquered. The success of these empires was based mainly on the use of gunpowder and firearms.

At the head of the Ottoman system was the **sultan**. He was the supreme authority in both a political and a military sense. The position of sultan was hereditary. As the empire expanded, the status and prestige of the sultan increased. The sultan controlled his bureaucracy through an imperial council that met four days a week. A chief minister, known as the **grand vizier**, led the meetings of the council. The empire was divided into provinces and districts, each governed by officials. Senior officials were given land by the sultan. They were then responsible for collecting taxes and supplying armies for the empire.

The sultan became increasingly isolated in his palace. The private domain of the sultan was called the **harem** (“sacred place”). The sultan and his wives resided here. When a son became sultan, his mother became known as the queen mother and acted as a major adviser to the throne.

6. Why is the Ottoman Empire called a “gunpowder empire”?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 1 (continued)

• Religion in the Ottoman World (page 461)

The Ottomans were Sunni Muslims. The Ottoman sultans had claimed the title of caliph since the early sixteenth century. In theory, they were responsible for guiding the Muslims in their empire and maintaining Islamic law. In practice, they gave their religious duties to a group of religious advisers known as the **ulema**. The ulema administered the legal system and schools for educating Muslims.

The Ottoman system was generally tolerant of non-Muslims. Non-Muslims paid a tax, but they were allowed to practice their religion or to convert to Islam. Most people in the European areas of the empire remained Christian. In some areas, such as present-day Bosnia, many people converted to the Islamic faith.

7. How did the Ottomans treat non-Muslims in their empire?

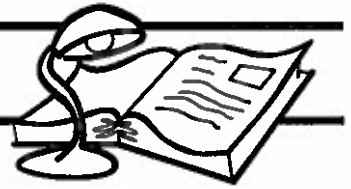
• Ottoman Society (page 462)

Ottomans were divided into groups by occupation. In addition to the ruling class, there were four main occupational groups: peasants, artisans, merchants, and pastoral peoples (nomadic herders). Except for the ruling class, merchants were the most privileged class in Ottoman society. They were largely exempt from government regulations and taxes and often amassed large fortunes.

Women in the Ottoman Empire had the same restrictions as women in other Muslim societies, but their position was somewhat better. Women were allowed to own and inherit property. They could not be forced into marriage. In certain cases, they were permitted to seek divorce. A few women even served as senior officials, such as governors of provinces.

8. In what ways did women in the Ottoman Empire have a better legal position than women in other Muslim societies?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 1 (continued)

• Problems in the Ottoman Empire (page 462)

The Ottoman Empire reached its high point under Süleyman the Magnificent, who ruled from 1520 to 1566. After the death of Süleyman, sultans became less involved in government and allowed their ministers to exercise more power. Senior positions were given to the sons or daughters of the elite. Members of the elite soon formed a privileged group seeking wealth and power. The central bureaucracy became less connected with rural areas. As a result, local officials grew corrupt, and taxes rose.

Officials and merchants began to imitate the habits and lifestyles of Europeans. They wore European clothes, bought Western furniture and art objects, and ignored Muslim rules against the drinking of alcohol. Both coffee and tobacco were introduced into Ottoman society in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

9. How did the government of the Ottoman Empire change after the death of Süleyman?

• Ottoman Art (page 463)

During the period from Mehmet II to the early eighteenth century, the arts flourished in the Ottoman Empire. The sultans were enthusiastic patrons of the arts. By far the greatest contribution of the Ottoman Empire to world art was in architecture. The mosques of the last half of the sixteenth century were magnificent. In the mid-sixteenth century, the greatest of all Ottoman architects, Sinan, began building the first of his 81 mosques. One of Sinan's masterpieces was the Suleimaniye Mosque in Istanbul.

Textiles and rugs also flourished during the sixteenth century. Factories produced silks for wall hangings, sofa covers, and especially court costumes. Rugs were a peasant industry. The rugs were made of wool and cotton. Different regions had their own distinctive designs and color schemes.

10. What art forms flourished during the Ottoman Empire?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 2

For use with textbook pages 468–471

THE RULE OF THE SAFAVIDS

KEY TERMS

shah the title used by Safavid rulers (page 469)

orthodoxy conforming to traditional religious beliefs (page 469)

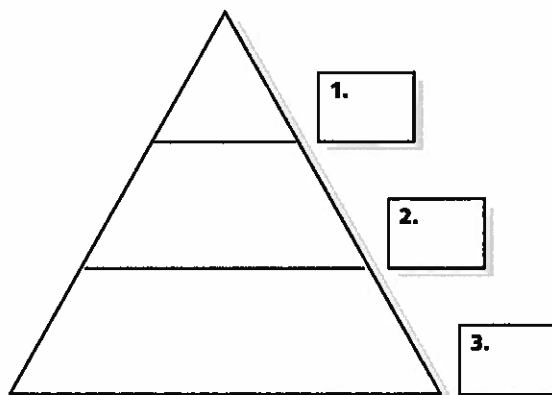
anarchy lawlessness and disorder (page 470)

DRAWING FROM EXPERIENCE

Have you ever seen a Persian rug? How are Persian rugs different from other rugs or carpets? Why do you think they are so valuable?

ORGANIZING YOUR THOUGHTS

Use the pyramid diagram below to help you take notes. Show the hierarchy of the Safavid political system.

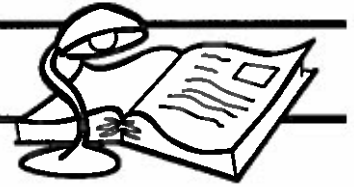


READ TO LEARN

• Rise of the Safavid Dynasty (page 468)

After the empire of Timur Lenk (Tamerlane) ended in the early fifteenth century, Persia fell into **anarchy** (lawlessness and disorder). At the beginning of the sixteenth century, a new dynasty took control. This dynasty was known as the Safavids. Ismail, who was the descendant of an earlier leader named Safi al-Din, founded it. (The word *Safavid* comes from his name.) In 1501, Ismail seized much of what is now Iran and Iraq. He then called himself the **shah**, or king, of a new Persian state.

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 2 (continued)

The Safavids were devout Shiite Muslims. Ismail sent Shiite preachers into Anatolia to convert members of Turkish tribes in the Ottoman Empire. He also ordered the massacre of Sunni Muslims when he conquered Baghdad in 1508. The Ottoman sultan, Selim I, was alarmed and attacked the Safavids in Persia. He won a major battle near Tabriz, but a few years later, Ismail regained Tabriz. Like the Ottoman sultan, the shah claimed to be the spiritual leader of all Islam. In the 1580s, the Ottomans again attacked. They gained control of Azerbaijan and the Caspian Sea. This forced the new Safavid shah, Abbas, to sign a peace treaty in which he lost much territory.

4. Why did the Ottomans attack the Safavids?

• Glory and Decline (page 469)

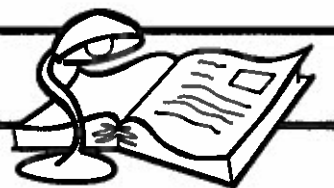
Under Shah Abbas, who ruled from 1588 to 1629, the Safavids reached their high point. In the early seventeenth century, Shah Abbas moved against the Ottomans to regain lost territories. In 1612, a peace treaty was signed that returned Azerbaijan to the Safavids.

After the death of Shah Abbas in 1629, the Safavid dynasty gradually declined. Most of his successors did not have the same talent and political skills. The power of Shiite religious groups began to increase. The pressure to conform to traditional religious beliefs, called religious **orthodoxy**, also increased. Persian women were now forced into seclusion and were required to adopt the wearing of the veil.

During the reign of Shah Hussein in the early eighteenth century, Afghan peoples invaded and seized the capital of Isfahan. The Safavid ruling family was forced to retreat to Azerbaijan. The Turks took advantage of the situation to seize territories along the western border. Persia sank into a long period of political and social **anarchy**.

5. During what period was the Safavid dynasty at its height?

Reading Essentials and Study Guide



Chapter 15, Section 2 (continued)

• Political and Social Structures (page 470)

Persia under the Safavids was a mixed society. The Safavids had come to power with the support of nomadic Turkish groups, but the majority of the people were Persian. Most of them were farmers or townspeople. The combination of Turkish and Persian elements affected nearly all aspects of Safavid society.

The Safavid political system was organized in the shape of a pyramid. The shah was at the top, the bureaucracy and landed classes were in the middle, and the common people were at the bottom.

The Safavid rulers were supported by Shiites. The Shiites believed that the founder of the empire (Shah Ismail) was a direct successor of the prophet Muhammad. The shahs declared Shia Islam to be the state religion. The shahs were more available to their subjects than other rulers were. Appointment to senior positions in the bureaucracy was based on merit rather than birth. To avoid competition between Turkish and non-Turkish people, Shah Abbas hired a number of foreigners for positions in his government.

The shahs played an active role in trade and manufacturing. There was also a large urban middle class involved in trade. Most goods traveled by horse or camel caravans. The government provided resting places for travelers. In times of strong rulers, the roads were kept fairly clear of thieves and bandits.

6. In what way was Persia under the Safavids a mixed society?

• Safavid Culture (page 471)

The arts flourished during the reign of Shah Abbas from 1588 to 1629. The capital of Isfahan was built by Shah Abbas. It was a planned city with wide spaces and a sense of order. Silk weaving based on new techniques also flourished. So did carpet weaving. There was a great demand for Persian carpets in the West. Persian painting during this period featured soft colors and flowing movement. Riza-i-Abbasi was the most famous artist of this period. He created beautiful works on simple subjects, such as oxen plowing, hunters, and lovers.

7. What art forms flourished in the Safavid Era?
