

### 1: Greater Germanic Reich - Wikipedia

*The Netherlands (Concluded), and the History of the Germanic Empire: The Historians' History of the World Volume 14 [Various, Henry Smith Williams LLD] on www.enganchecubano.com \*FREE\* shipping on qualifying offers.*

Introduction Hello, and welcome to the History of the Dutch Empire. Here we will cover the history of the Dutch colonies, as well as the Netherlands itself. I encourage anyone to contribute, as many sections currently do not cover enough material. So any help would be appreciated, particularly with my spelling which is not that good. It is important to note that not all of these territories were held at once. Pre-Independence Origins of an Empire Oath of Abjuration, the Dutch declaration of Independence The coastal provinces of Holland and Zeeland had for a long time prior to Spanish rule been important hubs of the European maritime trade network. Their geographical location provided convenient access to the markets of France, Germany, England and the Baltic. Efficient access to capital enabled the Dutch in the s to extend their trade networks beyond northern Europe to new markets in the Mediterranean and the Levant. In the s, Dutch ships began to trade with Brazil and the Gold Coast of Africa, and towards the Indian Ocean and the source of the lucrative spice trade. This brought the Dutch into direct competition with Portugal, which had dominated these trade networks for several decades, and had established colonial outposts on the coasts of Brazil, Africa and the Indian Ocean to facilitate them. The rivalry with Portugal, however, was not entirely economic: By attacking Portuguese overseas possessions, the Dutch forced Spain to divert financial and military resources away from its attempt to quell Dutch independence. Thus this began the Dutch-Portuguese War, which would last until the s. The first fleet sailed in and returned in with a cargo of pepper, which more than covered the costs of the voyage. The success of these voyages led to the founding of a number of companies competing for the trade. The Rise of the Dutch Dutch Revolt One need not hope in order to undertake, nor succeed in order to persevere. Initially the Spanish repressed the Protestants, but eventually the local officials tolerated them. At the time the Protestants only formed a minority. Taxation The Dutch provinces were always a very wealthy region. Under Charles V the Habsburg empire became a worldwide empire with large American and European territories. Due to the wealth of the Dutch, they were taxed heavily, to defend the Habsburg possessions in Europe. Charles, despite his harsh actions, had been seen as a ruler empathetic to the needs of the Netherlands. As soon as Philip became King, he began to suppress Protestantism by sending Spanish Troops, and imposing heavy taxes onto the Dutch. In an effort to build a stable and trustworthy government in the Netherlands, Philip appointed several members of the high nobility of the Netherlands to the States General, the governing body of the seventeen Netherlands. Petitions to King Philip by the high nobility went unanswered. This relatively small incident spread North and led to a massive iconoclastic movement by Calvinists, who stormed churches and other religious buildings to desecrate and destroy statues and images of Catholic saints all over the Netherlands. The Calvinists said that they were idols. As the nobles began to turn against Spain, Philip realized he had lost control of the Dutch. Alba took terrible measures against the Dutch and quickly established his own court. Over one thousand people were executed in the following months, even nobles who tolerated Protestantism were not safe. The large number of executions led the court to be nicknamed the "Blood Court" in the Netherlands, and Alba to be called the "iron duke". Rather than pacifying the Netherlands, these measures helped to fuel the unrest. After the arrival of Alba he was forced to flee, and his lands were forfeited to the Spanish king. However, he returned in , and attempted to drive Alba out of Brussels. William said he remained loyal to Philip, but thought Alba was a misguided minister. William would continue to be the leader of the revolt for the remainder of his life. Today, he is still remembered in the Netherlands, as "Vader des Vaderlands" which in English means "Father of the Fatherland". Another Uprising By the Spanish had more or less suppressed the rebellion throughout the Netherlands. It was also a year of disaster. It wiped away most of the dykes and killed thousands. There was little help from the authorities. On the contrary, in an attempt to finance the Spanish Army against the Ottoman Empire, Alba proposed the "Tenth Penny", a 10 per cent levy on all sales other than landed property. At first it was rejected by the States, but soon after a compromise was agreed upon. Catholics and Protestants protested together against this Tenth

Penny, in vain. A band of Geuzen, licensed pirates, led mostly by dispossessed members of the lower gentry that had lost their welcome in English ports, attacked and captured the coastal town of Brill on April first. They were welcomed as heroes, particularly by the Protestants. Members of the Catholic clergy did not fare as well. This was the first permanent foothold for the Dutch in the War. Notable exceptions were Amsterdam and Middelburg, which would remain loyal to the Catholic cause until William the Silent was put at the head of the revolt. In an attempt to encourage the people to revolt against Spain, William converted to Calvinism, as the Calvinists wanted above all other religions, to revolt. The response The rebellion was still limited to what, in the Burgundian-Habsburg Netherlands, were considered provinces of lesser importance. The rich provinces of Flanders and Brabant, with their ports and textile industry, remained quiet. This allowed the Spanish to attempt to quell the new rebellion. This proved a tedious and expensive process in the marshy lowlands. Naarden fell and its population was decimated. In , Alba attempted to take the city of Alkmaar to the north, but he failed. Leyden to the south also withstood the Spanish onslaught. De Requesens, however, did not manage to broker a policy acceptable to both the Spanish king and the Netherlands when he died in early Spain was forced to declare bankruptcy and the Spanish troops, angered and unpaid, sacked Antwerp, leaving some 8, dead. This pierced the heart of the body politic. The rich merchants of Antwerp who had politely refused to take any political action so far did not like marauding soldiers invading their houses. They used their influence to do what the absentee king least of all wanted: The States General convened and decided to do what they had always refused to do for the king: Their efforts reunited the provinces in what is known as the Pacification of Ghent. The king was furious because losing control to the parliament was the last thing he wanted. He sent an ultimatum to submit to his control immediately and a fresh army from Spain to underline his resolve. Independence and Partition On January 6, , prompted by the new Spanish governor Alexander Farnese and upset by the aggressive Calvinism of the Northern States, some of the Southern States, the so-called Walloon Flanders located in what is now France and Wallonia, signed the Union of Arras, expressing their loyalty to the Spanish king. In response to the treaty, William united the northern states of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Guelders and the province of Groningen in the Union of Utrecht on January 23, The 17 provinces of the Netherlands were now divided and this partition into what is now the Netherlands and Belgium would prove permanent, despite a brief and emphatically unsuccessful attempt at reunification from William would be succeeded as leader of the rebellion by his son Maurice of Nassau, Prince of Orange, but the question about the political structure and the leadership of the rebellious Union remained unsettled for a long time In the late 16th century, it was not conceivable that a country could be governed by anyone but high nobility, if not a king, so the States General tried to find a suitable replacement for Philip. They asked Queen Elizabeth of England, but she declined the offer. On July 26, the Oath of Abjuration was issued, in which the Netherlands proclaimed that the King of Spain had not upheld his responsibilities to the Netherlands population and would therefore no longer be accepted as rightful king. A few years later, in , Elizabeth agreed to aid the Dutch, but as no one would be their king, the rebellious provinces decided for a rather unlikely option at the time: Many nations recognized the fledgling country shortly after, including France and England. Ghent fell and all of its Protestants fled north. In the Spanish succeeded in capturing Antwerp. They may have believed they had won the war with that, but they allowed most of the merchants to leave, not realizing that without the people who made the trade work all they conquered were brick and stone. The merchants soon set up shop in Amsterdam. Meanwhile Spain had gained control over Portugal and what had been the major port for colonial goods: The merchants of the rebellious Netherlands therefore had no choice but to find ways to acquire the precious spices themselves as they were no longer welcome in Lisbon. They cooperated to raise enough capital for such a risky venture. To do so they developed instruments like shareholdership and insurance. The result was that the rebellious provinces rapidly developed into a merchant dominated oligarchy driven by colonial enterprise based on capitalist -rather than government controlled- principles. Dutch colonial enterprise was very profitable and quickly made it financially impossible for the Spanish to reconquer the lost provinces, although they would persist until in trying. However the Dutch model of colonial enterprise also had its drawbacks. Many decisions were strictly based on short-term bottom-line considerations. For example, when Mauritius -unsettled until the Dutch took it- suffered damage from a typhoon the island was simply

abandoned because the leadership of the VOC did not deem it profitable to restore the damage. Few on the island speak Dutch today. International involvement Both England and France had followed the developments in the Netherlands with a keen eye. After all Spain was the sole superpower of its day, but one that seemed rather mired in Dutch peat and clay. After finding out about English support for the Dutch in , Philip ordered the Spanish Armada to invade England, the mission failed and the Spanish navy was crippled. Under financial and military pressure, in , Philip ceded the Netherlands to his favorite daughter Isabella and to her husband, his nephew Archduke Albert of Austria. Around this time, Maurice, son of William, launched a number of campaigns and over the next 12 years captured the cities of Breda , Zutphen, Deventer, Delfzijl and Nijmegen , Steenwijk, Coevorden Geertruidenberg Groningen Grol, Enschede, Ootmarsum, Oldenzaal and Grave It was during this time when the fighting had left the heart of the republic, that the Dutch advanced into their Golden Age. This resulted in the 12 Years Truce. It was during this ceasefire the Dutch made great efforts to build their navy, which was later to have a crucial bearing on the course of the war. Negotiations for a permanent peace went on throughout the truce. Two major issues could not be resolved.

### 2: Germany and France declare war on each other - HISTORY

*The historians' history of the world; a comprehensive narrative of the rise and development of nations as recorded by over two thousand of the great writers of all ages: by Williams, Henry Smith,*

The History of Phoenicia is based chiefly upon the following authorities: Starting with the origins of the people of Phoenicia , this section documents their rise to maritime supremacy under Hiram I and his successors, Phoenicia under the Persians and Greeks the history of Carthage and its decline with the Punic Wars. The History of Western Asia is stated in the front matter as being based chiefly upon the following authorities: Sayce , Albert Socin , Charles W. Quickly detailing the story of the Hittites , it moves on to the Scythians , and Cimmerians , the Lydians and a handful of other peoples of the ancient near east. The History of Ancient India gives in its front matter the following authorities from which it is chiefly derived: In three chapters, a brief overview of the early Hindus, the Vedas , the Brahmins , up to a description of the rise of Buddhism. The History of Ancient Persia is based chiefly upon the following authorities: Heeren, Herodotus , G. Row of Hoplites - headpiece ornament for Chapter XV: The First Foreign Invasion. Greece to the Roman conquest[ edit ] Satyr sitting in a tree and playing pipes - tailpiece ornament for Chapter LV: The Conquest of India. The Last Days of the Republic. The cover matter states Part X: Beginning with the early legends of the Founding of Rome and of the Roman Kingdom , it quickly proceeds to the Roman Republic , its development and rise to supremacy via its wars Punic Wars , Samnite Wars , Macedonian Wars , the Roman conquest of Italy and moves on to the final days of the Republic, the reforms of Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus , as well as those of Gaius Marius and his civil wars with Sulla following the Jugurthine War in Africa on to the rise of Pompey and his war against Julius Caesar , the Catiline conspiracy , and ultimately the Crisis of the Roman Republic and its fall. Continuing Part X directly from the preceding volume, this volume begins with Augustus and goes up to the Fall of the Western Roman Empire in The History of the Later Roman Empire states that, along with over 75 additional authors, the work is based chiefly upon the following authorities: Agathias , Appian , Augustan History , J. Beginning with the reign of Arcadius in , Book I: The Scope and Influence of Arabic History.

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On January 23, 1516, his grandfather, Ferdinand of Aragon, died. Thus he was to rule Spain as King Charles I, jointly with his mother. Charles V viewed with apprehension the rapid growth of the French monarchy. The French king surrendered his claims on Naples but kept Milan. As a result, Charles V was now in possession of immense domains in Central, Western, and Southern Europe, as well as the Spanish colonies in the Americas. On October 31, Luther had nailed his ninety-five theses on the door of the church at Wittenberg. In December he publicly burnt the Papal Bull of excommunication, and in the following year appeared before the Diet of Worms. The German Reformation began, causing the division of Germany into two religious camps. On the conclusion of the council of Worms, he had to suppress the revolt of the Communes of Castile against the Habsburg rule. Charles managed to speedily restore order, and, after securing an alliance with England against France, he dispatched a Spanish army under Pescara into Italy. Charles de Bourbon, who was deprived of his inheritance by his cousin, the French king, joined Charles V as a distinguished commander. Pope Adrian was completely under Charles V control, but his successor, Clement VII, tried to hold the balance between the emperor and France, while the Italian states also feared the Emperor power more than the French influence. The French under the Vicomte de Lautrec, aided by Swiss mercenaries, were, consequently, enabled to take firm footing in Italy. Pescara was threatened, when George von Frundsberg and his German Lancers unexpectedly came to his rescue across the Veltlin, and, in 1529, at the Battle of Bicocca, Lautrec was defeated and forced to leave Lombardy, leaving the Duchy of Milan in the possession of Charles V. Frundsberg took Genoa by storm, but Marseilles made a steady resistance. Twelve thousand of the Lancers were lost to pestilence and famine during the futile siege. The glorious victory, however, exposed the emperor to fresh danger, as Europe became increasingly worried about his growing power. France took up arms for her captive monarch, and Charles V concluded peace with his prisoner at Madrid in 1526. Pescara dying, Charles de Bourbon became generalissimo of the imperial forces in Italy. Fresh reinforcements were granted by the German protestant princes at the diet held at Spires in 1526, who in exchange were allowed freedom of conscience. The death of Charles de Bourbon, killed by a shot from within the walls of Rome, enraged the Imperial soldiery, who stormed the city in 1527. The pillage lasted fourteen days. Clement was besieged in the Torre di San Angelo and taken prisoner. The numbers of unburied bodies, however, produced a pandemic which chased away the greater part of the invaders. The French again invaded Italy, and regained Genoa. For Charles personally, they were the region where he spent his childhood. Because of trade, industry and the rich cities, they were important for the treasury. Charles V also sought to ensure that the Reformation will never succeed there as it did in Germany, by issuing severe laws sentencing the heretics to the stake. The rebellion of Ghent was the most violent episode of the reign of Charles in the Netherlands. In essence, the rebellion was caused by resistance to taxation. While three of the four members or quarters of Flanders accepted, Ghent rudely refused. Mary responded by arresting any citizen of Ghent found in Brussels and Antwerp, holding them responsible for their city debt. The revolt started in the summer of 1566. The citizens of Ghent were very confident, the city was well fortified, it was wealthy, the guilds were well armed. But its people forgot that Ghent was also the birth place of Charles V. Here he also received a delegation from Ghent, and its members were informed that Charles will make an example of the city. Not a single shot was fired from its new guns, and Charles entered Ghent on February 17, 1566. The Netherlands regular horse, and German landsknechts occupied the town. The leaders of the movement were arrested, and nine of them were executed. Ghent was declared guilty of disobedience, rebellion and high treason. The magistrates and their staff were humiliated, as they had to appear before the Emperor, bareheaded, clad in black and girt with cords. Members of the revolted guilds were to appear in shirts and with ropes around their necks, and pray the Emperor and the queen for mercy. In 1563, Charles issued a Pragmatic Sanction, declaring the Low Countries to be a unified entity of which his family would be the heirs. Charles V fought constantly with the Ottoman Empire under Suleiman the Magnificent, who was attacking the

## V. 14. THE NETHERLANDS (CONCLUDED), THE GERMANIC EMPIRES. pdf

Mediterranean coasts and endangered Western trade in the Mediterranean region. He merely considered Charles V as the King of Spain only. The Ottoman advance was halted at Vienna in 1529. In May Charles sailed from Barcelona, and captured Tunis. After a peace treaty with Charles V in 1530, Francis allied again with the Ottomans. The alliance, and the destruction of Nice, roused the indignation of Europe. Charles V died on 21 September from malaria.

### 4: The historians' history of the world ( edition) | Open Library

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Paleolithic Europe , Neolithic Europe , and Bronze Age Europe Oak figurine found in Willemstad BCE The prehistory of the area that is now the Netherlands was largely shaped by the sea and the rivers that constantly shifted the low-lying geography. The oldest human Neanderthal traces were found in higher soils, near Maastricht , from what is believed to be about , years ago. From Mesolithic Maglemosian-like tribes c. Bronze Age cultures in the Netherlands. Indigenous late Mesolithic hunter-gatherers from the Swifterbant culture c. There was a quick and smooth transition from the Funnelbeaker farming culture to the pan-European Corded Ware pastoralist culture c. Although in the southwest, the Seine-Oise-Marne culture related Vlaardingen culture c. Of the subsequent Bell Beaker culture 4500 BC several regions of origin have been postulated, notably the Iberian peninsula, the Netherlands and Central Europe. The many finds in Drenthe of rare bronze objects, suggest that it was even a trading centre in the Bronze Age 4500 BC. The initial phase of the Elp culture was characterised by tumuli 4500 BC that were strongly tied to contemporary tumuli in northern Germany and Scandinavia, and were apparently related to the Tumulus culture in central Europe. The subsequent phase was that of cremating the dead and placing their ashes in urns which were then buried in fields, following the customs of the Urnfield culture 4500 BC. The southern region became dominated by the related Hilversum culture 4500 BC , which apparently inherited cultural ties with Britain of the previous Barbed-Wire Beaker culture. Expansion into the southern Low Countries by BC. Iron ore brought a measure of prosperity, and was available throughout the country, including bog iron. Smiths travelled from settlement to settlement with bronze and iron, fabricating tools on demand. The deteriorating climate in Scandinavia around BC, that further deteriorated around BC, might have triggered migration of Germanic tribes from the North. By the time this migration was complete, around BC, a few general cultural and linguistic groups had emerged. They would later develop into the Frisii and the early Saxons. This group consisted of tribes that would eventually develop into the Salian Franks. Some scholars have speculated that even a third ethnic identity and language, neither Germanic nor Celtic, survived in the Netherlands until the Roman period, the Iron Age Nordwestblock culture, [42] [43] that eventually was being absorbed by the Celts to the south and the Germanic peoples from the east. Notable towns would arise along the Limes Germanicus: The area to the north of the Rhine, inhabited by the Frisii, remained outside Roman rule but not its presence and control , while the Germanic border tribes of the Batavi and Cananefates served in the Roman cavalry. The Batavi later merged with other tribes into the confederation of the Salian Franks, whose identity emerged at the first half of the third century. They were forced by the confederation of the Saxons from the east to move over the Rhine into Roman territory in the fourth century. Roman forces pacified the region, but did not expel the Franks, who continued to be feared at least until the time of Julian the Apostate , when Salian Franks were allowed to settle as foederati in Toxandria. Coastal lands remained largely unpopulated for the next two centuries. By the 5th century, Clovis I had conquered and united all these territories in the southern Netherlands in one Frankish kingdom , and from there continued his conquests into Gaul. During this expansion, Franks migrating to the south eventually adopted the Vulgar Latin of the local population. By the seventh century a Frisian Kingdom 600 under King Aldegisel and King Redbad emerged with Utrecht as its centre of power, [48] [49] while Dorestad was a flourishing trading place. In 734, at the Battle of the Boarn , the Frisians were defeated after a series of wars. He established the Archdiocese of Utrecht and became bishop of the Frisians. However, his successor Boniface was murdered by the Frisians in Dokkum , in Rorik of Dorestad , Viking ruler of Friesland romantic depiction Lotharingia after with the language border dotted in red The Frankish Carolingian empire modeled itself after the Roman Empire and controlled much of Western Europe. However, as of 843, it was divided into three parts 843 East , Middle , and West Francia. Most of present-day Netherlands became part of Middle Francia , which was a weak kingdom and subject of numerous partitions and annexation attempts by its stronger neighbours. It comprised territories from Frisia in the north to the Kingdom of Italy in the south.

After he died in 843, Lotharinga was partitioned, into Upper and Lower Lotharinga, the latter part comprising the Low Countries that technically became part of East Francia in 855, although it was effectively under the control of Vikings, who raided the largely defenceless Frisian and Frankish towns lying on the Frisian coast and along the rivers. The Viking raids made the sway of French and German lords in the area weak. Resistance to the Vikings, if any, came from local nobles, who gained in stature as a result, and that laid the basis for the disintegration of Lower Lotharinga into semi-independent states. One of these local nobles was Gerolf of Holland, who assumed lordship in Frisia after he helped to assassinate Godfrid, and Viking rule came to an end. High Middle Ages [ edit ] Main article: History of urban centers in the Low Countries The Holy Roman Empire the successor state of East Francia and then Lotharinga ruled much of the Low Countries in the 10th and 11th century, but was not able to maintain political unity. Powerful local nobles turned their cities, counties and duchies into private kingdoms, that felt little sense of obligation to the emperor. Holland, Hainaut, Flanders, Gelre, Brabant, and Utrecht were in a state of almost continual war or paradoxically formed personal unions. The language and culture of most of the people who lived in the County of Holland were originally Frisian. The rest of Frisia in the north now Friesland and Groningen continued to maintain its independence and had its own institutions collectively called the "Frisian freedom" and resented the imposition of the feudal system. Around AD 1000, due to several agricultural developments, the economy started to develop at a fast pace, and the higher productivity allowed workers to farm more land or to become tradesmen. Towns grew around monasteries and castles, and a mercantile middle class began to develop in these urban areas, especially in Flanders and later also Brabant. Wealthy cities started to buy certain privileges for themselves from the sovereign. In practice, this meant that Brugge and Antwerp became quasi-independent republics in their own right and would later develop into some of the most important cities and ports in Europe. Around AD 1200, farmers from Flanders and Utrecht began draining and cultivating uninhabited swampy land in the western Netherlands, and made the emergence of the County of Holland as centre of power possible. Hoekse en Kabeljauwse twisten between and The Cod faction consisted of the more progressive cities, while the Hook faction consisted of the conservative noblemen. Burgundian and Spanish Habsburg Netherlands [ edit ].

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The German Empire was founded on January 18, 1871, in the aftermath of three successful wars by the North German state of Prussia. Within a seven-year period Denmark, the Habsburg monarchy, and France were vanquished in short, decisive conflicts. The Schleswig-Holstein question, which had threatened the balance of power in northern Europe for more than a decade, took on a new dimension with the cession of Schleswig and Holstein to Prussia. The liberals in the parliament had a reduced majority, and they were now split in their attitude to Prime Minister Otto von Bismarck; his success had shaken their liberal principles. The moderates broke away from the Progressives Deutsche Fortschrittspartei to form the National Liberal Party, a party in which liberalism was subordinated to nationalism. Bismarck, on his side, made a conciliatory gesture by asking for an act of indemnity for the unconstitutional collection of taxes since the beginning of the parliamentary struggle with Prussian King William I in 1862. This act was passed on September 3, 1867, by a vote of 313 to 222. It was a decisive step in German history. Instead of a struggle for power, there was henceforth compromise. The capitalist middle classes ceased to demand control of the state, and the crown and the Junker governing class conducted the state in a way which suited middle-class needs and outlook. However, the decision of September 3, 1867, was not undone, and Germany did not become a constitutional monarchy. He also dreaded the possibility of inflammation of radical feeling in a unitary German state. Therefore he tried to change as little as possible, and the North German Confederation which he created in 1867 had curious echoes of the Austrian-dominated German Confederation which had vanished in 1806. Indeed, Bismarck still thought of German unification as primarily an affair of foreign policy: German interests could best be represented by a single, united power abroad. However, since this domination was exercised in the interests of conservatism, he expected little change. The federal constitution which he hastily drafted early in 1868 was not a sham. It contained genuine federal guarantees for the individual states. Nevertheless, it was a pretense in that the reality on which it rested was not federal. A federation must be an association of states more or less equal in power. In the North German Confederation, Prussia overshadowed the other parties so decisively that Prussian will was always likely to prevail. The federal constitution was adopted by the North German Reichstag on April 17, 1868. Four years later it became, almost without change, the constitution of the German Empire. Two principles were balanced against each other—the sovereignty of the German states and the national unity of the German people. In constitutional theory the first carried the day. The Bundesrat Federal Council, its members nominated by the state governments, initiated laws, conducted the federal government, and could alter the constitution by a two-thirds majority. Prussia, which had 17 members out of 43, could thus veto any constitutional change. The king of Prussia, as president of the federation, nominated the chancellor, who was to carry out federal affairs under the direction of the Bundesrat. The Reichstag, on the other hand, elected by direct universal manhood suffrage, was strictly limited to legislative activities. There was no provision by which it could interfere with the activities of the federal government. Yet, despite these provisions, the Bundesrat soon lost all importance, and the German government became as much in need of a parliamentary majority as if Germany were a thoroughly liberal state. The federal element counted for more in the sphere of administration, where there was a real division of duties. The federal authority controlled foreign affairs, the army, and economic affairs, and there was to be a single judicial system and a single legal code. The states conducted ordinary administration and remained in control of educational and religious matters. In July 1870 Bismarck offered to all German states a new customs union on condition that they accepted a customs parliament. As this parliament was to consist of the members of the North German Reichstag with members from southern Germany added, this was, in essence, a way of smuggling in German unity by a side door. The North German Confederation was regarded by many, including Bismarck, as a halfway house to German unification which would stand for a long time. Indeed, between 1867 and 1871 the movement for German unity lost ground in southern Germany. Luxembourg had been a member of the old confederation, and a Prussian

garrison still remained there. Napoleon III proposed to buy the grand duchy from its ruler, the king of the Netherlands. The response was an outcry in Germany and questions in the Reichstag. Bismarck felt that no essentially German issue was at stake and probably held too that Prussia was not ready for a new war. There was an uproar in Germany and other European powers protested. After a conference in London, Luxembourg became an independent neutral state with its fortifications dismantled. Thereafter Napoleon sought more actively for an alliance with Austria but without effect. Early in Bismarck made a move against France which has been variously interpreted. Bismarck hinted unofficially to the provisional rulers of Spain that they should offer the throne to Prince Leopold von Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, a member of the Roman Catholic branch of the Hohenzollern family. It has been argued that Bismarck gave this advice in order to provoke France into war and that he was driven to do so by the trend of opinion hostile to Prussia in southern Germany. There is little evidence for this. It is just as likely that he promoted the candidature to increase the prestige of the Hohenzollern dynasty or to keep out some rival prince. At all events, he could not have foreseen the folly of the French government, which deliberately forced a crisis when it had already received satisfaction. They were to know nothing until Prince Leopold was actually elected. There were wild protests in Paris and an immediate demand that Leopold be ordered to withdraw. This was not enough for the French government, and it insisted that King William, as head of the Hohenzollern family, should promise that the candidature would never be renewed. This demand was presented to the king at Ems by the French ambassador, Vincent Benedetti, on July 13. Though William refused to give a promise, he dismissed Benedetti in a friendly enough way. This version provoked a French declaration of war on July 19. The Franco-German War Though the war was perhaps not planned by Bismarck, it was certainly not unwelcome to him. The French had supposed that they would take the offensive. Library of Congress, Washington, D. C. This army was surrounded at Sedan and on September 2 forced to surrender. That brought the overthrow of Napoleon and the establishment of a provisional government in Paris. The new government was resolved not to surrender any French territory, and the war was therefore continued. Strasbourg surrendered on September 28 and Metz on October 23. The German armies were then free to press the siege of Paris throughout the winter. An armistice was then concluded and a French national assembly elected which had to authorize the conclusion of peace. Preliminary terms were agreed to by Jules Favre on February 26, and the final peace treaty was signed at Frankfurt am Main on May 10. France had to cede Alsace and most of Lorraine, including Metz, its capital. Bismarck seems to have doubted the wisdom of such excessive demands but was overborne by the German generals. On their prompting he also demanded Belfort, but he abandoned this demand in exchange for a victory march by the German army through the streets of Paris. France had also to pay an indemnity of five billion francs, and the Germans remained in occupation of part of France until the amount was paid. From *A History of France*, by H. Otto von Bray-Steinburg, the Bavarian prime minister, held out against any real union and demanded special treatment for Bavaria. Bismarck turned his flank by securing the incorporation of Baden into the North German Confederation. Bavaria also kept its own army in peacetime. In one relatively insignificant concession, a committee of the Bundesrat under Bavarian chairmanship was to advise the chancellor on questions of foreign policy; the advice was seldom sought and never taken. There remained the question of a name for the new state. Bismarck wished to revive the title of emperor, a proposal most unwelcome to William. With great adroitness Bismarck maneuvered one against the other and actually induced Louis to press the imperial title on William. The proposal was seconded by the other German princes and supported by the North German Reichstag; the leader of the Reichstag deputation was Eduard Simson, who had offered the imperial crown to Frederick William IV in on behalf of the Frankfurt assembly. William could hold out no longer. He was proclaimed German emperor at Versailles on January 18, 1871. A Reichstag was elected from all Germany, and this Reichstag accepted the constitution of 1871 with concessions to Bavaria as the imperial constitution on April 14, 1871. Alsace-Lorraine was treated as a conquered province. It was made a Reichsland and ruled by an imperial governor, or Statthalter. In theory this was a temporary settlement, but Alsace-Lorraine never developed the German loyalty which would have qualified it for autonomy. The constitution left open the great question of the powers of the Reichstag over the executive. The question was symbolized in two forms: As to military credits, Bismarck tried to include the sums necessary for an army of 400,000 men as a permanent grant in the

constitution and thus exempt from parliamentary criticism or control. He failed to carry this and had to agree to a compromise, the Septennat, by which military credits were to be voted for seven years—hence, the political crises which occurred every seven years, when artificial alarm had to be created in order to renew the army grant. German EmpireMap of the northern part of the German Empire c. German EmpireMap of the southwestern part of the German Empire c. German EmpireMap of the eastern part of the German Empire c. Only a small group, the Deutsche Reichspartei German Imperial Party , composed mainly of officials, remained loyal to him. On the other hand, the National Liberals were more enthusiastic for Bismarck than ever before, and from to they formed almost a government party. Bismarck discussed proposals for legislation with their leader, Rudolf von Bennigsen , and the National Liberals supported his general conduct of policy. Moreover, in the first years, the National Liberals managed to win more votes than any other single party despite universal suffrage. Only in did it become clear that a purely middle-class party could not keep its hold on peasant and working-class voters. Rudolf von Bennigsen, detail from an oil painting by Franz von Lenbach, ; in the Landesmuseum, Hanover Courtesy of the Niedersächsisches Landesmuseum, Hanover Thus the first period of the empire was the great age of liberal reform. Germany was given at a stroke uniform legal procedure , uniform coinage, and uniform administration.

### 6: The Historians' History of the World - Wikipedia

*Vol. 14 - The Netherlands (Concluded), and The History of the Germanic Empire Vol. 15 - The Germanic Empires (Concluded) Vol. 16 - The History of Scandanavia, and The History of Switzerland to*

The response of the empire and its members to the aggressive undertakings of this monarch, whose aim from his assumption of power in to his death in it was to make France the mightiest state in Europe , was largely reactive for a different interpretation, see France: The age of Louis XIV: The eastern wars resumed in the early and mid century, but the Turks were never again a threat to Europe, since Russia became the chief bulwark against Ottoman expansionism. The overriding political question in Europe in the second half of the 17th century was the future of Spain and its vast holdings in the southern Netherlands, Italy , and the Americas, because it was expected that the Spanish Habsburg line would die out with the feeble Charles II. While waiting for the Spanish throne to become vacant, Louis pursued an aggressive expansionist policy. In he occupied Flanders and in Lorraine; in he attacked Cleves and invaded the United Provinces of the Netherlands, his main antagonist in the wars that followed. In he began to penetrate Alsace, occupying the imperial city of Strassburg now Strasbourg in Lacking the military power to bring the whole empire to its knees, Louis resorted to the lure of money; at one time or another almost every German state was in his pocket, either serving as ally or remaining neutral. Though not incapable of acting on national impulses, German princesâ€”the Great Elector being a case in pointâ€”always served territorial interests first. This prevented the emperor, himself at times allied with Louis, from forging a solid front against France. Leadership of the anti-France coalition passed to the Dutch Republic. William of Orange , as stadtholder of Holland and captain general of the United Provinces, emerged as the most determined opponent of French aggression. Upon becoming king of England in , he changed the direction of English politics, which had been pro-French under the last Stuart king. Against this a Grand Alliance took shape it was formally concluded in , consisting of the empire except Bavaria and the electorate of Cologne , the Netherlands, England, Sweden , Brandenburg-Prussia, and Savoy Portugal also eventually joined the alliance. Its aim was to restore the European balance to the status of and by ejecting Louis from his conquests and by splitting the Spanish empire. Despite a number of major battles, including Blenheim , Ramillies , Oudenarde , and Malplaquet , neither side was able to win a decisive victory though the Alliance did seem to be prevailing. The death of the emperor Joseph I in placed his brother Charles, who had been proclaimed the Spanish king, on the imperial throne as Charles VI â€” This raised the spectre of a Habsburg reunion of the Holy Roman and Spanish empiresâ€”a situation no more agreeable to European powers than the prospect of French hegemony. Thus, the alliance was severed and the war began to wind down. Peace negotiations began in , resulting in a number of treaties, signed at Utrecht and Rastatt in â€” Austria profited substantially in territorial terms, and a few other German rulers profited as well, albeit less so. As for the empire itself, it had gained no real benefit from more than half a century of intermittent warfare. German society, however, was deeply affected. As centres of economic vitality, the princely courts, attended by an international nobility, exposed Germany to a variety of cultural innovations that originated in other, more prosperous European countries. Baroque artâ€”the preeminent expression of monarchical power and of Roman Catholic resurgence after the Reformationâ€”came from Spain and Italy, opera from Italy, and polite language and manners from France. The style of this period took French patterns as its model, from elaborately coded court ceremonials to dress, social conventions, food, and conversation. French absolutism not only became the political model, however scaled down, for the governance of all states in the empire, but every German prince and princeling imitated the lavish display with which Louis XIV created his aura of majesty and outshone his rivals. This started up a lively domestic market in luxuries, not to mention splendid works of architecture and decoration. Not only did this conspicuous consumption widen the social division between the court-oriented elite and the bulk of the urban and rural population, but the preference for foreign cultural products also inhibited creative impulses at home. In the second half of the 17th century, German energies were to a large extent still focused on religion. The confessional pluralism legitimized by the settlement of encouraged emphasis on theological distinctions,

exacerbating the move toward religious orthodoxy under way in each denomination since the 16th century. Influenced by English Puritanism, Pietism was shaped in its theology by Philipp Jakob Spener and in its organization by his disciple August Hermann Francke, who established a centre for its promulgation in Halle. There he founded schools, orphanages, medical facilities, and a printing house for publishing cheap Bibles and devotional works, which made Pietism a widely influential program of Evangelical activism. The intensely emotional and mystical flavour of Pietist poetry is preserved in the cantata texts set to music by Johann Sebastian Bach, in whose deeply spiritual church music Protestant chorale singing, another indigenous German product, reached its apogee.

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Countries beyond the war zones were affected by the disruption of international trade, finance and diplomatic pressures from the belligerents. In December, Poles launched an uprising in the Province of Posen which had been under German rule since the Partitions of Poland. Fighting lasted until February, when an armistice was signed leaving the area under Polish control but technically still German. The Treaty of Versailles was the name given to the settlement between German Reich and the Allies; treaties with the other former Central Powers were made and named after the Paris suburbs where they were signed. Initially, 70 delegates of 27 nations participated in the negotiations. It became the "Big Four" when Japan dropped out and the top person from each of the other four met in closed sessions to make all the major decisions, which were later ratified by the entire assembly. Apart from Italian issues, the main conditions were determined at personal meetings among the by the leaders of the "Big Three" nations: The minor nations attended a weekly "Plenary Conference" that discussed issues in a general forum but made no decisions. These members formed over 50 commissions that made various recommendations, many of which were incorporated into the final Treaty. Not even Napoleon himself could touch England. You are both sheltered; we are not. Instead France obtained the demilitarization of the Rhineland, a mandate over the Saar and promises of Anglo-American support in case of a new German aggression, but the United States did not ratify the treaty. By loss of territory and other measures her population was to be curtailed; but chiefly the economic system, upon which she depended for her new strength, the vast fabric built upon iron, coal, and transport must be destroyed. If France could seize, even in part, what Germany was compelled to drop, the inequality of strength between the two rivals for European hegemony might be remedied for generations. British aims Further information: Heavenly Twins Sumner and Cunliffe Britain had suffered little land devastation during the war and Prime Minister David Lloyd George supported reparations to a lesser extent than the French. Britain began to look on a restored Germany as an important trading partner and worried about the effect of reparations on the British economy. Fourteen Points Before the end of the war, President Woodrow Wilson put forward his Fourteen Points, which represented the liberal position at the Conference and helped shape world opinion. Wilson was concerned with rebuilding the European economy, encouraging self-determination, promoting free trade, creating appropriate mandates for former colonies, and above all, creating a powerful League of Nations that would ensure the peace. He opposed harsh treatment of Germany but was outmaneuvered by Britain and France. He brought along top intellectuals as advisors, but his refusal to include prominent Republicans in the American delegation made his efforts partisan and risked political defeat at home.

### 8: Holy Roman Empire | [www.enganchecubano.com](http://www.enganchecubano.com)

*The Historians' History of the World, subtitled A Comprehensive Narrative of the Rise and Development of Nations as Recorded by over two thousand of the Great Writers of all Ages, is a volume encyclopedia of world history originally published in English near the beginning of the 20th century.*

Europe, to The Holy Roman Empire was a feudal monarchy that encompassed present-day Germany , the Netherlands , Belgium , Luxembourg, Switzerland , Austria , the Czech and Slovak Republics, as well as parts of eastern France , northern Italy, Slovenia , and western Poland at the start of the early modern centuries. It was created by the coronation of the Frankish king Charlemagne as Roman emperor by Pope Leo III on Christmas Day in the year , thus restoring in their eyes the western Roman Empire that had been leaderless since . After the western empire was again without an emperor until the coronation of Otto I , duke of Saxony, on 2 February . This coronation was seen to transfer the Roman imperial office to the heirs of the East Franks, the Germans. The position of emperor remained among the Germans until the Holy Roman Empire was abolished in the aftermath of the Napoleonic Wars in . In the north it was bounded by the Baltic and North Seas and by the Danish kingdom; in the south, it reached to the Alps. At no time in its long history did the empire possess clearly defined boundaries; its people, perhaps fifteen million in , spoke a variety of languages and dialects. German predominated, but the advice of the Golden Bull of that future princes of the empire should learn the "German, Italian, and Slavic tongues" remained apposite. The multilingual empire stood at the crossroads of Europe and its emerging national cultures; it also included significant Jewish communities in the south and west. European trade and communication moved along the mighty rivers within the empire—the Rhine , the Main, the Danube , and the Elbe. On these rivers stood some of its most important cities: Cologne , the largest in the empire with about thirty thousand inhabitants, as well as Frankfurt, Vienna , and Hamburg. By there were about a dozen big cities with over ten thousand inhabitants each, and about twenty with between two and ten thousand people. The history of the term "Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation" illustrates several key developments on the path to the early modern empire. The medieval "Roman Empire," ambiguously created through the imperial coronation of Charlemagne, was first given the adjective "holy" *sacrum imperium Romanum* by the Imperial Chancellery of Frederick I Barbarossa ruled in . The term "Holy Roman Empire," used regularly from , challenged the monopoly on the sacred presented by the papacy of the "Holy Roman Church" *sancta Romana Ecclesia* and presented the empire as an equal heir to the legacy of Rome. The first official use of the full term "Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation" in acknowledged that the empire had been for some time a German political unit in all practical terms. At the same time, the term also underscored a sense that it was the unique destiny of the Germans to rule the universal sacred empire of Christendom. In this way the term limited claims to the empire from ambitious French rulers such as Francis I ruled , who campaigned for election to the imperial throne in , only to be defeated by the Habsburg Charles of Ghent , Emperor Charles V ruled . The Holy Roman Empire developed a complex legal and political structure. Its central figure was the emperor, whose position combined ancient Roman pretensions of universal, divinely sanctioned rule with the Germanic tradition of elected kingship, overlaid with efforts to define the emperor as a feudal overlord and his leading princes as his vassals. The position of emperor was elected, a characteristic the empire shared with other European monarchies such as the papacy. Just as the cardinals, princes of the church, chose each new pope, so the leading princes of the empire, called electors, chose their emperor. Technically, each emperor was first chosen "king of the Romans," signifying his popular claim to the Roman Empire, by the leading nobles of the empire. The right of these princes to choose their king was precisely codified in by a proclamation of Emperor Charles IV ruled called the "Golden Bull. Originally, the king of the Romans received the title of emperor only through coronation by the pope. This tradition was set aside by Maximilian I ruled , who assumed the title "Elected Roman Emperor. Only males were allowed to hold the imperial office. From their base of power in Austria, the House of Habsburg outmaneuvered other leading families of the empire to secure their election to the imperial throne again and again; from the reign of Albert in forward, a Habsburg was always elected except

for a brief interlude from to when the Wittelsbach Prince Charles Albert of Bavaria was elected as Emperor Charles VII , and the office of the emperor became quasi-hereditary. In legal terms the emperor was "administrator of the empire" rather than "lord of the empire. In each of these principalities rulers exercised many of the functions associated by early modern and modern political theorists with sovereignty. In the first instance the princes of the empire—rather than the emperor—collected taxes, administered justice, minted coins, and claimed responsibility for the material and spiritual salvation of their subjects. Many of the principalities of the empire had their own parliamentary bodies representing the estates of the territory. The territorial ambitions of the princes, alongside their predilection for partible inheritance, created a patchwork of German principalities that grew bewilderingly complex. These cities were subject to no one but the emperor, which made them effectively independent. Scholars today would explain the development in different terms but agree that the imperial monarchy had traded away considerable power and authority to the princes and the church during the medieval period. Few European political units seem as remote and confusing as the Holy Roman Empire. At the start of the early modern period, the supranational, multiethnic structure of this feudal state made perfect sense, of course, to the people who lived in it and shaped its development. Indeed, in the period from to the Holy Roman Empire was a dynamic political unit of crucial importance to the growth of the Habsburg empire and the Protestant Reformation. By the mid-eighteenth century, however, Europeans saw the Holy Roman Empire in a very different light. In a Europe of centralized, hereditary monarchies consolidating their nation-states, its polycentric, supranational structure, elected emperor, and ponderous parliament had become ever more difficult to understand and explain. When it ceased to exist in , few understood its significance. The focus of the empire had shifted to its German-speaking lands, especially the wealthy southern area known as Upper Germany, which saw the birth and growth of effective imperial institutions. Foremost was its parliament, the Imperial Diet Reichstag. The diet emerged from medieval political struggles that obligated the emperor to consult with his leading princes in feudal terms, the holders of imperial fiefs on decisions affecting the empire. The diet became the most important site of communication, conflict, and negotiation between the emperor and the estates. The emperor did not rule as an autocrat but was bound by the resolutions of the Imperial Diet. As was typical of early modern statecraft, the diets often passed resolutions that could not be enforced the Edict of Worms of is the most famous example , but its organization helped define the empire through its estates. From on, the diet met in three colleges, similar to the houses of the English Parliament: The diet was summoned by the emperor only when needed; sessions were held in the leading imperial cities of the south, usually Augsburg, Nuremberg, Regensburg, or Speyer. When the diet met, the emperor presided, flanked by six of the electors, with the archbishop of Trier seated directly in front of the imperial throne. Along the sides of the hall sat the representatives of the college of imperial princes, and facing the emperor at the back of the hall were the representatives of the imperial free cities. Each college deliberated separately, voted within the college, and then cast one vote in the assembled diet. After the diet transformed itself into a body of representatives sitting permanently in Regensburg. The Imperial Diet in Worms in marked a turning point. Led by the archbishop-elect of Mainz, Berthold von Henneberg — , the diet outlawed all private wars and noble feuding and established the Imperial Cameral Court Reichskammergericht to replace violence with arbitration. The imperial estates gathered in Worms in also voted to establish a new form of direct imperial taxation, the "Common Penny" gemeiner Pfennig , to fund the Imperial Cameral Court. The tax was collected from all male inhabitants, regardless of status, for a period of four years and was renewed in and in to pay for the defense of the empire. The division of the empire into administrative districts called Imperial Circles Kreise was another innovation of the reign of Maximilian. Initially these districts served to enforce the imperial peace, but later their competence was extended to include imperial taxation and defense. From , the empire was divided into ten Imperial Circles: The territories of the Bohemian crown, the Swiss Confederation, and the Italian imperial fiefs were not included in this plan. These Circles and the Imperial Diet came to define the empire by the early sixteenth century and can help us distinguish between two conceptions of the empire. The greater empire was based on theoretical claims of universal dominion and historical claims of rule over Italy, Burgundy, and Germany. This greater empire encompassed all of Italy north of the Papal States except Venice as fiefs of the empire and included the

kingdom of Bohemia, the Swiss Confederation, and the Habsburg Netherlands. Within these broad claims based on medieval precedent, feudal law, and dynastic connections, a second, more concentrated empire "Reichstags-Deutschland" actually participated in the growth of imperial institutions in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. This empire, culturally German, found its political and institutional base in the southwest of the empire and in the electoral principalities. The threat to the empire posed by the dynamic Ottoman Empire stood on the agenda of almost every Imperial Diet during the reigns of Maximilian I and Charles V. Habsburg Austria was constantly threatened by Turkish invasion, and the Habsburg emperors called the estates together to request aid. The threat was especially clear when the Ottoman Turks conquered most of Hungary in 1526. Austria would be next. Vienna was besieged by an army led by Suleiman the Magnificent ruled in 1529. The dependence of the Habsburg emperors on the support of the imperial estates in their struggle against Turkish expansion deeply affected their response to the next great challenge of imperial politics, the Reformation. The extraordinarily diverse and divided political landscape of the empire in the early sixteenth century was the single most important factor in the spread of evangelical ideas and the adoption of church reforms. As it became clear to Martin Luther that the Church of Rome would not accept his theological and pastoral reforms referred to as "evangelical", he turned "to the Christian Nobility of the German Nation" the title of his important treatise of 1520, *An den christlichen Adel deutscher Nation* and exhorted them to take up their responsibility to reform the church. Their response was varied. Charles stated clearly that he would not "deny the religion of all his ancestors for the false teachings of a solitary monk. Protected from arrest and trial for heresy by his prince, Frederick the Wise, and frightened by the disorder unleashed by the spread of evangelical ideas, Luther looked to the leading secular authorities of the empire to implement his ideas. This they did, taking advantage of the fragmentation of imperial and territorial authority across the empire. Individual principalities and city-states became "laboratories" for church reform and religious innovation. Because the builders of the first Protestant institutions were leaders among the estates of the empire, the conflict over reform and Reformation was played out in the institutions of the empire, above all in the Imperial Diets. It was at the Diet of Speyer in 1521 that a group of princes including the elector of Saxony and the landgrave of Hesse and fourteen imperial free cities submitted an official protest against the suppression of the evangelical movement. The name "Protestant" arose from their action. The next Imperial Diet at Augsburg in 1530 produced a definitive Protestant statement of faith, the Augsburg Confession of Philipp Melancthon, and a reinforcement of the Edict of Worms. This alliance was not formally directed against the empire or its Catholic ruling house of Habsburg, but its confessional politics held an immense potential to disrupt the institutions of the empire. Scholars have labeled this process "confessionalization," and it is the defining characteristic of the empire in the period from the 1520s through the end of the seventeenth century. Confessionalization meant the doctrinal and organizational consolidation of the diverging Christian Reformations into established churches with mutually exclusive creeds, constitutions, and forms of piety. The power and authority of the princes was naturally reinforced by this new level of spiritual administration. In the confessional era the line between insider and outsider became much sharper. Subjects and rulers together deployed the new scope of territorial authority to accuse, try, and burn witches; expel Jews and Christians of other confessions; and police the poor and the criminal. The cruel work of the great European witch persecutions reached its peak in the years between 1580 and 1630, and about half of the forty to fifty thousand executions took place in the empire. The promulgation of countless church and police ordinances allowed territorial rulers to envision though not create a land of godly, orderly, and obedient subjects. Geographically and politically, these territories resembled modern sovereign states, and this gain in power and authority by the individual estates of the empire proved irreversible. The first evidence that power had shifted came in the aftermath of the Schmalkaldic War in 1547. Despite the military victory of Charles V over the Protestant princes, he was unable to roll back the progress of the Reformation before shifting alliances forced him to flee Germany in 1550. Exhausted by the struggle to return the German princes to the Catholic faith, Charles handed all responsibility for German affairs over to his brother, Archduke Ferdinand of Austria ruled as emperor in 1550, who negotiated the Religious Peace of Augsburg in 1555. This agreement established the legal equality of the Evangelical and Catholic churches and the right of princes of the empire to choose either of these confessions for their territories. With the Religious Peace of Augsburg,

the empire was divided among two mutually hostile Christian confessions:

**9: Spanish Netherlands - Wikipedia**

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Many people were, however, highly critical of the church and its clergy. Critics of the church concentrated on clerical immorality, clerical ignorance, and clerical pluralism. There was also local resentment of clerical privileges and immunities. Martin Luther was a conscientious friar, but observance of the religious routine did not bring him a sense of security in salvation. Eventually he concluded that only simple faith in Christ led to salvation. Luther was spurred to public action by his objection to the sale of indulgences. The most important early reformer other than Luther was Ulrich Zwingli. Protestants held that salvation comes by faith alone. Protestants held that religious authority resided in Scripture alone, not Scripture in combination with traditional Church teachings. Protestants asserted that the Church consisted of the whole community of believers, not just the clergy. Zwingli argued that the Eucharist was a memorial of the Last Supper and nothing more. John Calvin agreed with Luther on consubstantiation. The printing press played a key role in the rapid spread of the Protestant message. Luther and Zwingli worked closely with political authorities to gain support for Protestantism. The Radical Reformation Some individuals and groups rejected the idea that the church and state needed to be united and, instead, sought to create voluntary communities of believers. Such groups arrived at their own interpretations of Christianity, interpretations that often set them at odds with the authorities and many of their fellow citizens. Secular and religious leaders responded with harsh punitive measures. Luther initially backed the peasants. When the peasants turned to violence, however, Luther egged the lords on as they crushed the rebellions. Lutheranism came to exalt the state and subordinate church to the secular rulers. Many Protestant reformers praised marriage. While Catholics viewed marriage as a sacrament, Protestants saw it as a contract. Most Protestants came to allow divorce. Protestants uniformly condemned prostitution. The impact of the Protestant Reformation on the lives of women was mixed. In 1550, Charles was elected Holy Roman Emperor. He believed that it was his duty to maintain the unity of Christendom. The Political Impact of the Protestant Reformation Spiritual and material concerns swayed many German princes to convert to Protestantism. The Reformation led to religious wars, first in Switzerland and then elsewhere. In 1547, Charles V called an Imperial Diet at Augsburg to try to halt the spread of religious division. When Charles rejected Protestant demands, Protestant princes formed a military alliance. In the Peace of Augsburg Charles accepted the religious status quo in Germany. Later, Henry seized monasteries and distributed their lands to the upper classes. Loyalty to the Catholic Church was particularly strong in Ireland. On orders from London, the Church of Ireland was established in 1534. Armed Irish opposition to the Reformation led to harsh repression by the English. The nationalization of the church and the dissolution of the monasteries led to important changes in government administration in both England and Ireland. Calvinism Calvinism was the most important new form of Protestantism. God decided at the beginning of time who would be saved and who would not predestination. Predestination did not lead to fatalism. Rather, Calvinists, convinced they were saved, were ready to endure great hardship in the struggle against evil. Card playing, dancing, and so on were banned. The Genevan government prosecuted heretics, burning fifty-eight at the stake between 1543 and 1553, including the Spanish heretic Servetus. This doctrine encouraged hard work and vigorous activism. John Knox, a minister who studied in Geneva with Calvin, was instrumental in getting the Scottish Parliament to set up a Calvinist church as the official state church of Scotland Presbyterianism. In Bohemia, ethnic grievances of the Czech majority fused with resentment of the Roman church. By 1620, most Czechs had adopted the utraquist position. During the Counter-Reformation, a Catholic revival was promoted in Bohemia. By 1619, Poland and Lithuania were joined in a dynastic union. The Polish szlachta found Calvinism appealing. The Counter-Reformation cemented the identification of Poland with Catholicism. Lutheranism reached Hungary via Polish merchants. Military defeat by the Ottomans left Hungary divided into three parts. Many Magyar magnates accepted Lutheranism. Recognition of Habsburg rule led to a Catholic restoration in 1686. The influence

of the Inquisition outside of the papal territories was slight. It reaffirmed also the seven sacraments and transubstantiation. The Council required bishops to reside in their own dioceses, ended pluralism and simony, and forbade the sale of indulgences. The Council ordered that for a marriage to be valid the vows had to be exchanged publicly. New Religious Orders The new order of Ursuline nuns fought heresy with religious education for girls. Ignatius of Loyola founded the Jesuit order to fight the Reformation, again largely through education. French Calvinists were called Huguenots. Monarchical weakness combined with religious division to create civil war. Popular Calvinism was manifested in iconoclasm. The politiques believed that only the restoration of a strong monarchy could save France from collapse. The accession of Henry IV r. For the sake of peace, Henry converted to Catholicism and issued the Edict of Nantes. Philip tried to quell the violence by sending twenty thousand troops to the Netherlands under the command of the duke of Alva. Eventually, the ten southern Catholic provinces came under the control of the Spanish Habsburgs, while the seven northern Protestant provinces formed the Union of Utrecht in and declared their independence from Spain. Spanish efforts to retake control of the North led the leaders of the United Provinces to look for help from outside powers, particularly Protestant England. The Great European Witch-Hunt The relationship between the Reformation and the upsurge of witchcraft trials in the mid-sixteenth century is complex. In the Middle Ages, a demonological element was added to the European understanding of witchcraft. The essence of witchcraft became a pact with the devil. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, between 40, and 60, people were executed for witchcraft. Between 75 and 85 percent of those tried and executed were women. Learned ideas about witchcraft filtered down to ordinary people. Legal changes facilitated massive witch trials. Most witch trials began with a single accusation, but often grew to include numerous alleged witches. Doubts and skepticism eventually brought the trials to a halt.

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