

## V. 3. THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION, 1559-1610, EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM. pdf

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*The New Cambridge Modern History, Vol. 3: Counter-Reformation and Price Revolution, First Edition, First Printing Edition by R. B. Wernham (Editor).*

Additional Information In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: The New Cambridge Modern History. The Counter-Reformation and Price Revolution Cambridge University Press [Toronto: There is no mention of the visual arts, music, or literature in this volume, let alone of such broadly synthetic features of culture as those suggested by Hans Baron in Volume x. The conception of European political life displayed in chapters is, for the most part, antiquated. France, the Netherlands, and Spain are taken as the pivot around which European public affairs swing. There is little attempt - none, as far as the chapter divisions go - to conceive of the whole area from the Urals and Persia to the Atlantic, from the Baltic Sea to the Sahara, as a set of interacting spheres, in each of which a plurality of national and dynastic interests, in conflict between and within themselves, plays its role. History nation by nation, and ruler by ruler, continues to dominate the thinking of most of these writers about the past, and the only metaphor which seems to illuminate for them the mutual relationships of these variegated politics is that of balance of power. Europe is one sphere, not many; this metaphor assumes, and Spain is the preponderant power against which others must combine. The relevance of these dates to events viewed from any other angle than that of the evolution of the nation-state in France, the Netherlands, and Spain, is stated succinctly by Professor Hale in his chapter on military history: In most areas where [historical] research is being carried on today, these fifty years do not form any sort of coherent period, either positively as a period of innovation or "achievement," or negatively as a period of disintegration or "transition. That was what the future was going to be like" p. The future was, is, and perhaps will be far less single in meaning, direction, and purpose, both politically and culturally, than this suggests. They are synthetic not merely because they deal with broad geographical areas or broadly defined aspects of the past, but above all because the tools with which they analyze and organize their materials have, in most cases, been drawn from many sources. Among the synthetic chapters, too, then, a distinction may be made between those which follow traditional lines and those which pursue newer categories of study. The novelty and success of this synthesis. The very difference in Parker's two chapters reflects forecasts of these differences in method and result. Clarity of organization and counterpoint between the general and the specific so that one illumines the other are both realized consistently in the chapters by Hurstfield and Hale. The first ten pages of Hurstfield's chapter pp. Population increase, resulting social You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

## V. 3. THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION, 1559-1610, EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM. pdf

### 2: Early modern France - Wikipedia

*This volume examines the period of history which looks at counter-reformation and the price revolution,*

Thus in the political field the greatest monarch of his time, Philip II of Spain, was unable to conquer a weak England or a disunited France; could hold only half his rebellious Netherlands; and ended his reign, as he had begun it, in bankruptcy. With others the gap between aspiration and achievement was narrower only because they pitched their ambitions lower, and indeed for the most part the rulers of this time did pitch their ambitions much lower than those of the preceding generation. Was not one of the most successful of them, Elizabeth I of England, renowned above all for her chronic indecision and her dexterity in avoiding action? If, however, European rulers and statesmen of the later sixteenth century seemed lesser men than their fathers, this was precisely because their fathers had aimed too high and attempted too much. At the beginning of the century a series of fortunate—or perhaps unfortunate? Yet while the ends that princes pursued grew ever higher and wider, the means of pursuing them grew vastly more expensive every year. The expense of the new spreading network of diplomatic and intelligence agents could perhaps by itself have been borne easily enough by all except the poorest. But the cost of the new armies and navies, made necessary by the increasing use of firearms, was so great that by mid-century it had brought even the emperor and the king of France up to and over the edge of bankruptcy. The Turks, too, had almost shot their bolt by the time that Sulaiman the Magnificent died in , while lesser powers had long since abandoned all attempts at keeping up with the Habsburgs and the Valois. England, for example, exhausted by the efforts of Henry VIII and Protector Somerset to dominate Scotland, had become first little better than a French satellite under Northumberland and had then seemed doomed to absorption in the Habsburg aggregate under the half-Spanish Mary Tudor. So the great conflicts that had torn Europe during the first half of the sixteenth century died away as the combatants one by one sank down exhausted. In the east the long struggle between Christians and Moslem Turks slowly cooled into a bickering and still explosive co-existence. In the centre, in the Holy Roman Empire, the Augsburg settlement of consecrated a triple balance, precarious but generally treasured, between Lutheran princes, Catholic princes, and a Habsburg emperor whose power such as it was rested more and more upon the far eastern frontiers of the empire, on the Austrian duchies and Bohemia. In the west the settlement of Cateau-Cambresis in April recognised a rough and unstable balance between the French monarchy and the Spanish branch of the house of Habsburg, the two leviathans that still towered over all the other powers and whose long quarrel was now rather suspended than ended. Each of these conflicts, as it died away, thus left behind it its own particular political system and after each of these systems went more and more its own way in growing isolation from the rest. Their insulation from one another was further encouraged by the fact that Charles V, when he abdicated , divided his unwieldy inheritance between his son Philip II—who received Spain, Spanish Italy, Franche-Comte, the Netherlands, and the New World—and his brother Ferdinand I—who, with Bohemia, the Austrian lands, and the title of Emperor, was left to salvage what he could of imperial authority in Germany and on the eastern marches of Christendom. And the change also lessened the temptation for statesmen of the time to look too far afield and encouraged them to confine their ambitions to their own particular part of the continent. Other circumstances further encouraged, almost imposed, such a limitation. The financial difficulties, the near-bankruptcy, which governments had brought upon themselves by their wars and their over-ambitious foreign policies, were continued and often worsened after the mid-century by monetary inflation. Nevertheless, the flood tide of American silver, pouring in on top of other deeper and longer-term movements of population, of trade, and of finance, did quicken and steepen the price rise and make this a more than ever difficult time for governments and for all whose incomes were comparatively inflexible. It was the more difficult because the dying down of the wars left many of the nobility and gentry without employment in the only profession for which most of them were trained, the profession of arms. They now looked to their government for lucrative occupations, or at least for subsidies

## V. 3. THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION, 1559-1610, EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM. pdf

and rewards that would enable them to go on living in the style to which they had grown accustomed. When government failed or fell short in its expected role of aristocratic provider, nobles and gentry were ready enough to turn against it. Much of the discontent of the French noblesse against their Valois kings, and of the Netherlands nobility against their Spanish overlord, sprang from similar sources. Aristocratic discontent, indeed, became a major cause of tension in almost every country, at least of western Europe. What made it the more dangerous was that government, while drawing in its horns abroad, was becoming more and more active and interfering at home. It was intruding more and more into those local affairs which the landed aristocrats had long regarded as their own peculiar concern, as franchises where the royal writ ran in practice only by their consent. As its intrusions often threatened other local interests and classes as well, and invariably brought to both townsman and peasant an increased burden of taxes and exactions, the landed nobility and gentry often found themselves standing forth as popular leaders of local particularism and ancient liberties against an encroaching central power. The growing activity of government required a growing number of government servants. Their loyalty and efficiency had to be assured by adequate rewards. Yet few governments had sufficient revenues to be able to pay their servants proper salaries, and few could now dare to staff their civil service so largely with ecclesiastics as they had done in the past. More than ever, therefore, they appointed men to offices upon the tacit understanding that they might supplement a nominal stipend by such fees, gifts, or plain bribes as their consciences would allow and their clients would pay. From this it was but a short step to selling offices, monopolies, privileges, and functions, the purchasers recouping themselves at the expense of the public without too many questions asked. It was an even shorter step thereafter to the creation of offices, even inheritable offices, for the admitted purpose "even the sole purpose" of making money by their sale. This venality of offices, this sale of privileges and prerogatives of government, was common, though in varying degrees, to the whole continent. Abuse of it was all too easy, for the thing itself was an expedient born of poverty-stricken necessity. How great an outburst of anger it could provoke, even where its abuse was by no means most flagrant, was shown by the uproar over patents of monopoly in the English parliament. Equally, however, common burdens and shared grievances could spread local and aristocratic discontents nation-wide and weld them into something like a national opposition. This happened most easily where the ruling dynasty was alien and absentee, as in the Netherlands against Philip of Spain, and in Sweden against Sigismund of Poland; or where the marriage of a female sovereign threatened to absorb her realm in some wider political combination, as with England under Mary Tudor and with Scotland under Mary Stuart. It was in such places that the ancient and largely negative hatred of foreigners was most readily and rapidly transmuted into something not far removed from a new and positive spirit of nationalism. The sharper the distinction became, the more readily and the more dangerously opposition to the central government could spring up. Moreover, while disgruntled aristocrats could thus provide the leaders

1 For a somewhat different view, however, see chapter vi below. The great majority of mankind have always lived very close to the borders of starvation and the later sixteenth century was no exception to this rule. Indeed, the growth of population was then, it seems, outstripping the growth of industrial and agricultural production. And the growth of trade, if it enabled the surplus of one region rather more often than before to relieve the dearth of another, also left a larger number of people at the mercy of market fluctuations, tended to depress or hold down real wages, and increased the gap between rich and poor. In the long run, no doubt, these fears of mob rule helped to drive the propertied classes back into support of the central governments—we can see that happening both in the Netherlands and in France. Nevertheless, it was the opposition of those propertied classes, or portions of them, to the central power that had opened the fissures through which these under-surface social discontents could erupt. And their eruption added still further to the tensions that were straining the fabric of government. Last and not least among the problems that caused uneasiness in crowned heads, there was religious opposition, and in particular Calvinist opposition. For now, in western Europe especially, the conservative, compromising, and generally prince-loving Protestantism of the Lutherans and the anarchic and fragmenting radicalism of the Anabaptist sects were both being shouldered aside by a radical

## V. 3. THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION, 1559-1610, EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM. pdf

and uncompromising Calvinism. For, by a bond of faith that was stronger than any bonds of blood or interest or connection, it bound noble and burgher and peasant, men of one province and men of another, in a common cause that overrode class distinctions and local particularism. It gave an unprecedentedly effective organisation, and the self-confidence of an uncompromising faith, to factions that were already beginning to adopt violent methods to achieve political ends. The German Lutheran princes hated its theology, feared its missionary work among their subjects, and trembled lest its militancy should upset the precarious peace prevailing in the empire since Augsburg. Soon, in Germany, the controversies between Lutheran and Calvinist became sharper than the disputes between Protestant and Catholic. Even in tolerant Poland the Roman church was by the end of the century mounting its counter-attack and calling the government to its aid. It was, however, in France and the Netherlands that the influence of religion was seen at its most vicious and that the reaction to Calvinist violence was sharpest. Catholic alarm at Calvinist aggression a decade later undermined the Pacification of Ghent and in split the momentarily united Netherlands into the rival Unions of Arras and Utrecht. In France in the mobs of Paris and other cities needed little incitement to vent their fury upon a Huguenot minority that looked like becoming more influential than the Catholic majority could tolerate. From the s onwards an acute awareness of all these various 1 See also below, chapter ix. In the far north kings of Sweden and of Denmark might still dream of, and fight for, dominium maris Baltici; and kings of Poland, having achieved a union with Lithuania, might still regard wider unions, first with Sweden, then with Muscovy, as practical aims. But the Baltic countries had been less crippled by wars than the lands farther south and in the Swedish kings and Sigismund of Poland the tendency of the Vasa family to megalomania was always liable to break surface. Well aware of how limited were their means for dealing with the growing strains and discontents within their own dominions, the last things that most of them wanted to do were to add a large-scale foreign war to their burdens or to offer their foreign rivals any opportunity to send assistance to their own rebels. The English intervention in Scotland in , the AngloFrench meddlings in the Low Countries in and , the Spanish assistance to the Catholic League in France during the earlier s, showed only too clearly how dangerous could be the combination of foreign hostility with domestic opposition. There was therefore a widespread, indeed for many years an almost universal, desire to avoid any renewal of the general large-scale warfare that had been so common during the first half of the century. Yet dynastic and national jealousies did not, of course, now cease; commercial rivalries still exploded from time to time; strategic interests remained as sensitive as ever and princes as prickly about personal and dynastic prestige. Moreover, the existence of discontent and organised opposition within a country was a standing temptation to its neighbours. Yet they were dangerous instruments precisely because the line between underhand help to rebels and open war between governments was so blurred and uncertain that even the most cautious and skilful statesmen could easily overstep it unintentionally. Yet these desperate remedies did not by any means always solve the problems and did almost always make the internal conflicts far more bitter and irreconcilable. They thus served all too often only to make the rebels more ready to call foreign powers to their aid and to strengthen the temptation for foreign powers to answer their calls. Worse still was the ready way in which political factions tended to identify themselves with rival international religious sectsâ€”the Guise faction in France with the church of Rome, the Beggars in the Low Countries with Calvinism. Nevertheless, it did mean that all Protestant rebelsâ€”French, Netherlands, Scottishâ€”looked more and more to protestant England for help; all the Catholic rebelsâ€”French, English, Scottish, Irishâ€”looked to Catholic Spain. By the s the role of Protestant champion was being thrust upon the very reluctant Elizabeth I; that of Catholic champion upon Philip II, who until recently had been hardly less reluctant. Unofficial and underhand intervention now turned gradually into open war and the various local and national feuds began to coalesce into a new general conflict. As yet, during the period with which we are concerned in this volume, this conflict involved only western Europe directly, only that part of the continent whose statute had been laid down at Cateau-Cambresis in The Baltic states, too, still went their own way, not greatly affected by the turmoil of western Europe, though the Protestantism of the north German Hanse towns was sorely tried during the s by English interference with

## V. 3. THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION, 1559-1610, EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM. pdf

their lucrative trade to Spain in naval stores and corn. Yet already that turmoil was beginning to spread into the western fringes of Germany, to the Rhineland, where the establishment of Calvinism in the Palatinate and the spread of militant Tridentine Catholicism from Bavaria were striking sparks that could easily touch off a conflagration. These things did not, in fact, happen until the years from onwards, until the Thirty Years War. For the western conflicts at the end of the sixteenth century provided some of the more spectacular illustrations of the inability of European statesmen and commanders to impose their pattern upon events. In the Spaniards failed to land a single soldier upon English soil and the English sailors failed to destroy in battle more than half a dozen ships of the great Armada. Next year the English counter-stroke did put an army ashore, first at Corufia, then in Portugal; but in the end it withdrew without being able to take a single town of any consequence. In the Netherlands likewise the war came to stalemate along the line of the great rivers. It is true that in naval warfare the new fleets of sailing warships, relying upon gunfire instead of boarding to destroy their enemies, were novel weapons whose use and tactics needed time to be properly elucidated and made effective. It is also true that it was not for purely military reasons that Henry of Navarre and Parma failed to gather the fruits of" victory. Nevertheless, the striking thing about this long-drawn-out warâ€”even for England it lasted nineteen yearsâ€”was its indecisiveness. In the end all the combatants had to pause out of mere exhaustion. Yet, just because the pausing was due to mutual exhaustion, the treaties between France and Spain in and England and Spain in and the truce between the Dutch and Spain in left most of the great questions unsettled. One by one the powers had drawn out of the battle, but for most of them England under James I was perhaps an exception this was only to repair their damage and replenish their strength for fresh onslaughts. All through this period, then, the tensions within states and between states, although for many years they deterred governments from risking war, were mounting towards a fresh European conflict. They encouraged attitudes of mind, nervous and fearful, yet violent, that often mistook movement for action and were often unduly obsessed by present troubles and short-run problems. Caught up in surface tensions, they had insufficient time and energy to devote to deeper problems of population growth and price inflation; of commercial change and industrial development resulting from them; of government finance and methods of recruiting and rewarding its servants; of constructing a coherent system of international relations, working out agreed principles of international law, and creating an effective diplomatic service. Here and there some progress in these deeper matters was indeed made. No one had much success in restraining prices, though the English did succeed in reforming their currency, creating a system of poor relief, and redeploying their overseas trade when Antwerp failed them as a distributing and collecting centre. Yet even Elizabeth Fs thrifty administration could not find a real answer to the problem of government insolvency, and its efforts to make ends meet during the Spanish war provoked the first round of the constitutional conflict that was to end in civil war in Dutch commerce prospered and expanded more notably than English, yet the States made very little headway towards the development of a truly effective system of government. Yet they could not prevent the downward turn of the Spanish economy that marked the beginning of its long decline. In Germany, although the Augsburg principle of cuius regio eius religio made it possible for Lutheran and Catholic princes and cities to live side by side fairly peaceably in one empire, it was much more rare for Catholic and Lutheran subjects to be allowed to live side by side under one prince. In the Edict of Nantes compelled the Catholics to share France with Huguenots, yet it had to leave the Huguenots as an armed and organised minority within the state. It is not surprising that the men of the later sixteenth century had so limited a success. The problems that faced them were, in all conscience, difficult enough in themselves.



## V. 3. THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION, 1559-1610, EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM. pdf

### 3: The New Cambridge Modern History - Wikipedia

*EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM* *Successes of the Counter-Reformation in north-west Germany. COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION in the first.*

Wars[ edit ] Despite the beginnings of rapid demographic and economic recovery after the Black Death of the 14th century, the gains of the previous half-century were to be jeopardised by a further protracted series of conflicts, the Italian Wars " , where French efforts to gain dominance ended in the increased power of the Habsburg Holy Roman Emperors of Germany. The medieval division of society into "those who fought nobility , those who prayed clergy , and those who worked everyone else " still held strong and warfare was considered a domain of the nobles. Charles VIII marched into Italy with a core force consisting of noble horsemen and non-noble foot soldiers, but in time the role of the latter grew stronger so that by the middle of the 16th century, France had a standing army of cavalry and 30, infantry. The military was reorganized from a system of legions recruited by province Norman legion, Gascon legion, etc. However, the nobility and troops were often disloyal to the king, if not outright rebellious, and it took another army reform by Louis XIV to finally transform the French army into an obedient force. When Ferdinand I of Naples died in , Charles invaded the peninsula. For several months, French forces moved through Italy virtually unopposed, since the condottieri armies of the Italian city-states were unable to resist them. Their sack of Naples finally provoked a reaction, however, and the League of Venice was formed against them. By , combined French and Aragonese forces had seized control of the Kingdom; disagreements about the terms of the partition led to a war between Louis and Ferdinand. French forces under Gaston de Foix inflicted an overwhelming defeat on a Spanish army at the Battle of Ravenna in , but Foix was killed during the battle, and the French were forced to withdraw from Italy by an invasion of Milan by the Swiss, who reinstated Maximilian Sforza to the ducal throne. The Holy League , left victorious, fell apart over the subject of dividing the spoils, and in Venice allied with France, agreeing to partition Lombardy between them. The elevation of Charles of Spain to Holy Roman Emperor , a position that Francis had desired, led to a collapse of relations between France and the Habsburgs. In , a Spanish invasion of Navarre , nominally a French fief, provided Francis with a pretext for starting a general war; French forces flooded into Italy and began a campaign to drive Charles from Naples. With Milan itself threatened, Francis personally led a French army into Lombardy in , only to be defeated and captured at the Battle of Pavia ; imprisoned in Madrid , Francis was forced to agree to extensive concessions over his Italian territories in the "Treaty of Madrid" In response, Charles invaded Provence , advancing to Aix-en-Provence , but withdrew to Spain rather than attacking the heavily fortified Avignon. The Truce of Nice ended the war, leaving Turin in French hands but effecting no significant change in the map of Italy. A Franco-Ottoman fleet captured the city of Nice in August , and laid siege to the citadel. The defenders were relieved within a month. A lack of cooperation between the Spanish and English armies, coupled with increasingly aggressive Ottoman attacks, led Charles to abandon these conquests, restoring the status quo once again. In , Henry II of France , who had succeeded Francis to the throne, declared war against Charles with the intent of recapturing Italy and ensuring French, rather than Habsburg, domination of European affairs. An early offensive against Lorraine was successful, but the attempted French invasion of Tuscany in was defeated at the Battle of Marciano. The Wars of Religion[ edit ] The St. Renewed Catholic reaction headed by the powerful dukes of Guise culminated in a massacre of Huguenots , starting the first of the French Wars of Religion , during which English, German, and Spanish forces intervened on the side of rival Protestant and Catholic forces. Opposed to absolute monarchy, the Huguenots Monarchomachs theorized during this time the right of rebellion and the legitimacy of tyrannicide. After the assassination of both Henry of Guise and Henry III , the conflict was ended by the accession of the Protestant king of Navarre as Henry IV first king of the Bourbon dynasty and his subsequent abandonment of Protestantism Expedient of effective in , his acceptance by most of the Catholic establishment and by the Pope , and his issue of the toleration decree known as the

## V. 3. THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION, 1559-1610, EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM. pdf

Edict of Nantes , which guaranteed freedom of private worship and civil equality. One of the most admired French kings, Henry was fatally stabbed by a Catholic fanatic in as war with Spain threatened. Troubles gradually developed during the regency headed by his queen Marie de Medici. France was expansive during all but the end of the 17th century: Indeed, much of the French countryside during this period remained poor and overpopulated. The resistance of peasants to adopt the potato, according to some monarchist apologists, and other new agricultural innovations while continuing to rely on cereal crops led to repeated catastrophic famines long after they had ceased in the rest of Western Europe. The Palace of Versailles was criticized as overly extravagant even while it was still under construction, but dozens of imitations were built across Europe. Renewed war the War of Devolution “ and the Franco-Dutch War “ brought further territorial gains Artois and western Flanders and the free county of Burgundy , left to the Empire in , but at the cost of the increasingly concerted opposition of rival powers. By the start of the 18th century, the nobility in France had been effectively neutered and would never again have more power than the crown. Also, Louis willingly granted titles of nobility to those who had performed distinguished service to the state so that it did not become a closed caste and it was possible for commoners to rise through the social ranks. The king sought to impose total religious uniformity on the country, repealing the Edict of Nantes in The infamous practice of dragonnades was adopted, whereby rough soldiers were quartered in the homes of Protestant families and allowed to have their way with them. Scores of Protestants fled France, costing the country a great many intellectuals, artisans, and other valuable people. Persecution extended to unorthodox Catholics like the Jansenists , a group that denied free will and had already been condemned by the popes. Louis was no theologian and understood little of the complex doctrines of Jansenism, satisfying himself with the fact that they threatened the unity of the state. In this, he garnered the friendship of the papacy, which had previously been hostile to France because of its policy of putting all church property in the country under the jurisdiction of the state rather than of Rome. The size of the army was also considerably increased. Starting in the s, Louis XIV established the so-called Chambers of Reunion , courts in which judges would determine whether certain Habsburg territories belonged rightfully to France. The king was relying on the somewhat vague wording in the Treaty of Westphalia, while also dredging up older French claims, some dating back to medieval times. Through this, he concluded that the strategically important imperial city of Strassburg should have gone to France in In September , French troops occupied the city, which was at once strongly fortified. As the imperial armies were then busy fighting the Ottoman Empire, they could not do anything about this for a number of years. With the Turks now in retreat, the emperor Leopold could turn his attention to France. The ensuing War of the Grand Alliance lasted from “ Famine in “ killed up to two million people. The exhaustion of the powers brought the fighting to an end in , by which time the French were in control of the Spanish Netherlands and Catalonia. However, Louis gave back his conquests and gained only Haiti. The French people, feeling that their sacrifices in the war had been for nothing, never forgave him. The Battle of La Hougue was the decisive naval battle in the war and confirmed the durable dominance of the Royal Navy of England. In November , the inbred, mentally retarded, and enfeebled Spanish king Charles II died, ending the Habsburg line in that country. Louis had long waited for this moment, and now planned to put a Bourbon relative, Philip, Duke of Anjou, on the throne. Essentially, Spain was to become an obedient satellite of France, ruled by a king who would carry out orders from Versailles. Realizing how this would upset the balance of power, the other European rulers were outraged. However, most of the alternatives were equally undesirable. For example, putting another Habsburg on the throne would end up recreating the empire of Charles V, which would also grossly upset the power balance. After nine years of exhausting war, the last thing Louis wanted was another conflict. However, the rest of Europe would not stand for his ambitions in Spain, and so the War of the Spanish Succession began, a mere three years after the War of the Grand Alliance. In desperation, the king appealed to the French people to save their country, and in doing so gained thousands of new army recruits. Afterwards, his general Marshal Villars managed to drive back the allied forces. In , the war ended with the treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt. France did not lose any territory, and there

## V. 3. THE COUNTER-REFORMATION AND PRICE REVOLUTION, 1559-1610, EDITED BY R. B. WERNHAM. pdf

was no discussion of returning Flanders or Alsace to the Habsburgs. While the Duke of Anjou was accepted as King Philip V of Spain, this was done under the condition that the French and Spanish thrones never be united. Finally, France agreed to stop supporting Jacobite pretenders to the English throne. Just after the war ended, Louis died, having ruled France for 72 years. While often considered a tyrant and a warmonger especially in England, Louis XIV was not in any way a despot in the 20th-century sense. The traditional customs and institutions of France limited his power and in any case, communications were poor and no national police force existed. Overall, the discontent and revolts of 16th- and 17th-century France did not approach the conditions that led to The exhaustion of Europe after two major wars resulted in a long period of peace, only interrupted by minor conflicts like the War of the Polish Succession from 1733-1735. Large-scale warfare resumed with the War of the Austrian Succession 1740-1748. By Joseph Duplessis On the whole, the 18th century saw growing discontent with the monarchy and the established order. Louis XV was a highly unpopular king for his sexual excesses, overall weakness, and for losing Canada to the British. The writings of the philosophers such as Voltaire were a clear sign of discontent, but the king chose to ignore them. He died of smallpox in 1774, and the French people shed few tears at his passing. While France had not yet experienced the industrial revolution that was beginning in England, the rising middle class of the cities felt increasingly frustrated with a system and rulers that seemed silly, frivolous, aloof, and antiquated, even if true feudalism no longer existed in France. While less liberal than England during the same period, the French monarchy never approached the absolutism of the eastern rulers in Vienna, Berlin, St. Petersburg. Different social classes in France each had their own unique set of privileges so that no one class could completely dominate the others. Initially popular, he too came to be widely detested by the people. French intervention in the US War of Independence was also very expensive. They were replaced by Jacques Necker. Necker had resigned in 1781 to be replaced by Calonne and Brienne, before being restored in 1782. A harsh winter that year led to widespread food shortages, and by then France was a powder keg ready to explode. On the eve of the French Revolution of 1789, France was in a profound institutional and financial crisis, but the ideas of the Enlightenment had begun to permeate the educated classes of society. On September 21 the French monarchy was effectively abolished by the proclamation of the French First Republic.



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*This chapter presents how in political affairs the years after witnessed a contraction of ambitions in the foreign policies of most European powers and a growing concentration upon asserting authority and overhauling techniques in the more restricted field of domestic government.*

It was not a simple matter. The expedition had three distinct aims: By securing an allegiance with the Portuguese crown, Elizabeth hoped to curb Spanish Habsburg power in Europe and open up her favourites - the trade routes that these possessions commanded. It was a difficult proposition, because the domestic aristocracy and clergy of Portugal had accepted Philip as their King in at the Cortes of Tomar. But he was not a charismatic figure, and with his cause compromised by his illegitimacy, he faced an opponent with perhaps the better claim, in the eyes of the Portuguese nobles of the Cortes , Catherine, Duchess of Braganza. The complex politics were not the only drawback for the expedition. A critical contradiction lay between the separate plans, each of which was ambitious in its own right. Concerns over logistics and adverse weather delayed the departure of the fleet, and confusion grew as it waited in port. The Dutch failed to supply their promised warships, a third of the victuals had already been consumed, and the number of veteran soldiers was only 1, while the ranks of volunteers had increased the planned contingent of troops from 10, to 19, The fleet also lacked siege guns and cavalry " items that had been lavishly laid-on in the Spanish Armada expedition of the previous year " which raises serious doubts about the intentions of those in charge of the preparations. Execution Edit When the fleet sailed, it was made up of six royal galleons , 60 English armed merchantmen, 60 Dutch flyboats and about 20 pinnaces. In addition to the troops, there were 4, sailors and 1, officers and gentlemen adventurers. Elizabeth I of England Unforeseen delays and a fear of becoming embayed in the Bay of Biscay led Drake to bypass Santander, where most of this refitting was underway, and attack Corunna in Galicia instead. Norreys took the lower town, killed Spaniards, and plundered the wine cellars, while Drake destroyed 13 merchant ships in the harbour. A pair of Spanish galleys slipped past the English fleet and repeatedly resupplied the defenders, and at length, with a favourable wind returning, the English abandoned the siege, having lost four captains and several hundred soldiers in the fighting, along with 3, other personnel in 24 of the transports, including many of the Dutch, who found reasons to return to England or put into La Rochelle. Those who remained then turned their attention, first to Puente de Burgos, where Norreys won a modest victory, then to Lisbon. When Norreys invested the city, the expected uprising was not forthcoming and little was achieved. Drake did take the opportunity on 30 June of seizing a fleet of 20 French and 60 Hanseatic ships, which had broken the English blockade on trade with Spain by sailing all around the north of Scotland only to fetch up before the English cannon in the mouth of the Tagus. This seizure, notes R. The English dealt a further blow to Spanish naval preparations and food supplies by destroying the Lisbon granaries, but despite the bravado of Essex, who thrust a sword in at the gates of the city with a challenge to the defenders, the English could not take Lisbon without artillery or open Portuguese support. It was therefore decided to concentrate on the third aim of the expedition, the establishment of a permanent base in the Azores. But the campaign had taken its toll. One of them, the William, was saved by HMS Revenge after being abandoned by her crew, but the ship did not have enough manpower to sail away after the battle and had to be scuttled. The other vessel was engulfed in flames after a long struggle and eventually sank along with her skipper, a Captain Minshaw. At this point, most men were out of action and only 2, were fit to be mustered. Stormy weather had also damaged a number of ships. While Norreys sailed for home with the sick and wounded, Drake took his pick of what was left and set out with 20 ships to hunt for the treasure fleet. He was struck by another heavy storm and was unable to carry out even that task, and while Porto Santo in Madeira was plundered, his flagship, the Revenge, sprang a leak and almost foundered as she led the remainder of the fleet home to Plymouth. Without counting the 18 launches destroyed or captured at Corunna and Lisbon, the English fleet lost about 40 ships. Fourteen of these were lost directly to the actions of Spanish naval forces:

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The rest were lost in storms as the fleet made its return voyage. The outbreak of disease on board were transmitted to the port town populations in England.

### 5: - The New Cambridge Modern History by R. B. Wernham

*The New Cambridge Modern History: Volume 3, Counter-Reformation and Price Revolution, The Counter-reformation and Price Revolution, v. 3 (InglÃ©s) Tapa dura - 1 nov de R. B. Wernham (Redactor).*

### 6: Orbis Holdings Information

*This is the second, amended and enlarged edition of a familiar standard work, first published in Like its predecessor, it describes the open conflicts of the Reformation from Luther's first challenge to the uneasy peace of the 's.*

### 7: Wernham, R. B. (Richard Bruce) () - People and organisations - Trove

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