

The Age of Elizabeth

The political moves made by King Henry VIII against the Catholic Church during his reign did not ensure England would become a Protestant nation. When Henry died, his son, Edward VI [ruled 1547–1553], came to the throne at the age of 10.

Those who helped the young king rule were sympathetic to the Protestant movement. Parliament gave the Protestants further legitimacy by legalizing clerical marriage and adopting a prayerbook of Protestant teachings in 1549. English printers published dozens of Protestant pamphlets. As in France, Protestant mobs destroyed Catholic churches and burned libraries and Catholic books. English replaced Latin in church services.

When Edward died, his half-sister, Mary Tudor [ruled 1553–1558], came to the throne as queen. She was a committed Catholic and tried to restore the power of the Catholic faith in England. To ensure that result, Mary married Philip II of Spain in 1554.

At that time, Spain was considered by many in England to be her strongest enemy. For that reason, her marriage was not popular with her subjects. Mary ordered the persecution of Protestants across the land. Approximately 300 people were burned at the stake. Despite this religious campaign, which gave Mary the label of *Bloody Mary*, Protestants in England emerged stronger than ever.

Any question about the religious future of Protestants and Catholics in England was settled with Mary's death and the rise of her half-sister, Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn. Elizabeth I [ruled 1558–1603] became one of England's greatest monarchs. She did much to ensure that Protestantism would dominate the Christianity of England.

Elizabeth declared herself *the supreme governor* of the Church of England. She removed from office all of Mary's bishops, except one. In 1559, Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy, eliminating all of Mary's pro-Catholic legislation. Parliament also passed the Act of Uniformity, accepting a modified version of the Protestant prayerbook created during the reign of Edward VI.

Catholics made periodic attempts to reverse Elizabeth's reforms. When the Duke of Norfolk staged a Catholic revolt against the queen in 1569, she had him executed.

She did not, however, order the wholesale slaughter of Catholic leaders across her kingdom. In fact, in all the years of Elizabeth's rule, only four people were executed as heretics, and they were all Anabaptists.

Several hundred were jailed for their religious activities, however, and approximately 200 were executed for treason associated with their political and religious activities.

Elizabeth did face serious challenges during her reign. Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots (not to be confused with *Bloody Mary*), was Elizabeth's first cousin once removed. She was a great granddaughter of Henry VII, and therefore had valid claims to the throne of England. Mary was a Catholic. (Her first husband had been King Francis II of France.)

When the Scottish lords rebelled against her in 1568, she abdicated her throne and sought refuge in England, which Elizabeth granted her. Once in England (while technically under "house arrest"), Mary cooperated with every plot to remove Elizabeth from the throne. In 1586, Elizabeth ordered Mary's execution after a letter surfaced in which Mary offered her rights of succession to the English throne to Philip II of Spain.

Following Mary's beheading in 1587, Pope Sixtus V joined with Philip II in a Catholic crusade to remove Protestant Elizabeth I from her throne and destroy English Protestantism. In 1588, Philip sent a fleet of 130 ships—called the Spanish Armada—sailing toward the English Channel.



Queen Elizabeth I

Review and Write

How was Protestantism further legitimized in England during the reign of Elizabeth I? What problems did Elizabeth and Parliament make for Catholics in England?

England and Spain at War

As Philip II prepared to launch a massive attack, he counted his navy as one of the largest and most powerful in the world. His great armada, called the *armada catolica*, or Catholic Armada, was ready to sail early in 1588.

Altogether, the Spanish Armada included 130 ships, weighing 58,000 tons. On board were 30,000 men, roughly 20,000 of whom were soldiers; the remainder were sailors. They were augmented by 2400 cannons. This impressive collection of military hardware and personnel made this armada the largest ever assembled on the high seas.

Pope Sixtus V [1585–1590] officially blessed the ships and their crews. He wholeheartedly supported the expedition. The primary goal of the Spanish attack on Elizabeth I's England was to stamp out the Protestant movement and to claim England as Philip's own. Sixtus promised Philip one million gold ducats once the Spanish landed their first troops in England.

Facing this great fleet of large, heavily armed Spanish ships was an English fleet of approximately 197 ships, many of them merchant vessels pressed into duty as naval ships.

Ships of both countries met on the high seas for years prior to this 1588 conflict. English sea captains, called sea dogs, began raiding Spanish vessels in the Atlantic and elsewhere in 1570. Many of the Spanish victims were treasure ships laden with gold and silver from Spain's New World colonies. English raiders such as Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Hawkins frequently plundered the rich cargoes of these great Spanish galleons, returning the booty to England and to their queen, Elizabeth.

In one three-year period, from 1577 to 1580, Francis Drake sailed completely around the globe, raiding Spanish ships as he went, and returned to England with enough Spanish bullion to equal twice the queen's annual revenues. In fact, Philip's attack on England would have come earlier than 1588 except for his long struggle with the Spanish Netherlands in which Protestants struggled to free themselves from Spanish control, something they had achieved with help from the English by 1585.

When at last the Spanish Armada set sail, Philip II was assured they would succeed in their mission. However, things began to go wrong almost before

the ships had left their Spanish ports.

Many of the Spanish ships, such as smaller galleys, were designed for use on the Mediterranean Sea, and were not suited for use in the choppy waters of the Atlantic. The commander of the expedition was a soldier, not a seaman, causing serious doubts about his abilities as a naval leader.

The crewmen of the Armada spoke six different languages. Because they were a mixed group of Portuguese,

Catalans, Castilians, Irishmen, and English Catholics, communication was difficult from ship to ship. Unused to ocean travel, many of the soldiers became seasick. Much of the food and water on board spoiled, for the barrels and casks in which supplies were stored were made from unseasoned wood.

To make matters worse for Spain, the Spanish government published reports made by the Armada's commander, Medina Sidonia, which detailed the strengths of the fleet. The English commander acquired a copy of the report.

The fighting lasted an entire week beginning on July 21. When the two navies engaged on July 28 at Gravelines, the English completed their defeat of the Spanish. They set fire to ships loaded with gunpowder and sailed them into the Armada. The Spanish navy broke off the fight, fleeing north and sailing completely around the British Isles.

Great storms hit the ships, destroying some and crippling others. In all, the Spanish lost approximately 40 ships. Thousands of Spanish troops died. The English lost only 100 men and not a single ship. Philip's quest to destroy Protestantism in England died at sea.



Review and Write

What problems did the Spanish Armada face in their naval campaign against the English? Why did the campaign ultimately fail?

The Trade Revolution

For a century and a half, from 1500 to 1650, the economies of Europe expanded rapidly. While in earlier centuries, the Mediterranean Sea had been the center of European commerce, now the Atlantic Ocean was the focus of Europe's seagoing trade.

During these decades, the empires of Spain and Portugal declined as colonial powers and others—such as the English and the Dutch—expanded their commercial base. Both nations not only developed extensive trade bases overseas, they expanded their domestic economic base as well.

Spain and Portugal experienced great prosperity in the first half of this 150-year period, only to face serious economic downturns after 1600. Much of Spain's wealth depended on imports of gold and silver from the New World. Experts estimate that Spanish treasure ships delivered 18,000 tons of silver and 200 tons of gold to Spain between 1521 and 1600. In addition, Spain imported American tobacco, rubber, pineapples, chocolate, and wood products.

However, because of the large imports of gold and silver, Spain (and later most of the rest of Europe) experienced an economic downturn called the Price Revolution. This referred to a high inflation rate in Europe. Prices doubled in Spain between 1500 and 1550, and the trend continued.

Because of high prices at home, the Spanish began buying commodities from other producing nations, which hurt Spanish producers. By the late 1600s, trade rivals, such as the Dutch and the English, replaced Spanish merchants and shippers abroad.

Portugal also experienced economic bad times by 1650. It did not have the capital or investment sources at home to build up huge trading colonies overseas. When the population of Portugal shrank during the 1500s from two million to one million (because many Portuguese young left home to seek their fortunes in Portugal's colonies), a labor shortage developed. By the mid-17th century, Portugal was reduced to a struggling, former colonial power.

Taking the economic lead in Europe were England and Holland. Once the Dutch gained independence

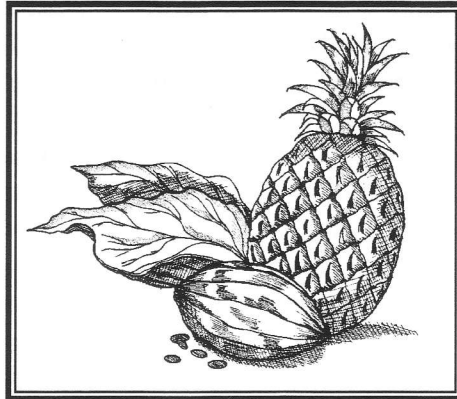
from Spain in the 1580s, they were free to pursue their own economic policy. At home, they developed a sound economy based on exports of herring, which Dutch fishermen (their fleet numbered 2,000 boats) harvested from the North Sea to the Baltic. The Dutch also expanded farming, developing new crops such as clover, turnips, and tulip flowers.

They developed their industrial base, building sugar mills in Antwerp and ceramics factories in Delft, basing their blue-and-white ware on Chinese patterns. Amsterdam became a great diamond-cutting city. In addition, they produced excellent clocks, maps, and lenses.

The Dutch developed a specialized system of lending institutions, banks, and joint-stock companies. The Bank of Amsterdam became Europe's leading bank. The bourse became the most important money market on the Continent. The old Hanseatic League crumbled apart when challenged by the Dutch.

England did not create any economic miracles until after 1550. But between 1550 and 1620, the English economy expanded greatly. Domestic production in coal, iron, lead, and glass helped fuel the expansion. The creation of new trading companies abroad increased England's share of foreign markets.

Not only did England expand into foreign markets from Africa to India to the Orient, it also raided the Spanish treasure ships of the New World during the 1500s. By late in the century, the English were eyeing the Americas themselves, ready to establish colonies of their own.



Review and Write

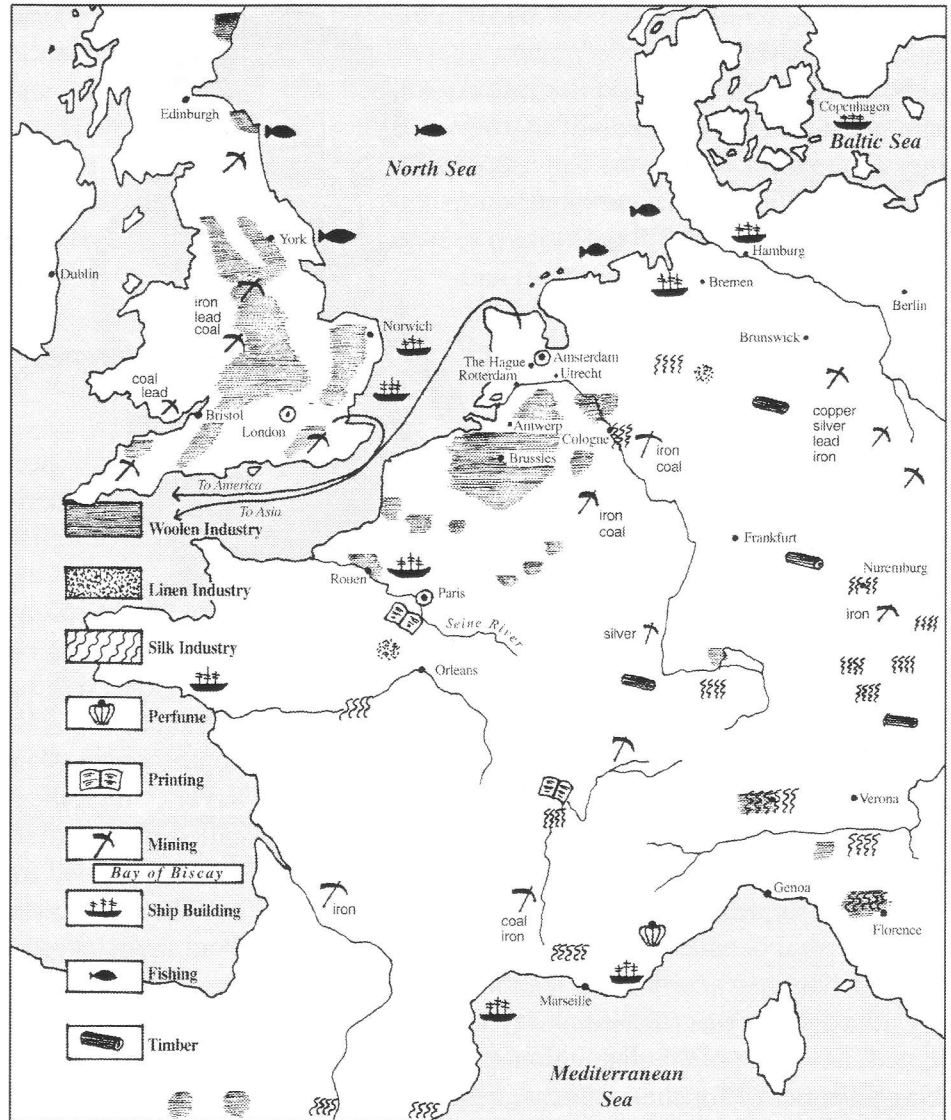
1. Why did Spain and Portugal decline and the Dutch and English expand economically during the late 1500s and early 1600s?
2. Identify ways through which the Dutch expanded their national economy during the 1500s.

The New European Economies

By the end of the 16th century, the economies of Europe were based on a combination of trade exports and imports and the domestic production of both finished goods and raw materials. A raw material is a naturally produced commodity in its basic form, such as timber, coal, wool, iron, or fish. A finished or manufactured good is one produced by working raw materials into another commodity, such as a ship, furniture, gold coins, cannons, and books. Finished goods were produced by the early 1600s in one of three ways. The first involved changing an old medieval guild into a system in which a handful of guild masters managed production and the remaining guild members served as workers.

Another was called the putting-out system in which different people were hired for a single stage of a multi-stage production process. For example, one person spins wool into thread, another weaves it into cloth, another dyes the finished good, and the original wool owner sells the finished product, paying each worker for his or her contribution.

The third method of production was the gathering-in system. (Today, we call such a production structure the factory system.) Under this system, workers all gather at one place to see production of a finished product from beginning to end. Such industries as printing, shipbuilding, mining, and cannon-founding were common examples of the gathering-in system.



Map Exercise

Using the map, answer the following questions concerning the economies of early 17th-century Europe. Write your answers on another piece of paper.

1. According to the map, which was more dominant—the production of raw materials or the production of manufactured goods?
2. What country was noted for its printing?
3. What metals or minerals were produced in Europe in several countries?
4. What countries dominated the woolens trade?

English Colonies in America

During the 1500s, England experienced economic hardships which left many inhabitants searching for a better life. As Spain grew rich in gold and silver from mines in the New World, the English looked on jealously. The same bullion in Europe caused the Price Revolution, creating inflation on the Continent, and the British Isles. The cost of goods and services in England increased five times over during the 1500s.

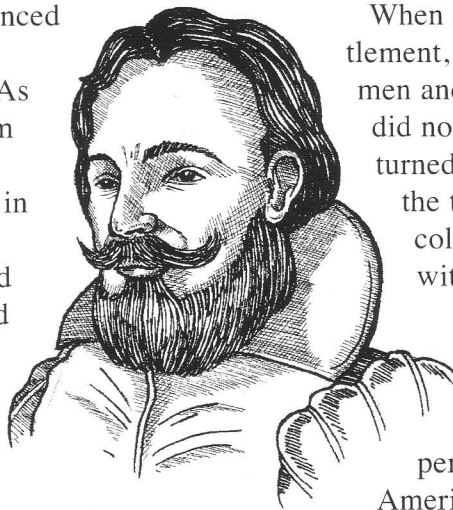
In a short period of time, from the years 1500 to 1590, England's population doubled to four million, making opportunities at home fewer. There was less land for farming. In what is called the enclosure movement, landowners fenced off fields to provide pastureland for their sheep, forcing peasants off the land and leaving them homeless and impoverished.

By the 1580s, in desperation, people began paying attention to a man named Richard Hakluyt, a supporter of the establishment of English colonies in America. He described the New World as a place of limitless opportunities.

During that decade, Englishmen made attempts to establish a presence in America. One of the early adventurers was Sir Humphrey Gilbert. He pursued his vision of English colonies in America, asking Elizabeth I for the exclusive rights to control English colonizing. She agreed to his requests in 1578.

Gilbert never achieved his dream of building English colonies or of finding the Northwest Passage, an all-water route through North America to the Orient (one does not exist). In fact, he died in a North Atlantic storm after leading an expedition to Newfoundland in 1583.

Another adventurer, a half-brother to Gilbert named Sir Walter Raleigh, took up Gilbert's dream in 1584. Elizabeth gave him permission to explore North America and establish a colony. In 1585 he outfitted a 600-man expedition to modern-day North Carolina. There they established a colony on Roanoke Island, leaving behind 107 men to occupy the new settlement under Governor Ralph Lane.



Captain John Smith

When disease nearly destroyed the settlement, Raleigh sent another party of 114 men and women in 1587. But the colony did not survive. When supply ships returned in 1590 (having been delayed by the threat of the Spanish Armada), the colony was gone. It had vanished without a trace.

This loss brought an end to Raleigh's investments in America. During the 1590s, no one attempted to establish permanent English colonies in North America. Finally in 1606, a group of English investors sponsored a group of 144 men and boys in establishing a

New World colony. After a long voyage on three small ships, the colonists landed in the coastal waters of a region they called Virginia, after Elizabeth I, the Virgin Queen. They built a fort and houses on an island located 30 miles up the James River (which they named after King James I). They called their settlement Jamestown. Captain John Smith provided important leadership.

The colony's investors anticipated a rich profit from their investment in the New World. However, the colonists did not find gold or silver. In fact, they struggled for years just to survive. By January of 1608, only 38 colonists had survived their first year at Jamestown! But the English had accomplished their mission: Jamestown would become the first permanent English trading colony in North America.

Research and Write

1. One member of the Jamestown colony who helped the colonists survive their early years was Captain John Smith. Find out how, and write 100 words concerning his efforts at Jamestown.
2. What problems in England during the 1500s led Englishmen to attempt colonization in the Americas?

From Shakespeare to Rembrandt

By the late 16th and early 17th centuries, the work of European artists, sculptors, playwrights, and poets had grown increasingly secular.

The greatest literary artist of this period may well have been the English playwright and poet William Shakespeare (1564–1616). Shakespeare

wrote three dozen plays including histories, comedies, and tragedies. Some of his greatest tragedies—*Hamlet* (1601), *King Lear* (1605), and *Macbeth* (1606)—while not set in England, revealed pertinent themes such as the abuse of power and authority.

The subjects and themes of Shakespeare's plays were often the object of moral criticism. Puritans complained that his plays featured revenge, murder, insanity, suicide, ghosts, and witchcraft.

Yet Shakespeare was not alone in writing for the English stage. Roughly 300 English playwrights produced thousands of plays between 1580 and 1640. Other nations produced their own great dramatists. The Spaniard Lope de Vega (1562–1635), a contemporary of Shakespeare, wrote more than 1500 plays!

Some of the greatest contributions to the art of the period came from those who worked in the baroque style. Sometimes identified as Late Renaissance, the Baroque era covered the period from 1600 to 1750. The origins of the word *baroque* are not clear. Perhaps it derives from the Portuguese word, *barocco*, meaning “irregularly shaped pearl.” It may come from the Greek word *baros*, meaning “heavy.” Regardless, the word refers to art which is highly colorful, sensual, elaborate, passionate, bright, and grand.

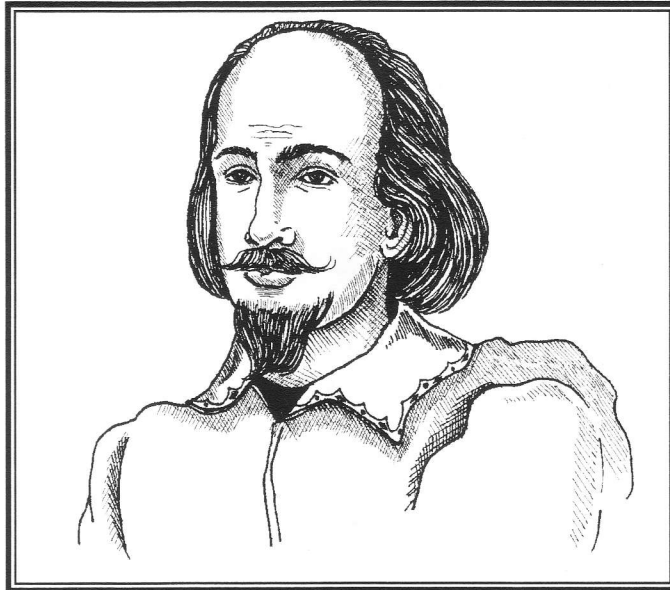
As with Renaissance art, the Baroque movement began in Italy. The traditional models of classical art became exciting, powerful, even garish in the hands of Baroque artists. Baroque art is extremely ornate, sometimes overdone, and was designed to stun or startle.

Baroque painters knew no state boundaries. The greatest Baroque artist was known as El Greco, the Greek. Born Domenico Theotokopoulos (1541–1614), he painted in Spain, producing vibrant works which emphasized lightness and airiness. El Greco was highly religious and a devout Catholic. The majority

of his works feature religious subjects.

The greatest of the French Baroque painters was Peter Paul Rubens (1577–1640). Rubens painted large canvasses featuring a wide variety of subjects including biblical scenes, allegories, and portraits. He especially enjoyed depicting the human body, clothed and unclothed. His works usually include scenes of high drama, passion, and a flamboyant use of color.

In Holland, the greatest



Playwright, William Shakespeare

painter of the period was Rembrandt van Rijn (1606–1669). Although his works do not present as much drama, lightness, and color as those of other masters of his day, they are technically inspiring. Rembrandt painted religious subjects, but was also one of the greatest portrait painters. His use of contrast between light and dark is rivaled by no one other than perhaps Da Vinci.

Research and Write

1. Select one of the baroque-period artists and architects listed below and write 150 words about his work: Gian Lorenzo Bernini, Diego Velasquez, Murillo, Nicolas Poussin, Claude Lorrain, Anthony Van Dyck, Jan Vermeer, or Frans Hals.
2. Describe the contributions made to English literature by William Shakespeare.

The New European Science

The scientific revolution began to spread across Europe during the Late Renaissance. This movement was an important one which continues today. Why science advanced during those decades is not clear. In part, it was a direct response to rediscovering ancient Greek and Roman manuscripts.

The ancient Greeks thought about science in philosophical terms. Rarely did they separate science and philosophy. They described the physical world by describing the qualities of matter rather than the quantities of matter.

European science of the 1500s and 1600s was, therefore, often a response to the inaccuracies of Greek, Egyptian, and Roman science. The Greek philosopher Aristotle believed that the earth was the center of the universe and that the planets and sun revolved around it in circles on the same plane in space (geocentric theory). Copernicus (1473–1543), a Polish astronomer, argued against this theory, promoting a heliocentric theory, with the sun as the center.

Despite its reliance on superstition and folk myth, the Middle Ages was instrumental in fostering the new science. Medieval Europeans viewed the world as God's creation—orderly and bound by eternal laws. (Scientists would come to refer to such cosmic rules as natural laws.)

Even the Protestant Reformation encouraged the dawning of the new scientific age. As religious leaders began to question the authority of the Church, so the scientifically curious began to doubt long-standing theories about the world and the cosmos.

One such thinker was an Englishman named Francis Bacon (1561–1626). He pioneered the process of what is now called the *scientific method*. Using this approach, Bacon argued that the only information he could accept as scientifically true was what he observed or experienced through his senses. This approach led to the development of using *observation*, *scientific research*, and *experimentation* to determine the *truth* of a scientific *fact*.

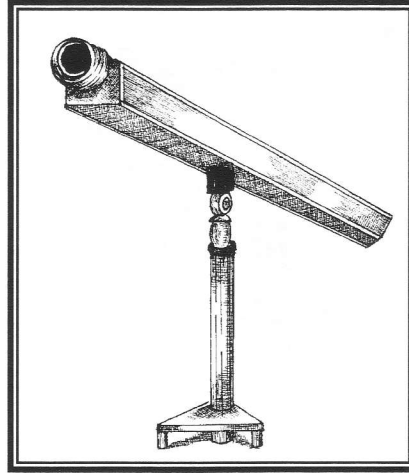
During the 1600s, European scientists, to help

them observe, examine, and calculate their theories using the scientific method, began to develop scientific instruments. The famous Italian astronomer Galileo (1564–1642), constructed the first telescope in 1609 for scientific use. (Earlier, Dutch lens makers had built such a device as a novelty and to observe ships approaching from great distances.)

Galileo used his first telescope (and later improved models) to observe the heavens. He was the first to observe the moons of Jupiter. Galileo was the first to create accurate maps of the moon. Galileo was also the first to use the newly invented microscope (a Dutch instrument) for scientific purposes.

Other inventions that aided the advance of science were the thermometer (said to have been invented by Galileo); the barometer, invented in 1643 by Evangelista Torricelli (1608–1647), to measure pressure in the atmosphere, which helps to predict

weather changes; and the first pendulum clock, built by Christian Huygens (1629–1695), which kept better time than earlier models. (Huygens's work with telescopes allowed him to discover the rings of Saturn.) Otto von Guericke (1602–1686) constructed an air pump around 1650. This device allowed scientists to create vacuums. In 1600, London physician William Gilbert (c. 1540–1603) wrote a paper on magnetism, in which he argued that the earth is an immense magnet. Such discoveries of the 1600s gave Europeans a different view of their world.



Review and Write

1. What connection is there between Francis Bacon's idea of scientific observation and the inventions listed above?
2. What important discoveries were made or proven by the astronomer Galileo?

Challenges to England's Monarchs

The first 50 years of the 17th century brought much change to England's monarchy. Queen Elizabeth I—known by her loyal subjects as “Good Queen Bess”—died in 1603. At her death, many questions remained concerning the exact relationship between the monarchy and the English Parliament. Direct conflict between the queen and Parliament had been largely avoided. But as the Protestants in Parliament gained strength, a serious confrontation seemed inevitable.

Having never married, Elizabeth had no direct heir. She was followed by a son of Mary Queen of Scots (whom Elizabeth had ordered beheaded), a Scot named James I [ruled 1603–1625]. Already the king of the Scots, James I knew little about ruling the English. He was also a very difficult man.

James I was a staunch believer in the theory of divine right according to which kings and queens ruled as God's representatives. Divine right gave monarchs across Europe power over all courts, Parliament, even English law itself. This placed James I above the law, which he could alter, decree, or suspend at will.

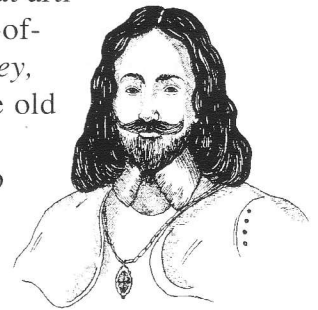
Religiously, he also brought other problems to the monarchy. He was convinced that Calvinist Protestantism would weaken the power of the state and vowed to drive it out of existence in England. Such Protestants, commonly known as Puritans, were soon persecuted by the king's troops. Some left England entirely, such as the Pilgrims who sailed on the Mayflower to America in 1620.

James I also persecuted Catholics (although he first promised them religious toleration). This turned English Catholics against him. A handful of Catholic fanatics, led by Guy Fawkes, plotted to assassinate the king by blowing up Parliament on November 5, 1605, a day when James I was scheduled to speak before the session. The scheme, called the Gunpowder Plot, was uncovered and the conspirators punished.

When James I died in 1625, his subjects did not mourn his passing. His son, Charles I [ruled 1625–1649] was no more popular than his father. He was a stubborn, willful, and lazy king.

Charles I had trouble from the beginning of his reign. Parliament tried to expand its influence at the king's expense. In 1628, Parliament passed the Petition of Right, which was intended to limit the power of the king. The petition did not allow the king to levy taxes or to imprison anyone without a trial by jury.

In response to the act, Charles I dissolved Parliament, vowing he would not allow its members to meet again for eleven years—from 1629 to 1640. To finance his kingdom, Charles levied and collected old, obsolete taxes. He sold trade monopolies to companies at artificially high rates. An out-of-date levy, called *ship money*, was resurrected. While the old law had collected money from coastal towns to help pay for the royal navy, Charles I required the tax to be paid by all towns, even those hundreds of miles from the coast. All such moves were resented by his subjects and former Parliament members. Time was running out for Charles.



Charles I

By the late 1630s, talk against the king was turning to open rebellion. It began in Scotland where Charles ordered Calvinist churches to use the structures of the Church of England. Riots soon broke out. Scots rose up in protest. Faced with the Scottish revolt, Charles I was desperate for money. He turned to the only place he could—Parliament.

Review and Write

1. List the decisions and enactments made by James I and Charles I which angered their subjects. What do you think caused them to pursue such unpopular programs?
2. Why was *ship money* such a controversial subject during the reign of Charles I?

Civil War Comes to England

In April 1640, Charles I called Parliament back into session for the first time in eleven years. He was in need of monies to put down the Scots and their rebellion against him. However, many of the body's leaders demanded reforms from Charles before they would approve taxes. Frustrated, Charles dissolved this Short Parliament the very next month.

However, with his money problems unresolved, the king recalled Parliament again in August. Because this Parliament was not formally dissolved until March 1660, it became known as the Long Parliament. This Parliament was not going to cooperate with the king, however. The House of Commons was dominated by men opposed to Charles I. Immediately, they began creating legislation to limit the power of the king.

A rift developed between members of Parliament, however. Protestants known as the Puritans dominated the Parliament's membership. One faction among them felt the king's power had been adequately limited; the other wanted to continue stripping the monarchy even more.

Charles tried to take advantage of the quarrel and went to Parliament himself, accompanied by several hundred soldiers in January of 1642. His intention was to arrest five leaders in the House of Commons who were working to limit the king's power. Since they knew of the king's purposes ahead of time, they were not present in the chamber that day.

The king's move was a decisive one. Many members of the House of Commons believed the king had gone too far. In August 1642, when Charles I called for his supporters to rally behind him against Parliament, the House of Commons began preparing for war, calling for an army of 10,000 men.

Soon English citizens were taking sides. The nobility supported Charles. Those who were enlisted to his aid were called the Cavaliers (because they wore their hair long, down to their shoulders). The Puritan supporters of Parliament were known as the Roundheads, because they kept their hair cut short. Geographically, the king drew support from western and northern England, while Parliament found allies in the south and east. Many citizens did not support either side, with whole counties and towns declaring themselves neutral.

Parliament had several advantages upon entering into civil war against Charles I. Most of the people of London supported them, as did the coastal towns (remember the *ship money* collected by Charles?), and the navy.

Charles made serious mistakes from the beginning of the conflict. He failed to march on London quickly, giving his opponents time to organize and defeat his army. Among the Puritan military leaders, Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658) brought discipline and order to the Parliamentary army, creating the New Model Army of 20,000 men. These men were well paid, loyal to Cromwell, and sang hymns when marching into battle. The Roundheads defeated the Cavaliers at Marston Moor (1644) and at Naseby (1645).

Hostilities continued for several more years, as Parliamentary troops whittled away at Cavalier support for Charles I. Despite desperate attempts to negotiate with the Puritans, Charles was captured and tried in a Parliamentary court. The king of England was found guilty and was beheaded on January 30, 1649.

Oliver Cromwell administered the English republic as Lord Protector for the next eleven years, a period referred to as the Inter-Regnum (1649–1660), meaning "period between reigns." Trying to rule England without the power of a king (much of common law was based on royal rule) was difficult for Cromwell. Many of his policies were unpopular, including his Puritan closing of English theaters. After he died in 1658, Cromwell's son, Richard, became Lord Protector. Incompetent, he resigned in 1660. This opened the way for a needed change in England. In May, the eldest son of Charles I was asked to return from exile and take up the throne as Charles II.

Review and Write

1. What advantages did Parliament have in their war against Charles I?
2. Describe Oliver Cromwell's administration after the death of Charles I.

The French Monarchy

The religious wars of the 16th century came to an end in France when King Henry IV [ruled 1589–1610] finally renounced his Protestant faith and declared himself a Catholic. He then declared—through his Edict of Nantes (1598)—toleration for the French Protestants known as the Huguenots. Through his capable leadership, France reclaimed her status as the most powerful nation in Europe.

A part of the credit for France's recovery after devastating wars and mismanagement by incapable monarchs should be given to the Duke of Sully (1560–1641). He served as Henry's finance minister. Sully increased the royal revenues through better management and more accurate accounting methods. He also campaigned against corruption in the French bureaucracy.

In addition, Henry encouraged the building of new French manufacturing facilities, which produced luxury items such as silk, tapestries, crystal glass, and perfumes.

By 1610, Henry's reign produced order, stability, prosperity, and peace. But his days were numbered. Just as he prepared to launch a military campaign against the Spanish and Austrian Habsburgs, he was assassinated by a religious fanatic named Francois Ravaillac. Ravaillac stabbed Henry in his carriage as he traveled through the streets of Paris.

Political chaos in France followed Henry's death. His son, Louis XIII (who was only nine years when his father was killed), ruled. Henry's widow, Marie de Medici (1573–1642), tried to control events. Problems developed, however. The French nobility gained power at the expense of the crown. Civil war broke out between the Huguenots and the nobility.

In the midst of the confusion, a great French statesman rose to a place of power: Armand Jean de Plessis (1585–1642), known as Cardinal-Duke of Richelieu. By 1621, Richelieu became a favorite of the queen and helped her regain power, along with young Louis.

From 1610 until his death in 1642, Richelieu served Louis XIII as his first minister. Because Louis was a weak ruler, Richelieu managed to manipulate the king at nearly every turn. Richelieu, as a

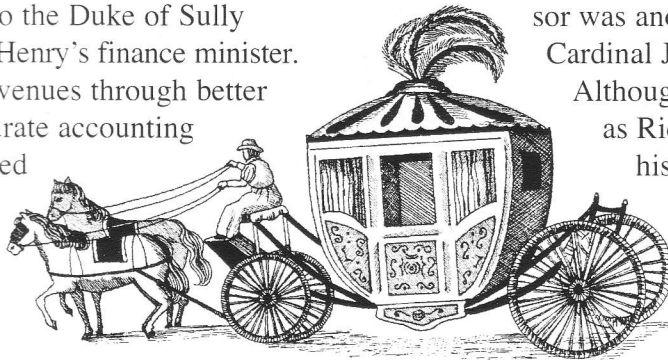
Catholic clergyman, did not want the Protestants to retain power in France. To make certain they would not, he altered the Edict of Nantes in 1629, denying the Huguenots all political and military privileges. Richelieu also heavily taxed the people, including placing direct taxes for the first time on key French provinces. He stripped the nobility of any real authority which might otherwise challenge royal authority.

Cardinal Richelieu died in 1642, and his successor was another Catholic clergyman, Cardinal Jules Mazarin (1602–1661).

Although Mazarin was not as capable as Richelieu, he pursued many of his goals. Within months of Richelieu's death, Louis XIII died, leaving the throne to his son, Louis XIV, who was then only five.

The French people turned against the controlling influence of Mazarin in 1648, launching a protest known as the First Fronde. (The rebellion took its name from the French word for *slingshot* since Parisian boys often used slingshots to fling balls of mud at the royal carriages as they passed by.)

The First Fronde lasted from 1648 to 1653. It was a direct reaction to the alleged corruption and mismanagement of Mazarin. Three distinct groups participated in the revolt against Mazarin: the French nobility, frustrated taxpayers, and the Parlement of Paris, a law court made of noblemen and wealthy merchants. When Mazarin ordered the leaders of the Parlement arrested, Parisians took to the streets, rioting. Civil war followed. Royal forces eventually quashed the rebellion.



Review and Write

1. Describe the contributions made by the Duke of Sully during the reign of Henry IV.
2. What were the Frondes?

The Thirty Years' War Begins

As the nation-states of Europe became more powerful and the rivalry between the leading states more acute, war became a common fact of European life. The years of the Glorious Revolution in England took place between 1450 and 1660. European armies were fighting one another during all but four of those years (1548, 1549, 1550, and 1610).

One of the most significant wars of that period occurred between 1618 and 1648. Historians refer to the generalized conflict as the Thirty Years' War. It occurred as a result of conflicts that had been building throughout the 1500s. Much of the war devastated the Germanies and their people.

However, to refer to the decades-long conflict as a single war is misleading. The war is actually divided into four periods: The Bohemian (1618–1625), the Danish (1625–1629), the Swedish (1630–1635), and the French (1635–1648). Although the phases are connected in time, each leading to another, the causes underlying them differ. The Bohemian and Danish periods were fought mainly for religious reasons, part of the continuing struggle between Protestants and Catholics. Later fighting became more political and the conflict ended as a struggle for power, with the French and the Swedes fighting against the Habsburgs.

The Bohemian phase began with a revolution in Bohemia after a Catholic, Ferdinand II (1578–1637), was elected king by the Bohemian Diet. Ferdinand was a Habsburg who became Holy Roman Emperor in 1619. When Ferdinand closed some Protestant churches, Bohemian Calvinists were certain they were facing persecution. In 1619, the Bohemian Diet deposed Ferdinand, after rebels took control of the city of Prague. They then elected Frederick V (1596–1632) in his place. Frederick was a Calvinist who was James I of England's son-in-law.

Not to go quietly, Emperor Ferdinand II was aided by Catholic friends such as Maximilian of Bavaria and his Catholic League, as well as Habsburg, Spain. In 1620, Maximilian sent mercenary troops (which

included soldiers for hire from Russia, Poland, and Ireland) into Bohemia. Jesuit priests marched with this Catholic army, inspiring the troops. The soldiers named their twelve cannons after the Twelve Apostles of Jesus. Catholic forces won a decisive battle against the Protestant forces in support of Frederick at White Mountain outside of Prague in November 1620.

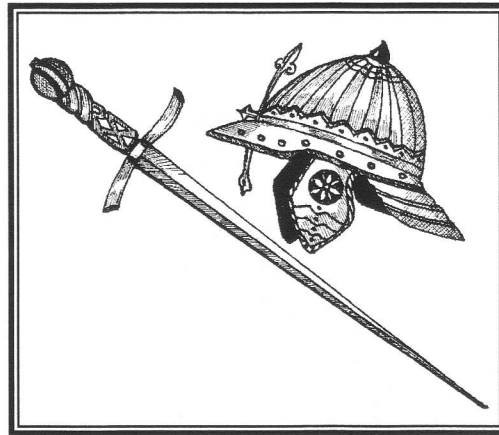
Frederick himself fled Bohemia taking refuge in the Netherlands.

Catholic troops then proceeded to lay waste to Frederick's lands. Many Protestants were killed by rampaging Catholic armies. Ferdinand launched a religious campaign against Protestants in Austria. In some regions of the Holy Roman Empire, Protestantism nearly ceased to exist.

Such religious fighting led to the involvement of other European

powers in the greater conflict known as the Thirty Years' War. The Protestant King of Denmark, Christian IV, raised an alliance of states against Ferdinand II. His efforts met with mixed results. France was reluctant to join in because of problems at home with the Huguenots. England's James I was already at odds with his Parliament (whom he would have to ask to raise taxes to fight a foreign war). The Dutch were afraid their involvement might raise the anger of their neighbor, the Spanish Netherlands.

With no serious allies, Christian IV marched against the Holy Roman Empire with an army of 20,000 soldiers. He was met by a large Catholic force of Emperor Ferdinand's imperial troops. Ferdinand had allied himself with Albert of Wallenstein, a Bohemian nobleman, who had remained loyal to his fellow Catholic monarch. Together, Ferdinand and Albert's forces defeated Christian IV's troops.



Review and Write

Describe the Bohemian phase of the Thirty Years' War.

The Thirty Years' War Continues

During the Danish phase of the Thirty Years' War (1625–1629), while Emperor Ferdinand, Christian IV, and Albert of Wallenstein battled it out in Germany, another conflict was taking place in Italy. Although not technically part of the Thirty Years' War, this conflict changed the nature of the war for the future.

In 1627, the Duke of Mantua (a northern Italian state) died, leaving no heir to succeed him. Emperor Ferdinand stepped in, attempting to take control of the region. The French went to war with Ferdinand and placed a Frenchman on the Mantuan throne.

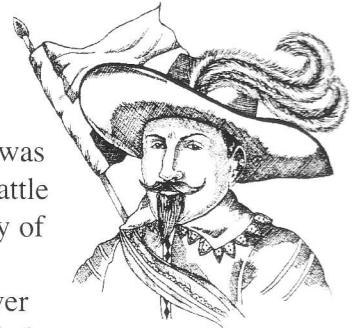
While this conflict was a minor one, it alarmed the pope, Urban VIII [1623–1644]. Once again, the Holy Roman Emperor was bullying a neighbor of the Papal States. Urban allied himself with Catholic France against the Catholic Habsburgs. The result was a split among Catholics. Future struggles in this war caused Catholic nations to side with Protestants against another Catholic power.

The third, direct phase of the Thirty Years' War, the Swedish period (1630–1635), began with the landing in the German state of Pomerania of a 15,000-man army under the command of the Swedish king, Gustavus Adolphus [ruled 1611–1632]. He took his troops into the Thirty Years' conflict because Cardinal Richelieu of France offered him money. The king hoped to create a united Protestant Germany.

Adolphus was an extremely talented military commander. His army, one of the best trained in Europe in its day, was well organized, well disciplined, and well paid. His musketeers carried new weapons that were lighter and easier to fire. His troops wore bright blue and yellow uniforms. Adolphus was one of the first European commanders to clothe his troops in uniforms that stood out, reducing confusion among his soldiers on noisy, chaotic battlefields.

Adolphus led his troops and those of the Brandenburg Elector, George William [ruled 1619–1640] against the Holy Roman Empire. In 1631, they captured the city of Magdeburg, burning everything except the cathedral. Later battles brought great victories to the Swedes. By 1632, Adolphus had captured Vienna and Prague. But Adolphus's campaign came to an end when he was killed during

the battle of Lutzen. His death brought an end to his army's success. In 1634, the Swedish army was nearly destroyed in the battle at Nordlingen. The Treaty of Prague (1635) gave the Habsburgs new power over both the Protestant and Catholic German princes.



Gustavus Adolphus

The final phase of the Thirty Years' conflict was the French period (1635–1648). French and Swedish armies fought Habsburg rulers of Austria and Spain. Most of the fighting, however, took place in the German states. This was the most destructive phase of the war. Whole towns were destroyed, and the countryside was laid waste. Millions of people were killed, children starved, and wolves roamed the deserted streets of unfortunate German communities.

After repeated battles, the Swedes and the German Protestant princes finally negotiated the end of the conflict. The treaty, called the Peace of Westphalia, officially ended the Thirty Years' War. By the treaty, Sweden, France, and Brandenburg acquired territory. The Habsburg rulers in Germany lost much of their power. From this time on, the Holy Roman Empire was a weak state and all forms of Protestantism were now protected in the Germanies.

However, the war brought devastation to the German states. Historians estimate that between 1618 and 1648, the years of the war, the population of the Germanies was reduced from 21 million to 13 million.

Review and Write

1. How and why did the Thirty Years' War change from a religious conflict to a political one?
2. Why was the army of Gustavus Adolphus different from other period forces?
3. Describe the end results of the Thirty Years' War.

Test II

Part I. Multiple Choice (Worksheets 15–20)

Match the answers to the right with the statement on the left.

- | | |
|---|------------------------|
| _____ 1. Half-sister of Queen Elizabeth who persecuted Protestants in England | A. Spanish Armada |
| _____ 2. Pope who joined with Philip II in a Catholic crusade against England | B. Rembrandt van Rijn |
| _____ 3. Navy of Philip II which sailed to England in 1588 and faced defeat | C. Jamestown |
| _____ 4. Dutch money market which became the most important in Europe | D. Sixtus V |
| _____ 5. Production system with workers all in one place to produce a product | E. Baroque |
| _____ 6. Nonexistent all-water route through North America | F. gathering-in system |
| _____ 7. First permanent English colony in America | G. El Greco |
| _____ 8. Practice by which landowners fenced off fields for pasture land | H. Northwest Passage |
| _____ 9. English playwright who produced Hamlet, King Lear, and Macbeth | I. enclosure movement |
| _____ 10. Artistic style of the 1600s which emphasized color and sensuality | J. bourse |
| _____ 11. Greek painter whose works were usually light and airy | K. William Shakespeare |
| _____ 12. Greatest of the Dutch painters | L. Mary Tudor |

Part II. Multiple Choice (Worksheets 21-27)

- | | |
|---|------------------------|
| _____ 1. Polish Astronomer who promoted the heliocentric theory | A. Oliver Cromwell |
| _____ 2. Pioneered the process known as the scientific method | B. Francis Bacon |
| _____ 3. Invented the first pendulum clock | C. Ferdinand II |
| _____ 4. Constructed the first telescope for scientific use | D. Charles I |
| _____ 5. English monarch beheaded in 1649 | E. Christian IV |
| _____ 6. Lord Protector of England from 1649 to 1660 | F. Christian Huygens |
| _____ 7. Decree of Henry VI of France protecting Protestants | G. Edict of Nantes |
| _____ 8. Name of French rebellion from 1648 to 1653; word for “slingshot” | H. Gustavus Adolphus |
| _____ 9. Habsburg emperor of the Holy Roman Empire during Thirty Years’ War | I. Galileo |
| _____ 10. Protestant king of Denmark who was defeated by Catholic forces during the Danish phase of the Thirty Years’ War | J. Copernicus |
| _____ 11. Swedish king who was killed during the Swedish phase of the Thirty Years’ War | K. Peace of Westphalia |
| _____ 12. Treaty ending the Thirty Years’ War | L. First Fronde |

Part III. Respond and Write

What changes did the economies of the European nations experience between 1500 and 1650? What caused these economies to be different by the mid-17th century?