

The European Wars
of the
Last Half of the Sixteenth
Century

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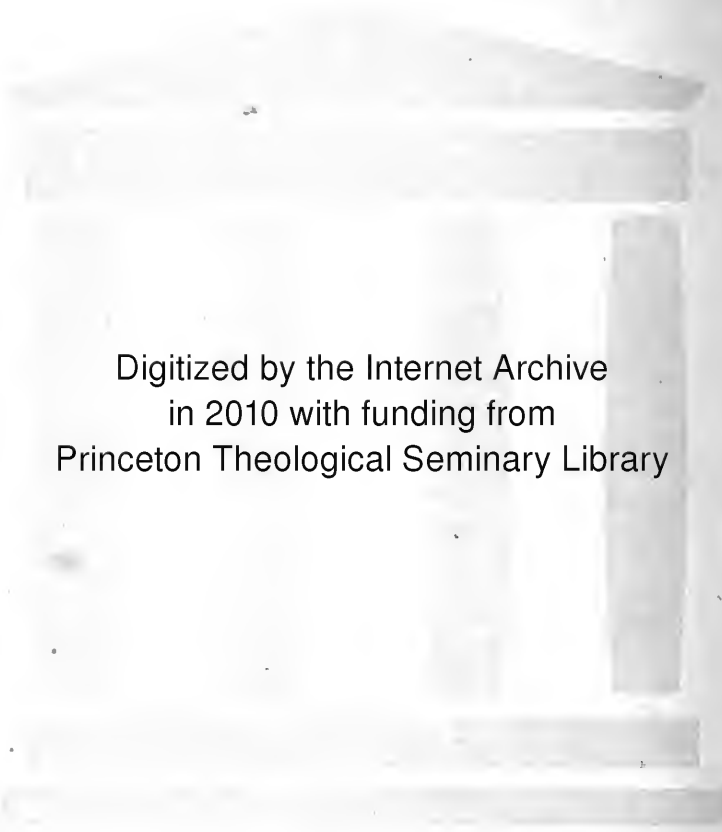
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The European Wars of the Last Half of the Sixteenth Century.

The Reformation is quite commonly known as the Teutonic Schism.

I. CHARACTER OF THESE WARS.

One great struggle passing through many stages—civil, national, religious.

PEACE OF AUGSBURG (1555) is the starting-point. It was an interval between two religious wars, in which there were two elements.

1. *Religious*—three types.

(a) Lutheran. Followed the teachings of Luther, as expressed in the Augsburg Confession. Contained a large proportion of the German people and many German princes.

(b) Calvinistic. Calvin had settled in Geneva, training many preachers there. He took a middle position between Luther and Zwingli. Lutherans and Calvinists were at swords-points with each other. War might have followed had it not been for the common danger:

(c) Roman Catholic Church. This had greatly reformed—The Counter-Reformation. Council of Trent (1545-63) had defined the doctrines of the church. The new order of Jesus (Jesuits) had done much to bring back heretics to the fold of the church. Two things mainly brought on the war between these three factions—the unwillingness of the Reformed Papacy to own that it had lost the religious headship of the world and the idea of all statesmen that two worships in one state would be dangerous to civil institutions. A sharp distinction must be drawn between religious toleration and religious equality. The latter was unknown; the former soon became a necessity.

2. *Political*. Absolutism was the order of the day. Politics meant the rivalry of princes and *not* national interests. This absolutism was different in different countries.

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(a) In England. The freedom of the people had gone backward several stages and an absolute monarch was on the throne.

(b) In France. The policy of Francis I. was an arbitrary one. People had little power and their desires for a better government were laughed at. Culmination of all this was in the time of Louis XIV., as shown in his statement, "L'etat c'est moi."

(c) In Spain. Charles I. (1516-1556) was an absolute and not a national prince. Open revolt broke out and the Holy League of Abelon was instituted. Its army totally defeated in 1522, at Villalar, thus destroying the last hope of the people.

(d) In Germany. Princes were absolute everywhere. Even the cities were in the power of the princes.

TERMS OF THE PEACE OF AUGSBURG.

1. There were three great sections of the German Empire—the Netherlands, Swiss Confederation, the Valley of the Rhine with all the states drained by the Rhine, Elbe, and Upper Danube. In the two latter sections the Peace went into effect as follows: (a) *Cujus regio, ejus religio*. This made the princes the authority in religion in their separate states. (b) Either Roman Catholic or Lutheran religion must be followed by all. (c) Anyone who should differ, in religion, from his prince should leave the state.

2. By the Peace of Cappel, the Catholics gave to the Protestants of Switzerland freedom of religion and of conscience.

3. Spain and the Netherlands. Charles tried in both these countries to carry out his own will, by means of the Holy Office or Inquisition. In Spain Protestantism was wiped out. It could not be crushed in the Netherlands.

II. THE DANGER OF FRANCE.

1. Dissent or heresy in France was too strong to be put down.

2. Toleration was not regarded seriously, for it seemed impossible to have two churches in one state.

3. A middle position was suggested—to overthrow the power of the Pope and to compromise.

Five things should be carefully noted.

A. The introduction of the reformed religion in France. Lefevre and the Bishop of Meaux were prominent in this. The church became aroused and persecution began.

B. The Reformers seek toleration from the crown. Francis I. caused Berguin to be released.

C. Later the system of toleration fails for three reasons.

(1) Iconoclasm or the destroying of statues by the heretics.

(2) The sermon of Nicholas Cop and the execution of Berguin.

(3) The Placards. Terms of these placards were violent against the Pope and all Roman Catholics. The King was insulted directly by them.

D. Persecution again started up by means of three things.

(1) New Laws. These were extremely severe.

(2) New Courts. Special courts were instituted for heretics.

(3) The Edict. By it new judges were appointed, all right of appeal was denied, censorship of the press ensued, property of all men who went to Geneva was confiscated, discussion of matters of faith by unlettered people was prohibited, and informers were to get a good share of all spoils.

E. John Calvin becomes the defender of the reform movement. In France, Holland and in parts of Germany his influence was great. His doctrine was called Reformed, to distinguish it from the Lutheran or Protestant doctrine.

ORGANIZATION OF THE REFORMED CHURCH IN FRANCE.

1. The Congregations. The representative government of Geneva furnished a good model for these. Churches were quickly organized.

2. The main object of the Reformers was a union into a church which should be national. In 1559, a convention met secretly in Paris and formed the Synod of France.

3. The nature of this church.

(1) Based upon democratic foundations.

(2) There was a trained ruling class, which formed the executive part of the government, and was responsible to the people.

(3) It combined central direction with local government.

4. Attempt of the crown to suppress this church. Anne

Du Bourg, a nephew of a chancellor of France, was executed for heresy and his death won over many to the Reformed Church, which soon became a strong factor in politics.

III. THE POLITICAL ELEMENTS OF FRANCE.

1. The king (Francis II.) was but fifteen years old, and was, therefore, greatly influenced by outside forces.

2. The three great Houses of French nobility.

(1) Bourbons. They were of royal blood. Two brothers are prominent—Antoine de Bourbon and Louis, prince of Condé. This House was divided between Roman Catholic and Reformed Church.

(2) Montmorency-Chatillon. Anne of Montmorency, constable and admiral of France, was at its head. Coligny was his nephew. This House took a middle position.

(3) Guise. Consisted of six brothers. At its head were the Cardinal of Lorraine and Francis, Duke of Guise. They were distinctly Roman Catholic.

3. The influence of the Queen Mother, Catharine de Medici. She was feeble, ambitious, selfish and unscrupulous, and had a great influence over her son's mind.

Supremacy of the House of Guise.

A. Two causes for this.

1. The military success of the Duke of Guise against the English at Calais.

2. Favoritism. They openly flattered Francis II. Also, the Cardinal of Lorraine was uncle of the Queen (Mary, of Scotland).

B. Opposition caused by this supremacy.

1. The Guises were zealous Catholics and were hated by all of the Reformed Church.

2. They excited the jealousy of the ancient nobility.

3. They were very tyrannical.

Conspiracy of Amboise.

Its primary object was to overthrow the House of Guise. A plot was formed among the nobility. The plan was to assemble in South France and await the orders of Condé and Renandie. The Confession of Faith was to be presented to the King, after which the Guises were to be arrested. Vague

rumors came to the King, and a Royal Edict of Amnesty was issued, which promised forgiveness to all who would return to the Roman Church. The plot progressed, but Renandie was betrayed, and all of the conspirators fell into the hands of the royal troops. No prisoner was allowed to live, and many of the bravest men in France died.

IV. THE CIVIL WAR IN FRANCE.

1. The alliance between the Reformed Church and the opponents of the Guises now becomes the Huguenot Party. They now made thorough preparations for war.

2. The Queen-Mother and the Chancellor (Michel de l'Hospital) take steps toward conciliation.

3. The House of Guise now made a cowardly attack upon the Bourbons. The latter were summoned to Paris and were then thrown into prison.

A compromise was now made, which crushed the power of the Guise faction. Catharine agreed to set the Bourbons at liberty, upon condition that she should become regent. Charles IX. (1560-1574) was now upon the throne. There were many difficulties to be overcome, and, therefore, the States-General had to be assembled in August, 1561. At this time the Chancellor made a speech advocating peace and religious equality.

The demands of the Third Estate.

(1) Lessening of ecclesiastical salaries and other financial changes.

(2) A more truly constitutional government.

(3) Religious equality. With this end in view a Colloquy of Religion was called at Poissy, but nothing was accomplished.

The Edict of January.

This was a formal declaration of the right of the Reformed Church to exist in France. It was rather a lame expedient for those of the Reformed Church. It was later found to be unsatisfactory to both parties.

Soon after this the Massacre of Vassy occurred. In this town of South France, a meeting of followers of the Reformed Church was being held. The Duke of Guise hap-

pened to be passing through the town. He broke up the meeting, killing fifty men. Civil war almost immediately followed. A cabal had been formed by the Chancellor, the Duke of Guise and the Marshal of France, which had treated secretly with the Spanish Ambassador. Condé had been asked to join but had refused to do so. He now became the leader of the Reformed forces in South France.

Character of the war.

Religious zeal was at the bottom of it, but there were many other motives. Help was also called in from foreign countries and this caused the war to deteriorate. The Huguenots were defeated at Dreux and Condé was captured. Coligny now became their leader and was quite successful. The Duke of Guise was assassinated. This first war was soon ended by the Edict of Amboise. This gave a certain amount of religious freedom. One city in each province was left free.

The second Civil War.

1. The Edict was not rigorously kept and the Huguenots suffered.

2. A conference was held at Bayonne, and the Huguenots suspected alliance between the Catholics of Spain, England and France.

3. The policy of conciliation broke down.

4. The conspiracy of Meaux was formed by the Huguenots. The plot was discovered and Condé was defeated.

5. Condé later blockaded Paris, but was defeated again. In 1568 the restoration of the Edict of Amboise took place. This was only a short peace, for the politique or middle party was soon overthrown. The Chancellor retired.

The Third Civil War.

1. The war began because all of the edicts of toleration had been withdrawn. Huguenots were defeated and Condé was treacherously killed. Coligny becomes their leader again.

2. The great march of Coligny around France. He avoided pitched battles and supported his army by ransoms and by the crops. In July, 1570, he was near Paris and was there met with offers of peace.

3. The Peace of St. Germain. Liberty of conscience to

be allowed; Reformed worship in all cities in which the majority of the population was Huguenot at the time of the edict; judges and right of appeal; the edict was declared perpetual.

The Politiques and their policy.

They were the moderate party. Their policy was:

1. To have Coligny in their council.
2. To have Mary of Valois marry Henry of Navarre.
3. Alliance between England and France against Spain.

V. THE NETHERLANDS.

1. Mary of Burgundy was the only child of Charles the Bold. She married the Emperor of Austria, Maximilian, and Charles V. was their grandson. Mary was also heiress to the Netherlands. In 1516 Charles became King of Spain. In 1519 he became Emperor of Germany.

2. Rule of Charles V. He was strong, but had many traits which made him popular. In 1555 he abdicated, for in all his plans he had been frustrated. His son Philip succeeded him.

3. Character and rule of Philip. He was silent, reserved, severe, had a great love of power, loved secrecy, had a zeal for religion, and was weak rather than wicked. By the treaty of Cateau-Cambresis Spain triumphed over France. One-third of the French possessions went to Spain. Philip early tried to crush Protestantism in the Netherlands. Martial law had been proclaimed against all heretics in 1550 by the "Blood Placard." Philip now re-established this. He soon after left the Netherlands to be governed by his sister, the Duchess of Parma, since he was called away to Spain. Granvella, the Bishop of Arras, was made the secret regent.

4. Opposition to the new government.

(a) From the nobility, who thought him an upstart.

(b) From the dissenters.

(c) From the great body of the nation.

Protests were made, and the Spanish troops were recalled. Granvella was removed in 1563.

5. Philip renews his plans. The Decrees of Trent and the "Blood Placard" were reinstated, and Egmont was sent to remonstrate with the King. This emissary's request was disregarded and the Netherlands prepared to rise.

Signs of the coming storm.

1. A letter from Orange to the Duchess of Parma, which told of the desperate condition of industry and of the people.

2. The compromise of the lesser nobles. This meant an offensive and defensive alliance against foreigners, and it decried the Inquisition. Three hundred men presented it to the Duchess. They were called "Beggars" by one of the courtiers, and they later adopted this name at their banquet, which was their signal for uprising.

3. The people gathered in crowds to hear the forbidden preaching. Iconoclasm became frequent.

THE "ACCORD."

1. An agreement was finally reached. This obtained religious toleration and the dissolution of the "Confederacy" which the "Beggars" had formed.

2. Philip was very much enraged on account of the "accord." He immediately decided to send an army to prepare for his coming. He had been very deceitful in all his dealings with the Netherlands. Orange saw all this, and in 1567 crossed over to his estates in Germany.

3. The Duke of Alva was sent to the Netherlands. He had secret orders giving him absolute power to subject the people to the King's will.

4. The "Blood Council" was founded to try cases of treason. It was sworn to secrecy and most of its power was vested in Alva. In three months 1,700 people were executed and their estates confiscated. The result was a general emigration.

Orange prepares for war.

He supplies war funds from his own purse and from the contributions of refugees. Invasion of Netherlands in three places was proposed. Two expeditions were cut to pieces. The force which entered furthest north was successful. Philip retaliated by killing two princes of the Netherlands—Egmont and Horn. These men were executed in the Great Square at Brussels. In the battle of Jemmingen, Alva defeated Louis of Nassau. The main invasion under Orange also failed, since he could not force Alva into a pitched battle,

and gradually Orange's army left him and he became a mere fugitive. The Pope now honored Alva in various ways and his triumph was complete.

VI. REVOLT OF THE NETHERLANDS.

Since Orange was an independent prince of the Empire, he appealed to it for aid. This did not help him, so he turned to the Huguenots, who were old enemies of Spain. The Huguenot privateers did damage to the Spanish ships.

The Rule of Alva helps Orange.

1. The new taxation. The effect of this severe taxation was the absolute crippling of all manufactures and commerce. This meant the utter ruin of the Netherlands. One tax (the tenth penny) was especially severe and it was suspended for two years.

2. The quartering of Spanish troops.

Orange arms the "Beggars of the Sea."

These were given commissions and their method was to carry on a sort of privateering. At Brill the Sea-Beggars stole into the city in the absence of the Spaniards and fortified it. At Flushing the people rose in revolt and went over to the Beggars. In the northern provinces a general uprising took place against Alva, but in the name of the King. The Prince of Orange was appealed to for help, and he answered the call. His policy now was to delay, since Alva was anxious to fight. For a while the royal armies were everywhere victorious, and the Protestant forces defeated.

Now Orange first heard of the massacre of St. Bartholomew. It had a very bad effect upon his army.

The "Grand Design."

This was the policy which Coligny outlined for Charles IX.

1. It was to control religious differences by political need.
2. Political jealousies were to be overcome by union against a common danger. To do this, war against Spain was advocated.

This policy displeased Catharine, for she was jealous of

Coligny and feared the growing power of the Huguenots. An attempt was made to kill Coligny. She conspired with the Duke of Anjou and the widow of Guise. Coligny was wounded in the arm while passing an empty house. The King visited his sick-bed, but within twenty-four hours utterly changed his attitude toward him and the other Huguenots.

The King's change of mind.

Fear was the foundation motive. Catharine increased his fear of the Huguenots as much as possible. The King agreed to the death of Coligny and a general massacre.

VII. THE MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW. 1572.

Seven hundred Huguenot gentlemen were in Paris to celebrate the wedding of Henry of Navarre. Many of these were lodged in the Louvre. These were nearly all killed. The Huguenots across the Seine were on their guard. The chief object of the plot was to kill Coligny, and this was accomplished in a most cruel way. His house was entered and he was hacked to pieces and then his head was cut off. The number of killed on that night cannot be exactly ascertained, but 4,000 were slain in Paris alone. Slaughter was widespread throughout France.

Excuses for the Massacre.

It met with the popular approval of France. Catharine advised that a letter be written throwing the whole blame on the Guises. In Spain, also, great joy was felt.

The Huguenots Rally

At first the Huguenots were stupefied, but soon take active measures for defense, especially at La Rochelle. In 1573, the Huguenots met, with the royal permission, and formed a sort of Republic, called the Huguenot Assembly. Several demands were made, but the Huguenots asked for too much. In the next ten years, three civil wars were fought.

Five results of these new wars.

1. Feudalism was revived. The Royal Governors became feudal lords.

2. The creation of a state within a state. The Huguenot Assemblies were really independent commonwealths.

3. The paralysis of the power of the crown. Henry III. (1574-89) was very weak and he was now crushed between the feudal nobility and the new Huguenot power.

4. Misery of the French people. Their terrible condition is illustrated by the Compact of Vivarais.

5. Hatred and jealousy of leaders. The example was set by the quarrel between Henry III. and his brother, the Duke of Alençon. France had now a duel from one end to the other.

VIII. THE WAR IN THE NETHERLANDS.

1. Holland had been horror-stricken at the Massacre of St. Bartholomew. Many of its cities were destroyed by the Spanish, and their misery became such that the Protestants and Catholics were now making a united effort against Spain. A last stand was made at Alkmaar, and the Spaniards were forced back by the opening up of the dykes. Alva retired from office and Orange called for one last effort. On the sea the Spaniards were all the time defeated, but remained victorious on the land. Siege of Leyden was raised by cutting the dykes and flooding the country. Philip II. was now ready to yield all but one point—the freedom of worship of his subjects in the Netherlands. His offers were refused and the war continued. Holland and Zealand united. The latter province was cut off by a daring expedition of the Spaniards.

2. The Declaration of Independence. A Representative Assembly met and the Prince of Orange was empowered to act as dictator. Charters were no longer in the King's name. Holland was in desperate financial straits, however.

3. The Spanish Mutiny. This was due to the scant amount of money in the treasury, which was unable to pay their wages. One result was united action under Orange.

4. The Pacification of Ghent. This was a religious truce for the Catholics and Protestants of the Netherlands. Later the Union of Utrecht (Protestant) and the Union of Arras (Catholic) were formed. The latter wanted the King of Spain to continue to rule. A third party wished to have the Duke of Anjou rule over them.

5. The rule of Anjou. Orange was made Duke of Bra-

bant and Protector of the Netherlands, but Anjou was nominal ruler. He was a poor ruler, had little ambition, was vacillating and untrustworthy. An attempt was soon made to assassinate Orange, who had a price set on his head by Philip II., but he was only wounded. A plot was now made by Catharine (Anjou's mother) to have the French seize the Netherlands. Attempt failed and soon after (1584) Anjou died. In the same year William of Orange was assassinated by a religious fanatic named Gerard.

Anjou's death and the Huguenots.

As long as Anjou was protector of the middle provinces of the Netherlands, King Henry could not attack the Huguenots in France. Anjou's death made Henry of Navarre the heir-apparent of France.

Decay of National Sentiment.

Two leagues were now formed. 1. The Huguenot Alliance. 2. The Holy League of the Catholics. In these two leagues national sentiment was disregarded altogether. Each wanted merely to extirpate the other, and the King was crushed between the two. A battle on paper now ensued and three proclamations were published. (1) King calls upon the people. (2) The League declared war against all enemies of the Catholic religion and the state. (3) Henry of Navarre issued a proclamation, protesting his loyalty to the King.

* After much hesitation Henry III. joined the League. The Edict of Nemours now forbade all Reformed worship. The Huguenot answer was a declaration of war.

The War of the Three Henri's.

1. Henry of Navarre followed the delaying policy of Coligny, but won a pitched battle at Contras. The effects of the battle were slight.

2. The relations between the King and Guise became strained.

3. The Day of the Barricades. Philip II. of Spain was the real master of the League, and he wished to seize Henry III. Guise entered the city with many soldiers and he soon

became absolute master of Paris. The King was made prisoner, but later escaped.

4. The Edict of Union. By this no civil office should be granted to non-orthodox men and a full pardon was given for all past acts of the League.

IX. THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.

1. Henry VIII. (1509-47). He and his children were of an absolute temper. He was strong and handsome. Henry's policy was to hold the balance of power. He wished to be divorced from Catharine, the daughter of the Spanish King. The Council of all the cardinals was against this, so Henry resolved to separate the Church of England from that of Rome. Henry is soon forced into a Protestant alliance, but keeps a middle position. He meant his successors to adhere to this same policy.

2. Edward VI. (1547-53) and the triumph of the Protestants.

3. Mary Tudor and the Catholic Reaction (1553-58). She was most sincere of all the sovereigns of the sixteenth century. Charles V. and the Pope were her chief advisers. Two chief aims:

(a) A restoration of the Catholic obedience in England.

(b) Her marriage with Philip II. of Spain.

Both of these aims Mary accomplished. 1555-58 was a period of persecution. Notable among the martyrs were Rogers, Hooker, Ridley, Latimer and Cranmer. Mary died in misery, hated by her people and abandoned by her husband.

4. Elizabeth (1558-1603). Spain supported her claim to the throne, fearing that if Mary Stuart ascended the throne France would have influence in England. She followed her father's policy and forbade all foreign jurisdiction in England. She had three powerful enemies:

(a) Mary, Queen of Scots, who had both Scotland and France back of her and also the Catholics of England. Two things saved Elizabeth—Spain's fear of Mary and the religious change which took place in Scotland. This latter event had come about through the efforts of John Knox. Mary had two wishes—to subject the Scotch nobles and to win England.

Mary became implicated by a marriage with Lord Both

well, after her first husband (Darnley) had been murdered. She finally was forced to take refuge in England.

(b) The Papacy was the second great peril of Elizabeth.

A Bull of Deposition was published against her. Elizabeth was now aided by the support of Parliament, of France, and the slowly turning temper of the English people. There was a seminary at Douai (just across the channel) for training Catholic priests. These tried to reinstate Catholicism in England. Parliament was alarmed and stringent laws were passed against them. An act was passed stating that all who attended this seminary were "ipso facto" traitors. Thus it can be seen that Elizabeth was growing very popular. England had increased in power along all lines on account of her middle policy.

(c) Spain. England and Spain feared each other and the diplomacy of both was very crooked. Elizabeth was strong-minded and kept to her point of favoring neither France nor Spain. She also united with a woman's jealousy and vanity a masculine understanding. Her policy appears to be a wavering one, but it was really a shrewd defense. Secret hostility between Elizabeth and Philip was kept alive by the piracy of English sailors, the Spanish treatment of English seamen and the aid given to the Netherlands by England.

The secret Spanish attacks upon Elizabeth.

Quite frequently they had attempted to assassinate Elizabeth.

(1) John Hawkins discovered the Rudolfi Plot, by a pretended betrayal of the English fleet into the hands of King Philip. Mary Queen of Scots was implicated in this.

(2) Dr. Allen's Plot. A Jesuit named Parson was his chief instrument. A conference had been held with Guise.

(3) Throgmorton's Plot. This man had been put on the rack and had confessed everything. Six priests were also executed for rebellion. The Spanish Ambassador was ordered to leave within fifteen days. War approaches.

X. THE ARMADA.

War with Spain was brought nearer by the deaths of Anjou and Orange. Assassination had occurred so frequently that Englishmen feared for Elizabeth and the "association"

was formed to look after her interests. Philip got ready to make a decisive blow, and England prepared for a counter-attack. Drake especially showed great vigor in privateering.

Meanwhile the Earl of Leicester, who had been sent to the assistance of the Netherlands, proved himself incompetent. The war hung fire for some time, since Elizabeth wished to take no decided action and Philip was abiding his time. He planned to have Parma invade England with a land force of 30,000 troops.

Test of Philip's sincerity.

The statesmen of England wished to find exactly where Philip stood, so they laid a trap for him and Mary Queen of Scots. Philip escaped the trap, but Mary fell into it and the Babington Plot was disclosed. Elizabeth was to be murdered and there was to be a Catholic uprising, to put Mary on the throne. Babington and all concerned in the plot perished. Mary was tried and found guilty of treason. She was finally executed. Her death cleared Philip's way, for he now claimed the throne of England in his own name.

Drake's attacks upon Spain.

He first went to Cadiz and there burned the Spanish galleys and store-ships, then went to Lisbon and Cape St. Vincent, having crippled temporarily the power of the Armada.

The sailing of the Armada.

In January, 1588, this great fleet was ready. The old admiral meanwhile died and Philip made the great mistake of putting an inexperienced man in command of his naval force. Medina Sidonia, the new admiral, found the fleet in Lisbon in very poor condition. In May the fleet sailed. There were 150 vessels and 30,000 men.

The two fleets and the battles.

1. The Spanish fleet. Ships were large, but were overcrowded with soldiers, and the men were underfed. Vessels were clumsy and were short of powder. Eight thousand sailors on board.

2. The English fleet. It was in perfect condition. The

ships were small and could sail close to the wind, and the marksmanship was fine. They shot five shots to one of the Spaniards. Nine thousand sailors on board. Short of powder.

3. The battles. The Spanish vessels were greatly damaged, while the English vessels were untouched. The Armada put into Calais, but was driven out by fireships. A second battle followed and the Spaniards fled. After some hesitation they retreated north. Many ships were wrecked. Thirty ships had been sunk in battle, sixty had been lost afterwards, and only sixty returned home.

XI. AFFAIRS IN FRANCE.

In 1588 the States-General met at the King's summons. Each side made a great effort to get delegates. The League had a larger number of delegates, and since the King could not win them over, he made an apparent submission to Guise, giving conduct of affairs to him. The King soon plotted to kill Guise in his council-chamber. Guise was advised to flee the country, but obeyed the summons of the King. He was stabbed, the King placing his foot upon the dead body of Guise. The whole Guise family, including the cardinal, was also killed.

The League revolts.

All France fell away from the King under the leadership of Mayennes. The royal forces then joined with the Huguenots under Henry of Navarre against the League. Swiss and German troops were also hired. The King was about ready to make an attack when he was assassinated by a monk.

The disputed succession.

There were four difficulties in the way of Henry of Navarre.

1. He had been excommunicated.
 2. The vote of the States-General was against him.
 3. The ambition of the princes of the League, backed by Philip II.
 4. Unwillingness of the people to have a heretic as king.
- Henry really wished to have the two religions in France

side by side. His army was divided in opinion and many deserted.

The League revolts again.

About one-half of France supported Henry IV. and one-half opposed him. Mayennes, secretary-general of the League, upheld Bourbon as Charles X. The affair at Arques, in which Mayennes met with a great loss, the Siege of Paris, and the triumph of moderation followed in quick succession. Nine-tenths of the clergy now stood by Henry. In the battle of Ivry (1593) Henry showed great bravery and strategic ability. Although he won a victory, the four difficulties still blocked him.

Henry meets dangers.

1. Concessions made to great nobles. Flattery was used.
2. Foreign alliances. An appeal was made to Protestant Europe.
3. Gallicanism—the readiness of French bishops to protect French Sees from papal interference.

Henry's danger soon became that of France on account of the intrigues of several nobles. Henry could either make concessions or he could turn Catholic. He did the latter. Henry was a fine politician and his moral principles were not very strong. Through love for France he embraced Catholicism. The King was everywhere greeted with shouts of approval.

The breaking up of the League.

An attempt was made to kill the King. As a result all Jesuits were banished from France. They were "ipso facto" guilty of treason. Henry then bought off the other chiefs of the League.

XII. WAR WITH SPAIN.

1. Internal difficulties. France was exhausted. Henry improved the financial conditions with the help of Rosny. He then made military preparations and became reconciled with the Pope. Mayennes was won over in September, 1595.
2. External conflict. Philip was fairly successful at first,

but an alliance of England, Holland and France was formed. Naval reverses of Philip followed and he became utterly bankrupt.

3. The turning-point of the war. Philip made one last effort and took Amiens, while Henry was amusing himself at court. Henry aroused himself and retook Amiens. This practically settled the war.