JCC

THE SECOND ANGLO-DUTCH WAR: SEIZURE OF NEW AMSTERDAM

BESTMUN 25'

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Letters From the Under Secretaries General

Esteem delegates,

My name is Dilara Yılmaz, and I am a second-year student at Ankara University. My major is in Germanistik, which is the official term for German Language and Literature. This semester I had a mandatory class for “Nederlandse” grammar, which gave me the idea for this committee. So, I want to start my thanks with Doc. Dr. Mustafa Güleç for his lectures and for giving me the idea for this committee without even knowing it. My next thanks are for Başar Naci Açıkalın and Berat Burak Okyar for accepting being a part of this committee. They did a great job with the whole guide-writing process and have been great teammates in general.

I have been in the MUN community since 2021, and I wanted to try a new committee method, as far as I’m aware, using almost only naval battles. I really hope you enjoy this experience as much as we did while researching and writing this document. As the academic team, we are expecting you to study upon this guide (please read all of it is really good material written in such hard conditions), be ambitious about the committee, try to win the war using proper ways, and as always, have fun. Last but not least, I want to thank the BESTMUN family, especially our Honorable Secretary General Osman Batu, for giving me the opportunity of creating this committee and preparing this great conference. If you have any questions, you can contact me via dilarayilmaz206@gmail.com.

Sincerely, your Under-Secretary General

Dilara Yılmaz

Hello and welcome to BESTMUN 2025 study guide delegates, my name is Başar Naci Açıkalın, your Co-Under-Secretary General. I am a fifth-year student at Hacettepe University, majoring in Actuarial Sciences. Unlike Dilara, I do not study Dutch or have an academic figure to thank for it. I am simply here for my academic experience to present this committee to you in the best way possible.

I want to firstly express my gratitude to Dilara Yılmaz for inviting me and trusting me enough to split roles with me, and secondly to Berat Burak Okyar for being an amazing Academic Assistant. Within the three weeks of writing this paper, we learned, studied, and worked hard for all 60 pages of this document for you to study upon.

Next, I want to thank the Executive Team of BESTMUN 2025 for accepting me and giving me this opportunity to be a part of their conference. Considering the last time I was a participant in one of their conferences, I was just becoming a chair board member myself and getting a pink macaron at BESTMUN 2023 2 years ago, it is my greatest pleasure to write and operate this committee with the best of my abilities.

I wish you all a great conference, and most importantly, I hope you have fun. This is a JCC after all. And if you have any questions, you can reach me via:

naci_acikalin@outlook.com

Sincerely, your Co-Under-Secretary General,

Başar Naci Açıkalın.

Letter From the Academic Assistant

Honourable delegates,

Welcome to the Joint Crisis Committee of BESTMUN'25. I am Berat Burak Okyar, an 11th grader studying at Jale Tezer Private Science High School. I have been doing crisis committees for 3 years now and I am quite excited to be the Academic Assistant of this committee.

I would like to thank my best friend and brother, Mehmet Ege Arpağ, for his support throughout my entire MUN career. Next, I would like to thank our dearest Executive Team, for their unending efforts for the conference and our committee specifically. I would also like to thank our Head of Crisis, Ali Batuhan Taçbaş for his ambition for the committee.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my Under Secretaries General, Dilara Yılmaz and Başar Naci Açıkalın, for having me with them, for every help and lesson they gave me (especially the ones in Dutch), and for thinking of such an incredible and original committee and procedure. I know that nothing I can possibly say can be enough to thank them.

This committee is going to be really fun, as we are trying something partly new. Throughout the committee, you are going to be having many naval warfares, in fact, land battles may not even occur. If you like history and ships, this is the committee for you.

For any questions you might have, you can send an email to me via beratburakokyar@gmail.com. Hope to see you all in the conference.

Sincerely,

Berat Burak Okyar

1. Introduction to Crisis Committees

1.1. Procedures

1.1.1. Classic Crisis Committee Continuity

You may skip this part of the guide if you have ever been in a crisis committee before. However, if this is your first time, the Academic Team highly encourages you to keep your focus on this heading.

Crisis committees (CCs) are cabinets that differ from traditional UN Charter and MUN procedures. It is full-on warfare moderation. Each and every one of the delegates (Academic Team included, Crisis Team excluded) are going to be role-playing as one of the key generals, admirals, or leaders of the war. We call these entities characters. As a delegate, your quest in CCs is to win the war. Your perspective shall change according to the motives, political thoughts, and even mental aspects of your character. Assuring that each character in both cabinets will be real people who actually lived during the 17th century, proper research on who your characters are is the most important thing a character can do.

There are basic documents that we require the delegate to write during your sessions called ‘directives’. The continuing heading of this paper stands more on them.

1.1.2. Tour de Table

Tour de Table is basically a CC type Roll Call. In this committee, we will use some procedures that are not very traditional. Your chair board will call out your character’s name using alphabetical order (The exact phrase is: “Is -character name- actively present in the cabinet?”), and when they do, you will have three options:

“Yea (Pronounced Yay)”

“Nay” or

“Present”

However, in this case, if you say “Present”, you will be absent without actually being absent. What that means is that you actually will be on record and will be present for all debates and wartime actions, but you will not be able to take the actions and contribute to the debates yourselves. If you say “Nay”, you will be stricken out from the record written by your cabinet clerk. You will not be able to debate in any way, you will not be able to write any kind of directives with anyone in the cabinet, and you will not be able to write attack directives unless they are top secret. The delegate who said ‘Nay’ during the Tour de Table can use this to their advantage and write individual directives that benefit themselves.

If someone in the committee says ‘Nay’ or ‘Present’, they can later change their status in the cabinet via message paper to their respective chairperson, stating, “I want to be actively present” or a similar statement that basically states the same thing.

1.1.3. Code of Conduct

In MUN Conferences, the Code of Conduct (CoC) embarks upon two primary rules, Dress Code and Diplomatic Courtesy.

Normally, in a GA committee, delegates are obligated to wear business attire with ties. And in CCs, the dress code still forbids casual wear. However, rules are a bit more elastic as long as the dress/costume type is relevant to the topic. For instance, 17th Century or somewhat relevant attire, or wearing 17th-century British or Dutch flags and uniforms, is accepted in our committee. And much like the dress code, we also get to bend diplomatic courtesy as long as it is not abused. Racial or religious slurs and intense swearing are still

forbidden and definitely will result in the removal of the delegate from the conference at the maximum. Remember that you are respected personalities.

1.2. Committee Documents

1.2.1. Message Papers

Message papers are given to you in your BESTMUN 2025 participant kit, and you may always want more. Massage papers are used if a delegate wants to talk to another delegate in the committee without cross-talking, but in CCs, there is actually one more use for them, which is to talk to the other cabinet. Message papers CAN get the Top-Secret mark if intended to.

1.2.2. Press Releases

Press releases are the only way of talking to the public or a crowd as your characters. With them, you can boost morale, make statements or situations, and create publicity. You can write press releases on a random piece of paper and send them to your crisis team with your admins, but they should have “from” and “to” sections.

1.2.3. Directives

Directives are by far the most complex and important part of any CC. To take actions as your characters, this can be a war tactic, strategy, creation of a certain compound, training soldiers, actually, anything that you can think of, as long as it is possible in real life, you need to write directives. Directives should not be complicated or poorly written, and they should also be easy to read. However, do not make the mistake of writing one that does not have enough specifications. Directives should be very specific with ALL of the details. Remember that any poorly executed directive you write can and will be used in favor of or against you, as it will come back with a good or bad outcome on the next update or be rejected depending

on the mood of your Crisis and Academic Team. Directives are divided into five different types. Personal, Joint, Committee, Informative, and Top-Secret directives.

1.2.3.1. Personal Directives: Personal Directives contain personally intended actions by one person. 'From' section has the sending character's name, and it can only be one name, and the 'To' section has the intended related department(s). If you said "Nay" or "Present" in the Tour de Table, you could use this type of directive.

1.2.3.2. Joint Directives: Joint Directives are written the same way as Personal Directives. When more than one character writes a directive together, it is considered to be a joint directive. It is used to give directives more reach, and it gives the contributing delegates a little bit more ease when writing directives. If you said "Nay" or "Present" in the Tour de Table, you could not use this type of directive.

1.2.3.3. Committee Directives: When the whole cabinet writes a directive altogether with the signatures of everybody actively present, it is a committee directive. It is used when a cabinet agrees upon some actions to be taken as a one organ with all members in favor. People who said "Nay" to "Present" are not added to this equation, so their signatories are not needed to pass a committee directive.

1.2.3.4. Informative Directives: Informative Directives are mostly used in the first few sessions for gathering information about your troop and militia numbers. Or they can be used later when new additions are present in your army, and you want to learn about them. If you said "Nay" or "Present" in the Tour de Table, you could use this type of directive.

1.2.3.5. Top-Secret Directives: Top-Secret Directives have the most variables by far. They can be applied to all types of directives except Committee Directives. Normally,

in all types of directives, your chair board shall review the written document, and it needs their approval to proceed to the higher-ups, but when you issue a Top-Secret Directive, it goes directly to the Crisis and Academic Team, without any warnings to your chair board. To issue a Top-Secret document, you need to write ‘Top-Secret’ or ‘Confidential’ on the back of it.

2. History of the Kingdoms of the British Islands and Past-Wartime England

2.1. Monarchy in Britain

The roots of monarchy in the UK date back to the times when it did not exist as a state. Its origins can be observed all the way back to the Anglo-Saxon era and the multiple kingdoms before the merger of England as a single entity. Compared to more recent rulers, the monarchs started out as people of great power, with its limits of course. The concept of monarchs consulting with their subjects paved the way for the establishment of a Parliament in the thirteenth century. As time progressed, documents like Magna Carta (1215) were agreed upon to bring constraint to the powers of the monarchs. However, these constraints were not as restrictive as they became later on.

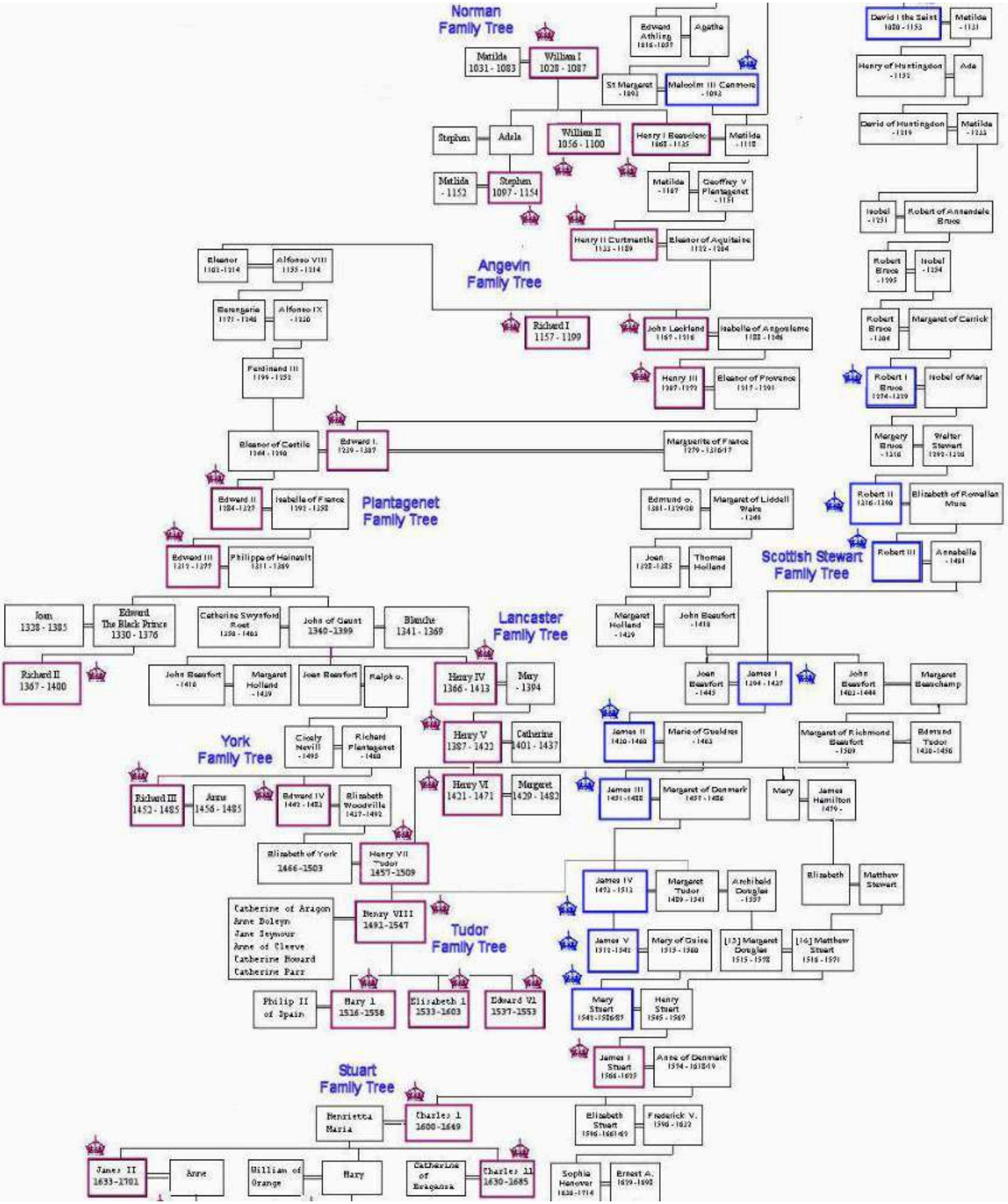

Figure 1: The Family Tree of British monarchs between the Medieval Era and the Stuart Era.[1]

After the death of Elizabeth I in 1603, James VI of Scotland came to the throne of England and merged the two kingdoms under his grace, and with that they attempted to impose a more assertive monarchical absolutism, but this action resulted only with the restraints of a constitutional base to have a firmer footing for the Parliament as it became the supreme representative institution. Later on, there was an eleven-year period of monarchy absence in Britain after the civil wars and the execution of Charles I in 1649 – 1660 (The Constitution Society, 2024). This paper (the reason being the restrictive parameters to the timeline by the agenda item) only covers part of Britannia's immensely long history of monarchs, specifically from the start of the Medieval Era until the middle of the Stuart Era. If the delegates want to do further research, they can use the references to this heading to do so.

2.2. Medieval Times (1066 - 1485)

The Battle of Hastings in 1066 marked the beginning of a new era, ending the early medieval times, with the victory of the Duke of Normandy, William the Conqueror. The defeat of the Anglo-Saxon King resulted in Normans taking the throne and transforming the main islands, mainly seen in architecture. William and his knights are known for the castles they have built and transformed England to help impose Norman rule. Their clerks dominated the churches and monasteries, reconstructing them to have the new 'Romanesque' aesthetic. Social structures and lordships (land ownerships), were all recorded in the Domesday Book.

The heir to the throne was the offspring of William the Conqueror, Henry I. During his rule and after his death, the country went into civil war (The Anarchy), and it ended with Henry II ascending to the throne.

[1] Royal Family Tree | Britroyals. (n.d.). https://www.britroyals.com/royaltree.asp

Afterwards, following the dethronement of Richard I, his brother, King John was forced to sign the Magna Carta in 1215 in order to apply the aforementioned restrictions to his powers, which led to a French invasion.

Reign of Henry III, included complications with his barons such as Simon de Montford, and Wales was conquered by Edward the First in his reign, followed by the reign of Edward the Second, where he made a name for himself with his heroic actions, using a longbow, in the Hundred Years' War from 1337 to 1453. However, the structured system of England was disrupted by the Black Death in 1348, when an anomalistic plague killed half the population and brought forth a labor shortage. The chain reaction of events led to the Peasant's Revolt in 1381.

After Richard II, the Lancasters were victorious with the overwhelming defeat of the monarch by the hands of Henry V at Agincourt (1415). This period ended with the Wars of the Roses between 1455 and 1485, which was a civil war caused by the incompetence of Henry VI (English Heritage, n.d.).

2.3. Reign of the Tudor Monarchs (1485 - 1603)

The Tudor Era started with two Henrys. Henry VII defeated Richard III for the throne in 1485 at the Battle of Bosworth and ended the Wars of the Roses. He was a firm leader and also established a stable economic base. Henry VIII, on the other hand, was cultured. He leaned more into a country where art and commerce were important. However, the enclosure of land resulted in peasants being harmed. Henry VIII did not have a male heir, unfortunately for him, his wife, Katherine of Aragon did not provide him with one, and that led him to seek for divorce, but the Pope disapproved of this action, so Henry VIII separated England from Rome in 1533 and established the Church of England with himself as the Head of the Church. This action paved the way to the Suppression (Dissolution) of the Monasteries in 1536. They

gave their riches to the monarch despite the revolts and protests, such as the Pilgrimage of Grace. This break from Rome left England vulnerable to an invasion from Catholic Europe. In order to defend his kingdom, Henry VIII used the money he collected from the monasteries to build artillery forts along the coast of Britannia. His actions led to the deaths of his wives. After some time, his son Edward VI was born, who was from Jane Seymour (she died shortly after). His last wife, Katherine Parr, worked to get the rights of heirship for his daughters, Mary and Elizabeth.

The reign of Edward VI intensified the radical Protestant reform, even though there was some opposition. After his reign, Mary I came to the throne in 1553. She was a Catholic who directly tried to change the effects of the Reformation for the opposite. She was later married controversially to Phillip II of Spain and burned many Protestants who opposed them, which gained her the name ‘Bloody Mary’. She died having no heir to the throne.

After five years of the controversial rule of ‘Bloody Mary’, Elizabeth I ruled England. Her reign was unproblematic and successful. She refused to marry, a decision which nicknamed her as Gloriana, the Virgin Queen. Out of the three siblings, she managed to organize a modest Protestant Church of England that was actually improving the overall quality of life, but still, new Poor Laws were introduced to address beggary. Her reign saw the threat of ending when her cousin Mary, Queen of Scots, plotted against Elizabeth’s Protestant ideas with a Catholic approach. This feud ended with Elizabeth having Mary executed in 1587. However, the decision to execute her came with the consequence of a Spanish attack. Phillip II of Spain had ordered his Armada to march towards England in 1588, but they faced defeat by the English Naval Forces while also facing the disadvantage of worsening weather issues. This victory increased the amount of self-confidence in Elizabeth and the monarch, then ultimately the effect of an English culture being established with

examples such as the plays of Shakespeare or country-house architecture (English Heritage, n.d.).

2.4. The Stuart Era (1603 - 1714)

It began with James VI of Scotland, also James I, coming to the throne after the Virgin Queen Elizabeth I died without having any heirs in 1603. This was a merger between Scotland and England, two nations that were at war for a long time (English Heritage, n.d.). After the reign of James I, his son from Anne of Denmark, Charles I ascended to the throne in 1625 and ruled until 1649. Even though he unconditionally believed that he had the ultimate right to rule, this change for the crown stirred some pots in the Parliament, hence, undeniably leading to the English Civil Wars around 1642 and 1651 in which approximately 200.000 people from England and Wales alone gave their sweat, blood, and tears for their country. Under the shadow of the catastrophic events that happened under his rule, Charles I was also one of the most important personas when it came to the arts of English history. His statue was admitted to London's Trafalgar Square, which is the oldest bronze statue in London, by Charles II in 1675 during his reign after it was put in hiding during the Civil Wars (English Heritage, n.d.).

Figure 2: The statue of Charles I in Trafalgar Square.[2]

[2] English Heritage. (n.d.). *King Charles I (1600–49) | Statue by Hubert Le Sueur, c. 1630–33*. https://www.english-heritage.org.uk/visit/london-statues-and-monuments/king-charles-I

Speaking of Charles II, after the execution of Charles I in 1649 during the English Civil Wars, God's Country was left without a monarch to rule it for the first time in its history. Charles II was expected to make the move to take back the throne his father lost, and not surprisingly in 1650 – 51, he came out and made his move. However, the heir was defeated and fled once more. He retreated to his mistress Jane Lane's home and disguised himself as her servant to escape. On the morning of 15th October 1651, he sailed secretly to Fécamp, from there he travelled to Rouen, then Paris and the French court. It was not until 9 years later that he could go back to his motherland to reclaim the throne in 1660 (English Heritage, n.d.).

2.5. The Seventeenth-Century European Power Balance

After Elizabeth I passed away (see 2.3. and 2.4.), the ruler in Spain was Phillip III, who was the offspring of Elizabeth's greatest enemy. In France, Henry VI ruled with authority by creating a tolerative religious substantial degree by the Edict of Nantes that freed the people's right to worship the Huguenots, even though the government was Catholic. For Germany, each prince had the right to choose and recognize the religious aspects of their own beliefs for half a century. The Protestant population was zero among the emperors, but they still did not pursue and force towards the papal cause against the reformed religion, although the states that recognized the reformed religion were not staying behind with being hostile with each other than the Catholics.

In the Netherlands, their contest with Spain for the North Protestant United and Southern Catholic Provinces had come to its boiling point and it was almost certain that the North would secure independence while the South would stay attached to the Spanish. Spain was seen as the 'Aggressive Champion of Catholicism', however, the whole world was yet to see the underlying weakness of Spain and/or was blind to the fact that the Austrian

Hapsburgs, not the Spanish, were the real destructive force against the Protestants. The political instincts of Henry IV were coming true. Growing danger to Europe of an agreement between the two subsidiaries of the house of Hapsburg. He attempted to form a League against them, but it was crushed by his assassination in 1610, a year after the official suspension of tension between Spain and Holland.

Ferdinand of Styria was recognized as heir to the emperor, which resulted in the perspective that the Catholics were holding an aggressive policy. The Kingdom of Bohemia, at that time it was attached to the house of Austria, claimed its monarchy was elective and chose its king as the Protestant Elector Palatine Frederick, kicking out Ferdinand.

In the following years, Ferdinand claimed his own monarchy. His actions started the kindling of the Thirty Years' War, and it began in 1618. It was a struggle between the Protestant and the Catholic states within the Empire. Scandinavian powers also decided to intervene, and Spain also intervened on behalf of the Hapsburgs. Meanwhile, in France, the succession of Louis XIII placed the government into the hands of regency, all while the country was swollen with party factions and intrigues among the noblemen. The young king asserted himself to the throne, and called for consultation with the Great Minister Cardinal Richelieu, who was rising to power was dating from 1621. Richelieu assumed the occupation of carrying out the frozen work of Henry IV by refreshing the supremacy of the crown over French noblemen and directing an anti-Hapsburg policy. As situations worsened, one of the most-affected noblemen groups was actually the Huguenots, meaning that the civil broils in France ultimately brought religious struggle, but it was actually political.

The relations of England between the Spanish, the French, and the Palatinate from 1618 to 1630 were the main reason behind the financial struggles alongside with the religious difficulties, and it brought the Crown and the Parliament of England into hostile

circumstances. Following those years, domestic disputes kept England from basically any Continental warfare and/or affairs until the Commonwealth was established (Britain Express, n.d.).

3. History of the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands

3.1. The Dutch Republic and the States General

The Republic of the Seven United Netherlands (Dutch: Republiek der Zeven Verenigde Nederlanden), also known as the United Provinces (of the Netherlands), and referred to in historiography as the Dutch Republic, was a confederation and great power that existed from 1588 until the Batavian Revolution in 1795(Wikipedia). The Dutch Republic was a unique political entity, a confederation of sovereign provinces united for mutual defense and commerce but lacking a strong central authority. The seven provinces formed the Dutch Republic: Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, Overijssel, Friesland, and Groningen. The province of Holland was overwhelmingly dominant in the union, contributing approximately 60% of the Republic's total revenue, which gave the wealthy merchant class, known as the Regenten, decisive influence over national policy.

3.2. Era of Stadholders

A Stadholder was initially the provincial executive representative of the ruler- first of the Habsburg monarch, later of the states of each Dutch province. Before the 1570 Dutch Revolt, the Stadholder was the monarch's governor representing the King of Spain in a province; from 1570 onwards, when the Dutch provinces rebelled and formed the Dutch Republic, the Stadholders were no longer representing the king, but they became the Military commanders and political executives of each state that they were appointed. Stadholders were mostly the leading members of the House of Orange-Nassau. Since their responsibilities were chiefly military in nature, they were also closely involved in shaping the Republic's foreign

policy. This gave them an almost sovereign position. The Stadholders in this period were: Prince Maurits (1567-1625), Prince Frederik Hendrik (1584-1647), Prince William II.

When William of Orange died in 1584, his son Prince Maurits succeeded him as stadholder and captain-general of the army in Holland and Zeeland. He later became stadholder of Utrecht, Gelderland and Overijssel (in 1590) and Groningen and Drenthe (in 1620). Prince Maurits achieved major military successes in the war against Spain, including his victory at Nieuwpoort in 1600. During the Twelve Years' Truce, he clashed with Grand Pensionary Johan van Oldenbarneveldt, who was executed in 1619 after a political trial. In the years after the Truce expired in 1621, Maurits no longer played an important military role. Maurits never married and was succeeded in 1625 by his half-brother, Prince Frederik Hendrik. Prince William II was the only son of stadholder Prince Frederik Hendrik and his wife, Amalia of Solms. In 1647, he succeeded his father as stadholder. He soon got involved in a bitter conflict with the States General over cuts to the armed forces, after a peace treaty was signed in 1648, bringing the Eighty Years' War to an end. When William died of smallpox in 1650, Holland and most of the other provinces chose not to appoint a new stadholder to succeed him. This marked the beginning of the first stadholderless period (Ministry of General Affairs, 2016).

After the death of Prince William II in 1650, there was no new stadholder appointed in most of the provinces and the government was controlled by the State Party under Johan de Witt. De Witt's republican faction was committed to preventing the re-establishment of the Orangist semi-monarchy, viewing the pursuit of maritime and trade interests as paramount and justifying a smaller, cost-saving land army. De Witt argued the stadholderate threatened republican liberty, in conclusion, Holland and most provinces remained stadholderless. The Orange family was politically marginalized, remaining popular with common people. Also,

the Frisian branch of the family continued to hold the office of stadholder in certain provinces. They were descended from William of Orange's brother Count Jan the Elder. William Frederik was stadholder of Friesland from 1640 and from 1650 onwards of Groningen and Drenthe as well. On his death in 1664, his son Hendrik Casimir II succeeded him as stadholder of these provinces. Another member of the family, Count Johan Maurits of Nassau-Siegen, served the Republic as field marshal.

The first stadholderless period came to an end when the French invaded the Dutch Republic in 1672, the "year of disasters". As a result of popular pressure, Prince William III, son of the last stadholder, was appointed stadholder of Holland and Zeeland and, shortly afterwards, of Utrecht, Gelderland and Overijssel (Ministry of General Affairs, 2016). The stadholder of Friesland, Prince Johan Willem Friso, son of Hendrik Casimir II, was Prince William III's heir, but did not succeed him as stadholder of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, or Overijssel; thus, in 1702, yet another stadholderless period began and lasted until 1747. In 1747, Prince William IV became the first person to hold the stadholder in all seven provinces of the Dutch Republic. During this same time, the office of stadholder was made hereditary in the House of Orange, in both the male and female line. In 1734, William IV married Princess Anne of Hanover, daughter of King George II of Great Britain. William IV could not use his increasing influence for long. His health deteriorated, and his wife took over responsibility for the affairs of state. When she died in 1959, the Duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel, who was also a field marshal in the army, took over as regent. When William V came of age in 1766, he came into power, signing a secret agreement. In 1795, the French invasion drove William V into exile. This marked the end of the Dutch Republic and also of the office of stadholder. After the French occupation, his son Willem Frederik returned to the Netherlands as Sovereign Prince (Ministry of General Affairs, 2016).

Beeldenstorm

Beeldenstorm in Dutch or Bildersturm in German, which can be translatable from both languages as ‘assault on images or statues’ are terms for describing the outbreaks of destruction of religious images that occurred in 16th century Europe. The Beeldenstorm, or Iconoclast Furry in English, was a direct result of the rapidly spreading Calvinism, economic hardship, and religious persecution imposed by the fervent Catholic King Philip II through the Inquisition. Beginning in Flanders in August 1566, Protestant mobs attacked Catholic churches, systematically destroying religious statues, paintings, and icons, which they condemned as idolatrous in line with Calvinist theology. This wave of vandalism rapidly spread across most of the Netherlands provinces in a matter of weeks, resulting in the desecration of thousands of churches. The severity of this outbreak prompted Philip II to dispatch the Duke of Alba and 10,000 Spanish troops to the Netherlands in 1567 to suppress the rebellion. Alba's ruthless crackdown, marked by the establishment of the "Council of Blood", which executed thousands of suspected heretics, combined with heavy taxation and military occupation, drove an even greater number of residents into rebellion. Consequently, the Beeldenstorm is widely regarded as the point of no return, inextricably linking the fight for religious liberty with the emerging Dutch national identity and leading directly to the Eighty Years' War.

Destruction of the Cathedral of Our Lady in Antwerp on 20 August 1566. *(engraving by Frans Hogenberg)*

3.3. The Eighty Years' War

The Dutch War of Independence (1568-1648) created the Dutch Republic through eight decades of struggle against the Spanish Empire.

3.3.1. Background

Charles V handed control of the Low Countries to his son, Philip II, in 1555, prior to his abdication in 1556. Charles V was a member of the powerful Habsburg family, who were staunch defenders of Catholicism. Charles V had been trying to suppress the 'new teachings' of the Protestants shortly after Martin Luther introduced them in the Holy Roman Empire in 1517, and, by the 1540s, the Reformation had established itself in the Low Countries first through the Anabaptists (initially a splinter sect of the Reformed vision of Huldrych Zwingli) and then the Calvinists (followers of John Calvin). Philip II was entrusted with not only governing the Low Countries but also eradicating the Protestant heresy there. Philip II was not particularly interested in the Low Countries except as a source of revenue. In 1556, Philip

II continued the "Edict of Blood" issued by Charles V in 1550, outlawing Protestant writings, teachings, meetings, and religious services, stipulating among the punishments that males found guilty of heresy were to be put to the sword and females buried alive, or members of either sex to be burned at the stake, and their property confiscated. Granvelle led the Inquisition, which enforced the 1556 edict posted on placards throughout the Low Countries. Between 1556-1557, Philip II levied higher taxes on the Low Countries to finance his foreign wars as he was approaching bankruptcy, and in 1559, Granvelle, still running the Inquisition, also reorganized the dioceses in the Low Countries with himself as head, which drew power (and considerable wealth) away from the Dutch nobility and toward Spain. Dutch nobles objected to Granvelle's persecutions, including William von Oranje (William of Orange/William the Silent), who was Catholic but a supporter of religious freedom (Mark & Snayers, 2022).

3.3.2. Phase One: The Outbreak and Early Rebellion (1568-1579)

The Beeldenstorm (Iconoclast Fury) of 1566 served as a major catalyst, prompting Philip II to dispatch the Duke of Alba and his infamous Council of Blood (Council of Troubles, known to the Dutch as the Council of Blood) to root out heresy and establish order. Meanwhile, William von Orange organized resistance to Spanish rule from Dillenburg and then returned at the head of his troops. On 23 May 1568, the Battle of Heiligerlee was won by Dutch troops led by William the Silent's brothers Louis and Adolf of Nassau, beginning the Eighty Years' War. Early victories, such as the capture of Brielle by the Sea Beggars (Watergeuzen) in 1572, were crucial in providing William with a territorial base in Holland and Zeeland. This period culminated in the Pacification of Ghent (1576), a rare moment of unity among the provinces to expel Spanish troops, driven by the atrocities of the unpaid Spanish soldiery known as the "Spanish Fury".

3.3.3. Phase Two: Consolidation and Foreign Intervention (1579-1609)

The southern, Catholic provinces, fearing the Calvinist ascendancy, formed the Union of Arras (1579) and reconciled with Philip II. In response, the northern, Protestant provinces—primarily Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland, and Friesland—formed the Union of Utrecht (1579), explicitly committing to continuing the fight for freedom of conscience and political liberty. In 1581, the northern provinces formally declared their independence through the Act of Abjuration, effectively deposing Philip II. On July 10, 1584, William von Orange was assassinated by the catholic Balthazar Gerards. He is still regarded as the "father of the fatherland". After his death, there was a severe blow to the rebellion, and foreign intervention was necessitated. Elizabeth I of England formally supported the Dutch with the Treaty of Nonsuch (1585), sending troops under the Earl of Leicester. Though Leicester's mission failed politically, the English intervention was vital in tying up Spanish resources. In 1588, Spain's attention was diverted to war with France and England (Spanish Armada).

3.3.4. Phase Three: The Twelve Years' Truce (1609-1621)

By the turn of the century, the Dutch military successes, Spain's simultaneous involvement in conflicts with France and England, and exhaustion from both sides forced a cessation of hostilities. The Twelve Years' Truce (1609) acknowledged the de facto independence of the United Provinces and permitted the continuation of the Dutch global commercial expansion. Dutch East India Company (VOC,1602) and West India Company (WIC,1621) were established in this regard. The Truce, however, did not bring true internal peace; religious and political tensions continued within the republic, leading to the "Truce Quarell". This internal dispute pitted the strict Calvinist counter-Remonstrants (supported by Maurice of Nassau and favoring renewed war) against the more moderate Arminians or

Remonstrants (supported by the statesman Johan van Oldenbarnevelt and favoring peace). The conflict culminated in the execution of Oldenbarnevelt in 1619, a dramatic demonstration of Maurice's centralized power and a victory for the hardline Protestant faction.

3.3.5. Phase Four: Resumption and the Thirty Years' War (1621-1648)

When the Truce expired in 1621, the war resumed, overlapping and becoming intrinsically linked with the pan-European Thirty Years' War (1618–1648). The conflict in the Netherlands became a major front in the larger European struggle against Habsburg power. To fund its military campaigns and engage in global maritime war against Spain, the Dutch Republic skillfully utilized its immense commercial wealth, generated by the VOC and the WIC. During this period, Frederick Henry, who succeeded his half-brother Maurice and became known as the "City Conqueror" for his strategic sieges, captured key cities in Brabant and Flanders. Also, the Dutch West Indian company captured parts of Brazil and seized Spanish silver fleets. By the 1640's Spain was exhausted due to multiple wars and financial problems also faced internal revolts; thus, Spain sought peace. With both Spain and the Dutch Republic viewing the costly war as unsustainable, negotiations began in Münster, leading to the final peace.

3.3.6. Conclusion: The Peace of Münster (1648)

The Eight Years' War was concluded with the Peace of Münster in 1648, a part of the larger Treaties of Westphalia. This treaty marked the definitive and formal recognition of the Republic of the Seven United Netherlands as a fully sovereign and independent state under international law; thus, Dutch independence gained full Spanish recognition. The Dutch retained all territory captured but were permitted to close the Scheldt River, blocking Antwerp's access to the sea. The successful conclusion of the war legitimized the Dutch

Republic's political structure and its global commercial empire, ushering in the peak of the Dutch Golden Age. It simultaneously confirmed Spain's decline as the dominant European power and established a precedent for the rise of mercantilist, maritime states like the Netherlands and, later, England.

The Eighty Years' War created a Dutch national identity fused with Protestantism, commercial enterprise, and republican government.

3.4. The Newfound Revolutions in the Naval Aspect

From the late sixteenth to the early eighteenth century, Holland, Zeeland and Friesland, the maritime provinces of the Dutch Republic, formed Europe’s leading maritime society. This society had a great mercantile community, a huge mercantile marine, a large seafaring population, many ports, shipyards and a large market for naval stores. Dutch maritime activities are normally described as superior to those of other nations and proofs of the Dutch society’s ability to combine technology, entrepreneurship and low transaction costs (Jan Glete, 2001). However, the Dutch navy was not always that powerful.

Traditionally, Dutch ships were lighter and designed for shallow coastal waters; however, in the late 1400s determined to improve their naval forces, Cornelis de Houtman was sent to Portugal as an agent in order to bring the new naval technologies to his country. When he returned in the early 1500s, he made a significant contribution to the construction of modern ships equipped with new technologies. Also, Houtman showed that the Portuguese monopoly on the spice trade was vulnerable. A furry of Dutch trading voyages followed, eventually leading to the displacement of the Portuguese and the establishment of a Dutch monopoly on spice trading in the East Indies. Meanwhile, those who fled persecution in Spain and came to Amsterdam, contributed to the development of cartography and, naturally, of maritime exploration.

Dutch naval innovations made them the premier maritime power of the mid-17th century.

3.4.1. Ship Design Innovation

The fluyt revolutionized merchant shipping and became the foundation of Dutch commercial dominance. Designed in 1595 by Pieter Jansz Liorne, this specialized cargo vessel featured a narrow, elongated hull that maximized cargo capacity while minimizing construction costs and crew requirements. Its shallow draft allowed access to smaller ports and river systems that deeper-hulled vessels could not reach, giving Dutch merchants access to markets their competitors could not serve. The fluyt's simple rigging required fewer sailors to operate, dramatically reducing labor costs and making Dutch shipping more economical than any competitor. These vessels could be built quickly and cheaply in Dutch shipyards, which had perfected mass production techniques that treated shipbuilding almost as an industrial process rather than individual craftsmanship. The fluyt's efficiency was so overwhelming that by 1670, the Dutch operated roughly 60% of European merchant tonnage, dominating the carrying trade across the continent and earning Amsterdam the title of Europe's warehouse.

3.4.2. Warship Developments

Dutch warships carried heavy armament optimized for broadside combat, mounting as many cannons as possible on their gun decks to maximize firepower in line-of-battle engagements. The Dutch navy maintained professional naval officers trained through continuous service rather than the aristocratic patronage system common in other nations, including England, ensuring that commanders possessed genuine seamanship skills. Standardized designs allowed rapid construction when war threatened, with Dutch shipyards capable of launching dozens of warships in a single building season when properly funded.

3.4.3. Naval Administration

The Dutch Admiralty system divided the Netherlands into five regional Admiralty boards, each functioning as an independent naval administration: Amsterdam (the largest and most powerful, based in Holland), Rotterdam (known as the Maas Admiralty), Zeeland (based in Middelburg), Friesland (in the northern provinces), and the Northern Quarter (encompassing the cities of Hoorn and Enkhuizen). Each Admiralty was responsible for building and maintaining warships for its region, recruiting sailors from local populations, licensing privateers who would operate under its authority, collecting customs revenues from ships entering its ports, and defending its regional waters from enemy attack. This decentralized system reflected the broader Dutch political structure, where power was distributed among provinces and cities rather than concentrated in a central authority. While this arrangement preserved local autonomy and prevented the concentration of naval power that might threaten the republican government, it created significant coordination problems during wartime. The five Admiralties sometimes competed for resources, pursued different strategic priorities, and struggled to achieve unified fleet actions. This structural weakness would repeatedly hamper Dutch naval operations during the Anglo-Dutch Wars, as achieving consensus among five independent boards proved nearly impossible in crisis situations requiring rapid, decisive action.

3.4.4. Tactical Innovations

Dutch naval commanders developed revolutionary tactical doctrines that transformed naval warfare from chaotic melees into organized battles resembling land warfare. Line of battle formations became the standard Dutch approach, with ships arranged in a single column to maximize the effectiveness of broadside fire while minimizing vulnerability to enemy gunnery. Fighting instructions standardized fleet maneuvers, allowing dozens of ships

to execute complex tactical movements in coordination, wheeling, tacking, and reforming as cohesive units rather than operating as individual vessels. The Dutch pioneered the systematic use of fireships to attack anchored enemies, converting old merchant vessels into floating bombs packed with explosives and combustibles, then sailing these unmanned vessels into enemy anchorages under cover of darkness. Amphibious operations coordinating army and navy became a Dutch specialty, reflecting the Republic's unique position as both a land and sea power that needed to integrate both services for effective defense. Admirals like Maarten Tromp and Michiel de Ruyter became legendary for their seamanship and tactical brilliance, winning battles through superior maneuver and positioning rather than simply overwhelming force. These commanders studied wind, tide, and current to position their fleets advantageously, used the weather gauge to control engagement ranges, and demonstrated that skill could overcome numerical inferiority.

4. Colonial and Commercial Rivalries

4.1. Rise of Global Trade and Mercantilism

Britain and the Netherlands feuded for commercial dominance in the 17th and 18th centuries. The Dutch Republic had the upper hand since they had the most efficient system to distribute their items internationally and they had the Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie (VOC) (see 4.2) on the Asian side. However, they started to lose dominance to England after 1650. The decrease of Dutch influence in trades occurred because of structural integrity problems, such as, over-investments on senseless exhibitions in the West Indies, transit trade control problems, and incompetence of adapting to changing international trade patterns. The English utilized the Navigation Acts to defend the shipping interest rates, improved their network of merchants throughout Europe, and slowly succeeded in global trade markets and

shipping superiority, which surely was one of the foundations for the Industrial Revolution (Emmer, 2005).

4.2. Dutch East India Company (VOC): Structure and Influence

The Dutch East India Company, or Vereenigde Oostindische Compagnie (VOC) is a trading company founded by the Dutch in 1602 to protect the trade success in the Indian Ocean and be an aide to the victory over the Spanish to gain independence. It was the instrument to the Dutch Republic's immense commercial empire throughout the seventeenth century in the East Indies, present day Indonesia. The company was granted access to take action towards the trade monopoly on the big seas specifically between the Cape of Good Hope at the Southern tip of Africa and the Straits of Magellan, which are located between the Atlantic and the Pacific. They also had the right to establish treaties with the princes, build forts and moderate armed forces, and have administrative functions via officials who took an oath of loyalty to the Dutch Republic. With the most notable generals of the company, Jan Pieterzoon Coen and Anthony van Diemen carried the company to victory against the British fleet and vastly decreased the Portuguese numbers in the East Indies. It was dissolved in 1799 after the last parts of the 17th century and the start of the 18th century proved incompetent because of the company losing its trade values and sea power principles (Britannica Editors, 2025).

4.3. English East India Company (EIC): Ambitions and Expansion

The East India Company (EIC) was founded by royal charter in 1600. Its original cause was to break through the East Indian spice trade, but as time progressed, cotton, silk, indigo, saltpeter, and tea joined the spices, and even slave trades took place. The English took people from East and West Africa, transporting them to the mainland. They crushed the monopoly created by the Spanish and the Portuguese after England's defeat of the Spanish

Armada in 1588, it was not until 1657 for them to raise a permanent joint stock. The company commanded its own army and met the Dutch in the East Indies and the Portuguese. The Dutch were successful in the East Indies, but the company was able to defeat the Portuguese in India in 1612, which won them trading concessions from the Mughal Empire. After an agreement with the Mughal emperor Jahangir, the company increased its reach to the Persian Gulf, Southeast Asia, and East Asia. The company later began working for Indian trade posts and compounds. In 1639, a fort was built on the coast of India that marked the first British community in Indian soil. It later developed into a city for the company to base their mercantile operations (Britannica Editors, 2025).

4.4. Competition in the Americas

4.4.1. The Dutch Western Pursuits

Dutch activity in the South Atlantic was the work of the West India Company (West-Indische Compagnie), which was founded in 1621. This company has never proved as successful as the enterprise of Heeren XVII, but it produced moderate results. If we disregard the Cape, the only real Dutch colonization in North America was New Netherland (New York) started in 1624. With the company's help, they also founded New Amsterdam and two years after that a company agent, Peter Minuit, bought Manhattan Island for 60 guilders, which was equivalent to 24 dollars from the Indigenous people. The Dutch settlement stood sparsely along the Hudson from New Amsterdam to Fort Orange (Albany) because of the constant insistence on monopolization of the Native American fur trade, Dutchmen were discouraged to migrate there. New Amsterdam thrived by itself because it owned the best harbor in North America. Many people migrated there, besides Dutchmen, such as migrants from nearby New England with French, Scandinavian, Irish, German, and even Jewish

inhabitants. The city's defenses were fairly weak, and it fell very effortlessly after the attack by the British in 1664. Renaming the city New York (Magdoff et al., 2025).

4.4.2. American Colonies of the English

The English West Indies were originally based on Barbados and then Jamaica, since they left North America behind in economic importance. Island colonies mostly operated with land ownership and/or slave labor, but the colonies on the mainland improved upon phases. 'Joint-stock companies' built New England and Virginia, and 'proprietary colonies' such as Maryland and Pennsylvania were founded by individual entrepreneurs. The population on the mainland was pretty diverse with French Huguenots, Germans, Irish, and Scottish people living there, growing to approximately 1.3 million white and 300.000 black people, which dramatically outnumbered the 55.000 white people of French Canada. The mainland colonies were region-specific. New England mostly did small farming and shipping (constructing around 700 ships by 1675), the Middle Atlantic used diversified farming, and the South created slave labor plantations that produced tobacco, rice, and indigo. Even though the colonies were struggling to make alliances against common enemies like France on their own, they were loyal to the King, which brought privileges like representative assemblies (Magdoff et al., 2025).

4.5. Privateers, Smugglers, and Maritime Law

Piracy and privateering were spreading globally during the sixteenth century. These activities, and their handling within transnational relations, shed light on several issues of modern international law, then under formation. They reflect different basic problems that both challenged and structured central aspects of legal relations on an international level: the transformation of ocean spaces into areas of colliding legal strategies, the use of privateers ('legalized' pirates) as a tool for extraterritorial expansion, the involvement of non-state

players in international legal relations, the fragmentation of maritime sovereignty, and the application of international law to criminalize political resistance as piracy. That said, the international management of piracy shows that international law had the potential to resist its abuse as a mere instrument of politics and special interests. (Kempe, 2010).

Parliament repealed the Revenue Act of 1764 amid protests over the government's crackdown on the vital molasses smuggling trade, and the appearance of smugglers (or 'smuckellors' as they first appeared in British media) through 1661 Royal Proclamation to 1766. Since the nineteenth century, historians have focused on community acceptance of smuggling, arguing that most Britons did not believe smuggling was criminal. However, from the nineteenth century onward, smugglers were often depicted as 'honest thieves' and integral parts of coastal communities. In the eighteenth-century print, they were vilified and portrayed as a distinct criminal class that threatened the economic stability of the empire. British authors exalted trade as the foundation of imperial strength, especially in regard to domestic wool production and sugar from the British West Indies. These authors regularly attacked smugglers as one of the principal threats to these industries, offering an economic millenarian view of potential imperial decline if illegal trade were not suppressed. Historians have revealed much about smugglers' struggle with law enforcement, techniques for evasion, and their social origins, but they have also revealed their complicated image in English print culture. A degree of community support is undeniable, but through study of newspapers, pamphlets, magazines, Parliamentary debates, and other printed media shows that countless authors, including printers, journalists, Members of Parliament, merchants, manufacturers, economists, and poets, described smugglers as the most significant criminal threat to British society, worse than gangs of highway robbers. Moreover, eighteenth-century metropolitan perceptions of regional smuggling, most notably of Kent and Sussex, shaped contemporary and historical writing. Newspaper printers focused on these areas and contributed to a

reputational stain on their communities. The British colonists of mainland North America were eventually cast as smugglers, which exacerbated the separation and dispute between mother country and colonies (Jones, 2021).

5. Political Landscape

5.1. Peace of Westphalia

The Peace of Westphalia (Westfälischer Friede in German), signed on multiple dates between different countries, marked the end of the Thirty Years' War and the end of the Eighty Years' War. Negotiated in the Westphalian towns, the treaties were made between the German princes, France, Sweden, and the Holy Roman Emperor.

Under the agreement, several countries got territories or got to get recognised as a sovereign state by others, favoring France, Sweden and their allies. Sweden gained control over the Baltic Sea and the estuaries of the Oder, Elbe, and Weser rivers, while France secured a firm frontier west of the Rhine River. Brandenburg obtained eastern Pomerania and other territories. The United Provinces of the Netherlands and the Swiss Confederation were recognized as independent republics. A universal amnesty was declared, restoring secular lands to their pre-1618 owners.

The Peace of Westphalia upheld the Peace of Augsburg (1555), granting religious tolerance to Lutherans in the empire, and extended it to the Reformed (Calvinist) church. Member states of the empire had to allow private worship, liberty of conscience, and emigration rights to religious minorities. Ownership of spiritual lands was decided with 1624 as the standard year, and princes who changed their religion would forfeit their lands.

The treaty's constitutional changes significantly impacted Germany, ending the struggle between Holy Roman emperors and German princes. The Peace of Westphalia

recognized the full territorial sovereignty of the member states of the empire, allowing them to make treaties with each other and foreign powers, provided it did not prejudice the emperor or the empire. The Emperor and Diet (ancestors of the Dutch and German ethnicity) lost most of their power, and the princes gained sovereignty in their own dominions.

Germany lost territory and its frontier against France became indefensible. Sweden and France, as guarantors of the peace, gained the right to interfere in the empire's affairs, delaying German national unity. However, the treaty facilitated the growth of new powers, such as Austria, Bavaria, and Brandenburg. It was recognized as a fundamental law of the German constitution until the Holy Roman Empire's dissolution in 1806.

The Thirty Years' War (1618–1648) involved various nations and was driven by religious, dynastic, territorial, and commercial rivalries. The war began when Ferdinand II attempted to impose Roman Catholic absolutism, leading to rebellions. The conflict widened with powers like Poland, Sweden, and France becoming involved, resulting in shifting alliances.

The principal battlefield was Germany, which suffered severe devastation. Mercenary armies plundered the countryside, leaving cities, towns, and farms ravaged. The Peace of Westphalia, which ended the bloodshed, radically changed the balance of power in Europe, with France becoming the chief Western power, Sweden controlling the Baltic, and the United Netherlands recognized as an independent republic. The concept of a Roman Catholic empire was abandoned, and the structure of modern Europe as a community of sovereign states was established.

5.2. The English Court under Charles II

The Restoration of the monarchy in England began with the reign of Charles II in 1660, following Oliver Cromwell's Commonwealth. Bishops returned to Parliament and strict Anglican orthodoxy was maintained. The period included the reign of James II and was marked by colonial trade expansion, the Anglo-Dutch Wars, as well as a resurgence in drama and literature.

Charles II's foreign policy was designed to promote England's commercial interests. The Navigation Act of 1660 continued Cromwellian policies, which were directed against the Dutch carrying trade, and the seizure of New York in 1664 represented a gain. His marriage to Catherine of Braganza resulted in the acquisition of Tangier and Bombay, but those territories were less valuable than Dunkirk, which Charles sold to Louis XIV. The Secret Treaty of Dover, concluded in 1670, aligned England and France against the Dutch and contained the infamous provision by which Charles agreed to declare himself a Roman Catholic in return for French assistance, a promise he fulfilled only on his deathbed.

By the 1670s, discontent was stirred by the fact that he had no legitimate heir and by the conversion of his brother James to Catholicism. The supposed discovery of the Popish Plot in 1678-a Catholic plot to assassinate Charles-precipitated a political crisis. This led Charles to seek restoration, dissolve parliaments one after another, and use anxieties about republican anarchy to his advantage. Reforms at the Treasury gave the crown administrative control and helped cement stability for the reign of Charles.

Though Charles II was a politically shrewd ruler, he had several personal shortfalls. He had many illegitimate children and was accused of laziness on multiple occasions. While his rule indeed promoted technical advances in navigation and shipbuilding, his laid-back attitude towards the administration made him lean on France. Charles's reign was plagued by

bitter religious conflicts, financial problems, and political intrigues, yet in the end, he was able to achieve a peaceful prosperity.

The legacy of Charles II is mixed. While he reigned over developments in trade and naval power, there were also scenes of religious and political strife. While his easy tolerance in religious matters may have promoted stability, his "shifty insincerity" and dependence upon France were considerable blemishes. For all that, Charles II was to remain one of the most fascinating figures in English history.

5.3. The First Anglo-Dutch War and Its Aftermath

5.3.1. The First Anglo-Dutch War

Tensions escalated after England enacted the 1651 Navigation Act, which aimed to exclude the Dutch from English sea trade. This protectionist measure sought to bolster English shipping and challenge Dutch dominance. The First Anglo-Dutch War unfolded in a series of brutal naval engagements that established the tactical and strategic patterns that would define future conflicts between the two maritime powers. In May 1652, a naval incident between fleets commanded by Dutch Admiral Maarten Tromp and English Admiral Robert Blake escalated into battle, resulting in the defeat of the Dutch fleet and prompting England to formally declare war. The conflict initially favored the Dutch when Tromp achieved a decisive victory off Dungeness in December 1652, demonstrating that Dutch seamanship and tactical skill could overcome English advantages. However, the tide turned dramatically in 1653 as English dominance became increasingly apparent. Displaying larger, better-equipped warships built during the winter months and benefiting from superior fleet coordination, the English gained the upper hand in most major engagements throughout the year. The war reached its climax with the Battle of Texel in August 1653, where the Dutch suffered a catastrophic defeat that resulted in heavy losses of ships and men, including the

death of Admiral Tromp himself, who was struck down during the fierce combat. This defeat effectively broke Dutch naval power temporarily and forced the Republic to seek peace terms, ending the war in English favor and establishing the Royal Navy's growing prowess in line-of-battle warfare. (Britannica, n.d.)

The war proved English naval superiority in the North Sea; it did not put an end to the Dutch world-trade system, although Amsterdam burgomasters reckoned the total loss of Dutch ships worldwide at 1,200. In the Baltic, the Mediterranean, and in Asian waters the Dutch managed to put strong pressure on England. English merchants lost about four hundred ships to the Dutch East India Company (VOC) and Dutch privateers. This not only undermined support for the war in England but helped bolster Dutch morale.

The English got few economic and maritime concessions from the Dutch in the Peace of Westminster of March 1654. The Act of Navigation was maintained and Dutch warships were to lower their flag at open sea for the English. The province of Holland also secretly promised Oliver Cromwell (1599–1658) that no one from the House of Orange would be commissioned to the offices of stadholder or admiral-general. Political considerations – more than economic and military ones – thus determined the treaty. For Cromwell, the secret promise from Holland was more important because of the close family ties between the Orange and Stuart families than a humiliating peace treaty for the Dutch Republic (Israel, 1992) (Bruijn, 1998).

5.3.2. Treaty of Westminster (1654)

The Commonwealth of England had been established only in 1649, and the new state was seeking international recognition. Older established states, like the Dutch Republic, looked somewhat askance at the "upstart" England, which was ruled by "king killers." The Dutch Republic had actively supported the royalist cause in the English Civil War because of

the family ties between the stadtholder William II, Prince of Orange and the English royal family. The death of William II in 1650 and the establishment of a new States Party regime in the Dutch Republic cleared the way for a thaw in Anglo-Dutch diplomatic relations. (Davenport, 2004) After the defeat of the Dutch, both sides were negotiating, but the process was going too slow, not much progress was made and the tension between two countries kept increasing. In June 1653, Lord Protector Oliver Cromwell and Grand Pensionary Johan de Witt agreed to open peace negotiations in London to put an end to this not only physical, but also diplomatic war; not knowing neither side would be satisfied with this treaty, and both would sought revenge right after signing the treaty.

The most significant parts of the treaty were:

- The Navigation Acts accepted by Dutch, which was a major English victory,
- Dutch agreed to punish those responsible for the Amboya Massacre,
- No territories were changed,
- As Cromwell's attempt to prevent Stuard restoration via Orange family, a secret clause, known as the Act of Seclusion, was added stating that the then-four year old Prince of Orange should be excluded from future government appointments, like stadtholderate, or the captaincy-general of the States Army.

The Treaty of Westminster was signed by both sides in April 1654. This treaty is known for ending the First Anglo-Dutch War, but also, it is notable for being one of the first treaties implementing international arbitration (International arbitration is a way of resolving disputes between parties from different countries without going to a national court; instead of a judge, the case is decided by independent arbitrators chosen by the parties.) as a method of conflict resolution in early modern era.

5.3.3. The Aftermath

For England, the First Anglo-Dutch War provided crucial lessons about the relationship between naval power and commercial warfare. English strategists recognized that naval power had proven remarkably effective in commercial warfare, with convoy raiding and blockades capable of crippling the Dutch economy by disrupting the trade flows upon which the Republic's prosperity depended. However, English policymakers also learned that war was enormously expensive and that the English economy suffered significantly from disrupted trade, even when England was winning naval battles. The conflict demonstrated that the navy needed continuous investment and expansion to match Dutch maritime capabilities, as any temporary advantage could be lost if the Dutch were given time to rebuild and rearm. Nevertheless, English officials concluded that colonial seizures, if successfully executed and retained, could offset war costs by providing new revenue sources and breaking Dutch commercial monopolies, making future wars potentially profitable rather than merely ruinously expensive.

For the Dutch Republic, the war exposed critical vulnerabilities in their maritime system despite their commercial dominance. The conflict revealed that possessing a superior merchant fleet did not automatically guarantee military success, as warfighting required different capabilities, tactics, and organization than commercial shipping. The decentralized command structure that reflected Dutch republican politics proved a significant liability, hurting operational effectiveness by preventing unified strategic direction and allowing English fleets to defeat Dutch squadrons operating without proper coordination. Dutch naval strategists recognized the urgent need for better-coordinated naval strategy that could overcome the Republic's federalist political structure, though achieving such coordination remained politically difficult. The war starkly demonstrated Dutch commercial

vulnerabilities, as the Republic's entire economy depended on free seas and open trade routes that could be severed by an enemy navy, leaving the Netherlands economically strangled even when its armies remained intact. Yet the conflict also proved that the republican government could fight effectively despite lacking a stadtholder, validating Johan de Witt's argument that the Orange family was unnecessary for national defense.

5.4. Key Alliances of European Diplomacy

In Europe, men did not fight for the concept of countries but rather they fought for their nations, meaning they fought for their lords, who fought for his superior all the way up to the King. If a soldier's lord commanded him to fight against the superior power or the King, the soldier was not at fault, he would just be following orders. The large usage of 'Kingdom' in European nations instead of terms like 'states' or 'countries' supports this argument. Borders were almost non-existent, the amount of territories led by individual powers were immense and they fluctuated between successive rulers of the same dynasty, owing to inheritance laws, and the outcome of the wars they clashed in for the name of conquest.

For England, since the borders were established better than the European mainland, their alliances between Scotland and themselves were more imminent. However, after the ideology of a single merged state under a single polity arose by the end of the sixteenth century, things had changed radically. In a sense, seventeenth century civil wars were the final clash between the crown against the loyalty of the country.

For the Netherlands, as mentioned before in this paper, they did not want their former monarch to just be banished from the state, hence, they wanted to break completely from being a one man's nation to gain their own independence that could choose whomever they wish (*Tudor Times | European Alliances*, n.d.).

So in conclusion, if we wanted to write every single alliance between every single nationhood it would take pages and pages of unnecessary information for this agenda. So, if delegates want to recreate or form alliances within different nations they shall do so under the circumstances that seventeenth-century Europe would realistically allow them to.

5.5. Political and Social Life in Europe Leading to War

England underwent major political changes during the middle of the 17th century. The monarchy was restored with Charles II in 1660 after a period of the Commonwealth. Looking to secure the nation's peaceful existence, Charles II, who was very skillful in politics, issued general pardons and demanded religious tolerance. Nevertheless, the Cavalier Parliament (1661-79) strongly supported the Anglican Church and as a result, the repression of the religious dissenters increased. These measures quite certainly deepened the political discontent and the fear of arbitrary governance.

English society was highly divided and the hierarchy was very clear, with a limited number of the peerage at the very top followed by the gentry, yeomen, husbandmen, cottagers, and laborers. The ownership of land was the main source of both money and power, but merchants and financiers were also allowed to become prominent. In the Dutch Republic, the social structure was characterized by the dominance of the business classes, or bourgeoisie, with wealthy townspeople becoming regents in government. The common people were artisans, small business owners, sailors, and workers. Although they generally had a good standard of living, they were heavily taxed.

The mid-17th century was marked by conflict and political upheaval all over Europe. In several of them, countries experienced wars, uprisings, and political instability. France was going through the Fronde (1648-1653), a series of civil wars aimed at limiting the growing power of the royal government. England itself was embroiled in its own Civil Wars

(1642-1651). At the same time, unrest spread in Catalonia, Portugal, Naples, Ireland, Scotland, Sweden, and Russia. These events, alongside hundreds of local manifestations of the Thirty Years' War, are considered by historians as different occurrences of the same general crisis in European society.

The "first stadtholderless period" (1650-72) was the time when the Dutch Republic did not appoint a successor to William II after the provinces. Johan de Witt became an important figure and led the republic skilfully both in foreign and domestic policies. He revived the Dutch navy and brought back the republic's glory. De Witt's plan was to be on friendly terms with England, but trade rivalry and the status of the House of Orange were still problems that could not be solved.

One of the main reasons for the escalation of the tensions between England and the Dutch Republic was the fact that Charles II insisted on the acknowledgment of English sovereignty over the seas and wanted free access to the Dutch trade routes. In 1664, naval warfare ensued and a formal declaration of war was made in 1665. The English were at first successful in the war, however, the Dutch under de Witt's guidance, fought back vigorously and managed to win important naval battles such as the raid on Chatham in 1667.

6. Major Events of the War

6.1. Strategic Background of the Seizure of New Amsterdam

In 1664, the English seizure of New Amsterdam from the Dutch was a significant occurrence in the Second Anglo-Dutch War. The war that led to this drama was not just about power; politics, economy, and military blended intricately.

The cause of the Anglo-Dutch Wars was the big business rivalry between England and the Dutch Republic. The Navigation Acts enacted by England were meant to bar the Dutch

from English maritime trade, which consequently escalated the hostilities. As for New Amsterdam, with its wonderful port, it was a great trading post for the Dutch which gave them a gateway to the profitable fur trade. Its location was absolutely priceless, and trade was the main artery through which it grew. Taking over New Amsterdam would have made England the most powerful trader in North America and at the same time, lessen the economic might of the Dutch.

From a military standpoint, New Amsterdam's defenses were feeble, and thus, it was an attractive prospect for the English. It was in the plan of Charles II to unify the American colonies under his rule by taking over New York, and the Dutch colony was conquered without much resistance by an English fleet in 1664. Upon arrival, Colonel Richard Nicolls who led an English fleet demanded the handing over of the colony. Peter Stuyvesant, the director-general of New Netherland, was reluctant to give up and he wanted to resist the invasion, but the inhabitants of the city, who were a mix of different nationalities and hence not very loyal to the Dutch West India Company, decided against it.

With the capture of New Amsterdam, England was able to galvanize her colonial empire and open up new trading avenues, both of which were great achievements. The territory was named New York after James, Duke of York (later James II). The Dutch were only able to hold it briefly during 1673–74 before eventually it was handed over to the English via the Treaty of Westminster in 1674. This cemented English domination over the area and signaled a change in the power struggle between England and the Netherlands in the North American sector.

6.2. The Medway Raid

On June 12–14, 1667, the Dutch fleet came down the River Thames into the royal dockyards of the River Medway, where it meets the River Thames as it enters the ocean. The

Dutch ravaged the English navy they found there, giving the Royal Navy one of the most humiliating defeats in its history. The people were shocked that the English couldn't defend their own coast, which was even more painful than the losses of material.

The Second Anglo-Dutch War had been a series of disasters for England since the conflict began in 1665, including the Great Plague and the Great Fire of London. England was in dire need of peace, but Johan de Witt, head of the Dutch government, wanted a decisive victory to dictate the terms. He sent Admiral Michiel Adriaanszoon de Ruyter to execute a bold scheme: two English river pilots who had defected to the Dutch guided the Dutch fleet to the mouth of the Thames, then they went south to take Sheerness on the Medway and attack the English fleet at the Chatham dockyard.

Delaware was split into three squadrons and included 64 ships of the line, nearly 30 smaller vessels, and some 17,500 sailors. The English attempted to prevent passage through the river with a chain stretched from one bank to the other, but Dutch workers very soon removed this barrier. Skeleton crews were on board English ships that were beyond the chain, and most of the shore batteries were without their crews and short of gunpowder. Admiral George Monck came to take command of the British defenses and found this situation. Three "great ships"—the largest naval vessels—were quickly sunk by the English; the Dutch took over a fourth, the Royal Charles. The shore batteries, which were now manned and supplied, were the only ones who resisted and sank one Dutch fireship. De Ruyter left on June 14 with militia from the English side showing up. The Royal Charles was taken as a trophy. The Dutch set fire to the other captured vessels. The Royal Navy sank the ships that were further up the Medway channel to prevent the Dutch from getting these, which left the bulk of their fleet immobilized.

The act was beyond belief. Andrew Marvell wrote a scathing poem about seamen who refused to board ships because they were unpaid. Samuel Pepys, then secretary to the admiralty, thought the monarchy would fall. Peace was eventually made, but with limited advantage to the Dutch. England's thirst for revenge led to another Anglo-Dutch War in the next decade. The calamity also encouraged the English to reconstruct the Royal Navy and build it so powerful that it was second in size only to the French fleet.

6.3. Treaty of Breda and its Consequences

The Treaty of Breda, a treaty signed by England, the Dutch Republic, France, and Denmark on July 31, 1667, was a marker of an inconclusive end to the second Anglo-Dutch War, a war in which France and Denmark were on the side of the Dutch. Although the Dutch had the upper hand in the naval battle, they were forced to make peace quickly because Louis XIV had invaded the Spanish Netherlands and the War of Devolution had started.

The treaty led to a revision of the English Navigation Acts that were now in favor of the Dutch as their ships were allowed to carry goods from the Rhine to England. The Dutch trading practices were more largely accepted, as “contraband” was limited to only war implements. The Dutch were able to keep their strong position in global trade and prevented England from dominating the spice trade. Nevertheless, England got New Netherland (New York, New Jersey) and a few African trading posts from the Dutch and also recovered Antigua, Montserrat, and St. Kitts in the West Indies from France. The Dutch were holding on to Surinam and Pulo Run in the East Indies while France had French Guiana and got back Acadia from England.

7. Philosophical and Ideological Background

7.1. Rise of Commercial Capitalism

During the time of Charles II the English monarchy opened up the existing commercial conflicts with a lot of zeal and even made them more intense on purpose. England compelled the Dutch to accept English rule over the seas near the British Isles and also required that the Dutch East Indies be opened to English traders. The goal was the absolute domination of world trade by the British through the displacement of the Dutch, mainly in the lucrative spice trade. To this end, a series of Navigation Acts was the English weapon to secure a monopoly of colonial trade for the English ships and merchants, thereby directly cutting off Dutch commercial interests.

The waging of the war was mainly along the lines of the fierce and frequent attacks performed by the navy. The English were able to deliver the first serious blow to the Dutch fleet at the battle of Lowestoft in June 1665. Nevertheless, the Dutch, being led by the brilliant tactician Johan de Witt, quickly bounced back by rebuilding their navy thus achieving a string of victories. This proved not only the naval capabilities of the Dutch Republic but also their unyielding determination to stand up for their commercial interests. The Treaty of Breda in 1667 marked the end of the war. While it was true that the English gained New Netherland (which was then renamed New York and New Jersey), the Dutch remained largely unshaken in their position in world trade and thereby disproved the English challenge.

Therefore, the Second Anglo-Dutch War can be viewed as a turning point in the rise of commercial capitalism. Besides, it displayed the heated competition among the contenders for economic dominance and also was a period of considerable naval and commercial progress. The result of the war was not a clear victory for either side but it led to a

transformation of the geopolitical backdrop paving the way for future conflicts and alliances in the quest of global trade and influence.

7.2. Protestant Work Ethic and Economic Morality

7.2.1. Before the War

The Dutch Republic was going through its Golden Age before the Second Anglo-Dutch War, which was marked by impressive economic, political, and cultural achievements. One of the significant changes during this period was the establishment of Calvinist Protestantism as the state religion, which also impacted the formation of the new society where religious tolerance that allowed different religions to grow was a key feature contributing to the development of a prosperous business environment. The Protestant work ethic, which stressed virtues such as hard work, frugality, and efficiency, was one of the factors that led to the economic success of the Dutch and also contributed to the development of a rational approach to work and economic activities.

England was following mercantilist policies and was very much concerned about the issue of national wealth. The English Navigation Acts which were put into effect in 1651 were designed to exclude the Dutch from carrying trade in England thus indicating the belief of the necessity of protecting domestic economic interests.

7.2.2. During the War

Both sides, the English and the Dutch, were supporters of the Protestant work ethic and economic morality during the war, which they put into practice in the course of the commercial rivalry that led to the war. Moreover, in both societies, the goal of economic success through hard work was a leading factor that shaped their trade, competition, and wealth accumulation behavior and business practice.

The economic morality prevailing at that time was deeply rooted in the religious beliefs of both nations and this had a significant influence on their attitude towards trade, competition, and wealth accumulation. The period that led to the Anglo-Dutch Wars was characterized by the emergence of commercial capitalism which was the main driver of the wars and one of its notable features was the embrace of the Protestant work ethic and the relentless pursuit of economic success.

7.3. The Debate over Maritime Sovereignty (Mare Liberum versus Mare Clausum)

The debate about who controls the sea, which involves mare liberum (freedom of the seas) versus mare clausum (closed seas), was one of the major backgrounds of the Anglo-Dutch Wars in the 17th and 18th centuries. The idea of mare liberum was a Dutch jurist Hugo Grotius invention and it meant that the sea had to be left open for all nations in order to trade and navigate. Grotius's claim was based on the concept that the huge ocean was not something that any nation could own.

On the other hand, the mare clausum concept gave the right to nations to control the navigable waters that they could close off from other nations. This was the doctrine by which Spain and Portugal rationalized their monopoly on trade with the East Indies at the beginning of the 17th century.

The Second Anglo-Dutch War shed light on the troubles caused by these two opposing maritime viewpoints. The chief reason for the commercial cartel was thus the main cause of the war. England made efforts to stop the Dutch from trading on the English seas and in 1664 it took over New Amsterdam (later New York). The war was fought through naval battles as both sides battled over trade routes and maritime supremacy. The English at first

managed to get a hold on things but the Dutch retaliated and, therefore, the Raid on the Medway took place, a great embarrassment for England.

The Second Anglo-Dutch War was brought to an end by the Treaty of Breda, but the debate on maritime sovereignty that was the essence of the conflict, was only partially settled. The war didn't solve the argument of who has the right to the sea between mare liberum and mare clausum, but it emphasized how crucial it was to have access to the sea and how difficult it was to enforce exclusive claims at a time when international trade was expanding.

8. Long-Term Impacts

8.1. Transformation of Colonial Trade Systems

The wars between the Dutch and the English were mainly a consequence of mercantilist policies that had been introduced in the second half of the 17th century and had already started to rewrite the imperial trade systems. The mercantile policy that measured national wealth by coins and argued that colonies were for the benefit of the mother country was putting the European states in a very competitive race to be the first to implement it. The colonies were to be the suppliers and the markets for the mother countries, and thus raw materials were to be taken only from the colonies and finished goods were to be sold to them by the mother countries, which created a trade system that was monopolistic in nature. In the mercantile system, colonies were seen as mere instruments for the expansion of the mother country's economy and were of no use if they did not bring profit. The mother country should take raw materials from her colonies and give them finished goods with the balance still in her favor. That trade had to be monopolistic with foreign traders banned from the colonies.

The mercantile rivalry between the legislatures of England and the Dutch Republic was the main conflict that raised tensions between the two great powers. To decrease the Dutch dominance in maritime trade with England, the Navigation Act was enforced by the

English Parliament in 1651–the main objective was to exclude the Dutch from sea trade with England. According to this act, products that had been obtained from Africa, Asia, or America had to be transported only in English vessels, which were to include colonial ships. After the restoration of the English monarchy in 1660, these measures not only survived but were deepened, and the whole fight got tougher among England and its colonies. By this time the competition between colonial American and England had become so hardened that laws of 1663 were enacted requiring colonial ships that carried European goods to America i.e. to call at English ports, where a duty had to be paid, but due to lack of enforcement these soon became inoperative.

The Treaty of Breda, which marked the end of the Second Anglo-Dutch War, was in fact just a truce without apparent victory. Some changes were made to the English Navigation Acts to benefit the Dutch; Dutch vessels were permitted to bring goods that had been transported along the River Rhine to England. A few Dutch trading principles were recognized as well, and the term "contraband" was limited to arms. Although the alterations had been made, the Dutch position in the global market stayed pretty much the same and the English failed to take the lead in the spice market. The Dutch levied duties on goods coming into and going out of their country too, but they could not increase these duties very much without jeopardizing their competitiveness as mercantile competition became fiercer.

The Dutch-English wars of the 17th century illustrate the changes in the European trade system which were characterized by the transition from a system that was mostly run through the Netherlands, the Dutch performing the functions of universal buyer-seller and shipper, to one of several routes and intense competitiveness. The Dutch managed to stay ahead of their main competitors, England and France, and continued to make a lot of money from their far-reaching trading networks. Apart from their geographical advantages, the

Dutch were also successful because of the well-thought-out design of their large flyboats (fluiten), which had fewer crew members and were less costly than any of their competitors' ships.

8.2. Shifts in Naval Power and Technology

The Second Anglo-Dutch War witnessed major changes in naval power and technology. By the middle of the 17th century, the main weapon of the ships was the guns which were mounted along the sides of a ship of war. The installation of these muzzle loaders was done on a short, strong and sturdy hull that was specially designed to carry a gun deck and thus marked a change to maneuvering being a disadvantage in the fight. To maximize the number of guns that actually faced the enemy, the English and Dutch navies used the column or line ahead as their main tactical formation. Besides a means for command and control and directing the concentration of fighting force, the line also enabled the commanders to keep close watch over their troops and to coordinate maneuvers effectively.

Defeat of the Dutch navy at Lowestoft, off the coast of England, in June 1665 was one of the early events of the Second Anglo-Dutch War. The English won a clean and decisive victory, but the Dutch responded with a renewed vigor in the war. After the death of their admiral, Dutch captains deserted while the English, as a final act, fired off ships loaded with incendiaries among the ones already heavily damaged. Only Vice Admiral Cornelis Tromp was able to rally the fleeing ships and cover the retreat by firing at the pursuers. Following this defeat, the Dutch made extensive changes in their naval command and spent money on building new warships, and also decided to raise their own marine infantry contingent having observed the effectiveness of that of the British.

After England's initial blow, the Dutch managed to win most of the battles thereafter. In 1665, a plague struck London while the Great Fire in 1666 also added to England's woes.

All these events led to the destruction of their fleet that was docked at Chatham by the Dutch in June 1667. The Raid on the Medway is considered as one of the deepest downgrades that England and the Royal Navy had ever experienced. It was the English Ships that were destroyed by the Dutch fleet and this also went to show how defenseless England was against attacks on her own coast. There was a chain stretched from one side of the river to the other which the English thought would stop the Dutch fleet from sailing up the river and carrying out the attack but Dutch engineers removed this obstacle with great ease. Among the ships that were set on fire by the Dutch was one which was the flagship of the English Fleet. Following that, the Dutch withdrew and in the meantime, they had taken Royal Charles as a prize.

Disaster prompted the English to restore the Royal Navy to great power such that only the French fleet was able to match it in size. During this time, tactical study was mainly about maneuvers. One of the reasons for doing this was to "break the line" of the enemy fleet as this tactic not only broke the enemy's tactical cohesion but also made it possible to overwhelm individual ships by bringing greatly superior force to bear on each of them in turn.

The most reliable way of concentrating fire was to arrange it so that the batteries on a ship could be loaded vertically by one stacking gun decks over the other.

8.3. Legacy of Anglo-Dutch Rivalry

The Anglo-Dutch Wars were a series of naval conflicts in the 17th and 18th centuries, resulting from a commercial rivalry between England and the Dutch Republic. These wars changed the international political and economic situation to a great extent that the global powers were reshuffled. The First Anglo-Dutch War (1652-54) came about as a result of England's Navigation Act of 1651, which was aimed at the exclusion of the Dutch from

English sea trade. Although the Dutch won the first battle, the English, with their bigger and better-equipped ships, finally triumphed, leading to the Treaty of Westminster in 1654.

During the Dutch "Golden Age" (1609-1713), the Dutch Republic was successful politically, economically, and culturally, but the mercantilist policies in England and France severely threatened the Dutch near-monopoly of trade. Wars and taxation gradually raised the cost of living of the Dutch even though the Dutch East India Company and the Dutch West India Company were still dominating overseas trade. Eventually, the Dutch had to face vigorous competition from England.

The English and Dutch rivalry was the main cause of the Dutch Republic's fall to the rank of the minor powers of the world. Strengthening of England's navy and her advantage of geographical position strategically were the main reasons why England was able to surpass the Dutch in global trade and colonial dominance. The result of these wars can be seen in the colonial maps being redrawn and the global trade dynamics changed, whereby England became the dominant force on the world stage. The English saw it plainly that no merchant ship could safely navigate Bombay or any of those parts unless each one of them was armed with enough cannon and other firepower to not only protect their factories but to also deter pirates and privateers during the long voyage to and from the East.

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