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SIGNIFICANT EVENTS IN THE HISTORY OF DIPLOMACY

Improving Listening Skills

M A N U A L

ԵՐԵՎԱՆԻ ՊԵՏԱԿԱՆ ՀԱՄԱԼՍԱՐԱՆ

Մարինե Սկրտչյան, Արմենուհի Մարտիրոսյան
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**Significant Events in the History
of Diplomacy**
Improving Listening Skills

**Դիվանագիտության պատմության
նշանակալի իրադարձությունները
(ունկնդրելով ընկալման հմտությունների
զարգացում)**

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ԵՊՀ միջազգային հարաբերությունների
ֆակուլտետի գիտական խորհուրդը*

Գրախոսներ՝ Ռ. Առուստամյան
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Մկրտչյան Մ., Մարտիրոսյան Ա.

Մ 806 Դիվանագիտության պատմության նշանակալի իրադարձությունները (“Significant Events in the History of Diplomacy”)/ Մ. Մկրտչյան, Ա. Մարտիրոսյան, -Եր., ԵՊՀ հրատ., 2018, 178 էջ:

«Դիվանագիտության պատմության նշանակալի իրադարձությունները» (“Significant Events in the History of Diplomacy”) ձեռնարկը նախատեսված է ուսանողների և անգլերեն սովորողների լայն շրջանակի համար: Ձեռնարկում գետեղված նյութերը վերցված են Վեջաս Գաբրիել Լիուլեվիչուսի «Պատերազմ, խաղաղություն և իշխանություն. Եվրոպայի դիվանագիտական պատմությունը 1500-2000 թթ.-ին» (“War, Peace and Power: Diplomatic History of Europe, 1500-2000” by Vejas Gabriel Liulevicius) գրքից: Ձեռնարկում ներկայացված են գրքի հինգից մինչև յոթերորդ դասերը՝ «Երեսնամյա պատերազմը», «Վեստֆալյան խաղաղությունը (1648 թ.) - Նոր դարաշրջան», «Ֆրանսիական գերտերություն» (“The Thirty Years’ War”, “The Peace of Westphalia, 1648 – A New Era”, “French Superpower”) ձայնասկավառակով: Ներկայացվող ձայնասկավառակը կօգնի սովորողներին լսել հնչող խոսքը և սովորել բառերի ճիշտ արտասանությունը:

Ձեռնարկում գետեղված նյութերը բուհական դասագրքերին կից կարող են գործածվել որպես օժանդակ նյութ:

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Նախաբան

«Դիվանագիտության պատմության նշանակալի իրադարձությունները» (“Significant Events in the History of Diplomacy”) ձեռնարկի նպատակն է ոչ միայն օգնել լսել և հասկանալ հնչող խոսքը, այլև աջակցել ուսանողներին մասնագիտական գիտելիքների հարստացման հարցում:

«Դիվանագիտության պատմության նշանակալի իրադարձությունները» ձեռնարկը նախատեսված է միջազգային հարաբերությունների ֆակուլտետների ուսանողների և անգլերեն սովորողների լայն շրջանակի համար:

Ձեռնարկը բաղկացած է երեք հիմնական դասերից, պարունակում է հիմնական նյութի վերաբերյալ վարժություններ, լրացուցիչ ընթերցանության համար նախատեսված նյութեր ու օգտագործած աղբյուրների ցանկ:

Ձեռնարկում տեղ գտած դասերը վերցված են Վեջաս Գաբրիել Լիուլեվիչըսի «Պատերազմ, խաղաղություն և իշխանություն. Եվրոպայի դիվանագիտական պատմությունը 1500-2000 թթ.-ին» (“War, Peace and Power: Diplomatic History of Europe, 1500-2000” by Vejas Gabriel Liulevicius) գրքից: Ներկայացված են միայն հինգից մինչև յոթերորդ դասերը՝ «Երեսնամյա պատերազմը», «Վեստֆալյան խաղաղությունը (1648 թ.) - Նոր դարաշրջան», «Ֆրանսիական գերտերություն» (“The Thirty Years’ War”, “The Peace of Westphalia, 1648 – A New Era”, “French Superpower”): Ամբողջ երեք դասերն էլ ներկայացված են ձայնասկավառակով, իսկ վարժություններն ամբողջությամբ գետեղված են ձեռնարկում: Նյութի ընկալման հետ կապված դժվարությունների հաղթահարմանն օգնելու նպատակով դասընթացում ներառված է նյութի թեմատիկ բառապաշարն ընդգրկող բառացանկ, որն օգնում է անժանոթ բառերի, արտահայտությունների յուրացմանը, մասնագիտական նյութի ամբողջական և կապակցված ընկալմանը:

Յուրաքանչյուր դասընթացից առաջ ուսանողին առաջարկվում է լրացուցիչ նյութ տվյալ թեմային առնչվող իրադարձության կամ հայտնի դիվանագետների, քաղաքական գործիչների, փիլիսոփաների և այլոց վերաբերյալ: Նշված լրացուցիչ նյութերը ոչ միայն հեշտացնում են բանավոր խոսքի իմաստը ընկալելը, այլև ընդլայնում են ուսանողի գիտելիքները տեղեկատվական, արժեքավոր նյութերով: Առանձնապես կարևորվում են յուրաքանչյուր դասում տեղ գտած հարցադրումները, որոնք ստուգում են նյութի ընկալումը: Ձեռնարկում կա նաև վարժության մեկ այլ տեսակ, որտեղ ուսանողը պետք է լրացնի բաց թողնված բառերը և արտահայտությունները:

Ներկայացված բազմաբնույթ վարժությունները միտված են նպաստելու հաղորդակցման հնարավորությունների ու հաղորդակցման շրջանակի ընդլայնմանը:

UNIT 1. The Thirty Years' War

Listening 1.

CD 1, Track 1

apocalyptic – outstanding in significance

dimension(s) – magnitude, extent, degree, scope

culmination – the final, highest or decisive point

to touch off – to cause a disturbance, violence, etc.; to cause to
explode

to rage – to surge with great violence

durable – long-lasting, enduring

to pull in – to draw or attract

to shunt aside – to move or be moved aside

watershed – an important period or factor that serves as a dividing
line

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What does today's lecture cover?
2. What did the conflict itself intertwine?
3. Why was the war internationalized?
4. What did the war give to the existing conflict?

II. Listen to the extract and continue.

1. The Thirty Years' War raged in the centre of _____.
2. In the previous lecture they had examined the many conflicts

3. _____ explosive elements of religion and politics.
4. When it seemed _____ that the Holy Roman Emperor _____ establishing more _____, the war grew _____.
5. Ultimately, after thirty years the result of _____ rather than a _____.
6. This exhaustion itself would help to produce _____, _____ in European diplomatic history.

III. What does the author mean by saying

apocalyptic dimensions _____
the culmination of those issues _____
shunt aside the original religious loyalties _____
a watershed in the diplomatic history _____

IV. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statements you hear.

_____ The lecture will cover the Thirty Years' War and its nearly apocalyptic dimensions as it raged in the centre of the European Continent from 1680 to 1689.

_____ The conflict, which had been touched off by a fascinating diplomatic incident in Bohemia raged for an entire generation across the centre of Europe.

_____ It was internationalized, as it pulled in more and more major European powers.

_____ The forces of the Holy Roman Empire were gathered in order to quell this rebellion.

V. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

And increasingly, political _____ and _____ of royal families and of states displaced, or removed, or _____ the original religious loyalties and issues that had played more _____ at the start of the conflict. Ultimately, after thirty years the result of this _____ rather than _____. And this exhaustion itself would help to _____ change, _____ in European diplomatic history, in how _____ was understood as well as practised.

Listening 2.

CD 1, Track 2

defenestration – the act of throwing someone out of a window

to confer (with) – to hold or take part in a conference or consult together

to unfold – to develop or expand

at odds – on bad terms

cause – the ideals, etc. of a group or movement, the interests of a person or group in a dispute

ignoble – dishonourable, despicable, shameful

ramifications – consequences

at stake – at risk

searing – severe

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What is one of the most famous diplomatic incidents and how is it called?

2. How did the incident happen?
3. Speak about the propaganda of the Protestants and their claims.
4. What did the Catholic side claim?
5. Why did the war grow in scope?

II. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

This diplomatic incident is one of the most famous diplomatic incidents, it's the so-called "_____", and _____ is a fancy word for _____ out of a window. What happened was this: the Holy Roman Emperor Matthias had sought _____ Bohemian Protestant leaders. In May of 1618 his representatives _____, were thrown out of a window of the Prague Castle _____, and remarkably enough, these representatives after being thrown from the window of the castle, _____. What then _____ was _____ of diplomatic reactions accompanied by _____ arguing the rights and wrongs of either side: on the one hand _____, on the other hand _____.

III. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statements you hear.

_____ The Thirty Years' War went through separate phases as it expanded, but it started with a war in Prague.

_____ The war started in Prague, today the capital of the Czech Republic, and what was then Bohemia, in the lands of the Holy Roman Empire.

_____ The Catholic side claimed that the very fact that these representatives, who had been thrown from the window of the

Prague Castle, had survived was a sign of the justice of their own cause.

_____ Well, whatever the complexities of this sort of propaganda, this incident and its ramifications in fact were quite serious because they led to war.

IV. Listen to the recording and correct the wrong parts according to the passage.

1. The propaganda of the Protestants was *very friendly and challenging* _____ with that of the Catholic Emperor.
2. *Catholic propaganda* _____, by contrast, claimed that the reality had been of far more ignoble one: they claimed that the representatives had only been saved by falling into a dung heap.
3. Well, whatever the complexities of this sort of propaganda, and charges, and countercharges, this incident and its *ramifications* in fact *were not quite serious* _____.

V. How does the topic develop? Number each in order.

- _____ Great War or Big War.
- _____ The conflict started with one diplomatic incident in Prague.
- _____ The propaganda of the Protestants and the Catholic Emperor.
- _____ The definition of the so-called “defenestration of Prague”.

Supplementary Reading

Bohemia



Bohemia was a duchy of Great Moravia, later an independent principality, a kingdom in the Holy Roman Empire, and subsequently a part of the Habsburg Monarchy and the Austrian Empire.

After the death of King Louis II of Hungary and Bohemia in the Battle of Mohács in 1526, Archduke Ferdinand of Austria became the new King of Bohemia and the country became a constituent state of the Habsburg Monarchy. Bohemia enjoyed religious freedom between 1436 and 1620, and became one of the most liberal countries of the Christian world during that period.

After Emperor Matthias II and then King of Bohemia Ferdinand II (later Holy Roman Emperor) began oppressing the rights of Protestants in Bohemia, the resulting Bohemian Revolt led to the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War in 1618. Elector Frederick V of the Electorate of the Palatinate, a Protestant, was elected by the Bohemian nobility to replace Ferdinand on the Bohemian throne, and was known as the Winter King. Frederick's wife, the popular

Elizabeth Stuart and subsequently Elizabeth of Bohemia, known as the Winter Queen or Queen of Hearts, was the daughter of King James VI of Scotland. However, after Frederick's defeat in the Battle of White Mountain in 1620, 27 Bohemian estates leaders together with Jan Jesenius, rector of the Charles University of Prague were executed on the Prague's Old Town Square on 21 June 1621 and the rest were exiled from the country; their lands were then given to Catholic loyalists (mostly of Bavarian and Saxon origin), this ended the pro-reformation movement in Bohemia and also ended the role of Prague as ruling city of the Holy Roman Empire.

In the so-called "renewed constitution" of 1627, the German language was established as a second official language in the Czech lands. The Czech language formally remained the first language in the kingdom, however, both German and Latin were widely spoken among the ruling classes, although German became increasingly dominant, while Czech was spoken in much of the countryside.

The formal independence of Bohemia was further jeopardized when the Bohemian Diet approved administrative reform in 1749. It included the indivisibility of the Habsburg Empire and the centralization of rule; this essentially meant the merging of the Royal Bohemian Chancellery with the Austrian Chancellery.

At the end of the 18th century, the Czech National Revival movement, in cooperation with part of the Bohemian aristocracy, started a campaign for restoration of the kingdom's historic rights, whereby the Czech language was to regain its historical role and replace German as the language of administration. The enlightened absolutism of Joseph II and Leopold II, who introduced minor language concessions, showed promise for the Czech movement, but many of these reforms were later rescinded. During the Revolution of 1848, many Czech nationalists called for autonomy for Bohemia from Habsburg Austria, but the revolutionaries were defeated. The old Bohemian Diet, one of the last remnants of the independence,

was dissolved, although the Czech language experienced a rebirth as romantic nationalism developed among the Czechs.

In 1861, a new elected Bohemian Diet was established.

After the defeat of Austria in the Austro-Prussian War in 1866, Hungarian politicians achieved the Austro-Hungarian Compromise of 1867, ostensibly creating equality between the Austrian and Hungarian halves of the empire. An attempt by the Czechs to create a tripartite monarchy (Austria-Hungary-Bohemia) failed in 1871. However, the "state rights program" remained the official platform of all Czech political parties (except for social democrats) until 1918.

After World War I, Bohemia (as the largest and most populous land) became the core of the newly formed country of Czechoslovakia. Under its first president, Tomáš Masaryk, Czechoslovakia became a liberal democratic republic but serious issues emerged regarding the Czech majority's relationship with the native German and Hungarian minorities.

Following the Munich Agreement in 1938, the border regions of Bohemia historically inhabited predominantly by ethnic Germans (the Sudetenland) were annexed to Nazi Germany; this was the only time in Bohemian history that its territory was politically divided. The remnants of Bohemia and Moravia were then annexed by Germany in 1939, while the Slovak lands became the separate Slovak Republic, a puppet state of Nazi Germany. From 1939 to 1945 Bohemia, (without the Sudetenland), together with Moravia formed the German Protectorate of Bohemia and Moravia. Any open opposition to German occupation was brutally suppressed by the Nazi authorities and many Czech patriots were executed as a result. After World War II ended in 1945, the vast majority of remaining Germans were expelled by force by the order of the re-established Czechoslovak central government, based on the Potsdam Agreement, and their property was confiscated by the Czech authorities. This severely depopulated the area and from this moment

on locales were only referred to in their Czech equivalents regardless of their previous demographic makeup.

After the dissolution of Czechoslovakia in 1993, the territory of Bohemia remained in the Czech Republic. Bohemia thus remains a historical region, the historical land names remain in use in names of municipalities, cadastral areas, railway stations or geographical names. The distinction and border between the Czech lands is also preserved in local dialects.

Emperor Matthias



Matthias (24 February 1557 – 20 March 1619) was Holy Roman Emperor from 1612, King of Hungary and Croatia from 1608 (as Matthias II) and King of Bohemia from 1611. He was a member of the House of Habsburg.

Matthias was born in the Austrian capital of Vienna to Maximilian II, Holy Roman Emperor and Maria of Spain.

Matthias married Archduchess Anna of Austria, daughter of his uncle Archduke Ferdinand II of Austria, whose successor in Further Austria Matthias became in 1595. Their marriage did not produce surviving children.

In 1578, Matthias was invited to the Netherlands by the States-General of the rebellious provinces, who offered him the position of Governor-General. Matthias accepted the appointment, although the position was not recognized by his uncle, Philip II of Spain, the hereditary ruler of the provinces. He set down the rules for religious peace within most of the United Provinces. His work is noted in Article 13 of the 1579 Union of Utrecht, which established freedom

of religion as a locally determined issue. Matthias continued as titular governor for the rebels until they deposed Philip II and declared full independence in 1581, at which point he returned home to Austria.

In 1593 he was appointed governor of Austria by his brother, Emperor Rudolf II. He formed a close association there with the Bishop of Vienna, Melchior Klesl, who later became his chief adviser. In 1605 Matthias forced the ailing emperor to allow him to deal with the Hungarian Protestant rebels. The result was the Peace of Vienna of 1606, which guaranteed religious freedom in Hungary and guaranteed the right of Transylvanians to elect their own independent princes in the future. In the same year Matthias was recognized as head of the House of Habsburg and as the future Holy Roman Emperor, as a result of Rudolf's illness. Allying himself with the estates of Hungary, Austria, and Moravia, Matthias forced his brother to yield rule of these lands to him in 1608; Rudolf later ceded Bohemia in 1611. Matthias's army then held Rudolf prisoner in his castle in Prague, until 1611, when Rudolf was forced to cede the crown of Bohemia to his brother.

After Matthias's accession as Holy Roman Emperor, his policy was dominated by Klesl, who hoped to bring about a compromise between Catholic and Protestant states within the Holy Roman Empire in order to strengthen it. Matthias had already been forced to grant religious concessions to Protestants in Austria and Moravia, as well as in Hungary, when he had allied with them against Rudolf. Matthias imprisoned Georg Keglević who was the Commander-in-chief, General, Vice-Ban of Croatia, Slavonia and Dalmatia, but soon left him free again. At that time the Principality of Transylvania was a fully autonomous, but only semi-independent state under the nominal suzerainty of the Ottoman Empire, where it was the time of the Sultanate of Women.

Matthias's conciliatory policies were opposed by the more intransigent Catholic Habsburgs, particularly Matthias's brother Archduke Maximilian, who hoped to secure the succession for the inflexible Catholic Archduke Ferdinand (later Emperor Ferdinand II). The start of the Bohemian Protestant revolt in 1618 provoked Maximilian to imprison Klesl and revise his policies. Matthias, old and ailing, was unable to prevent a takeover by Maximilian's faction. Ferdinand, who had already been crowned King of Bohemia and of Hungary, succeeded Matthias as Holy Roman Emperor.

Matthias died in Vienna in 1619.

Prague Castle



kept within a hidden room inside it.

According to the Guinness Book of Records, Prague Castle is the largest ancient castle in the world, occupying an area of almost 70,000 square metres. The castle is among the most visited tourist attractions in Prague attracting over 1.8 million visitors annually.

In 1918, the castle became the seat of the president of the new Czechoslovak T.G. Masaryk. On March 15, 1939, shortly after the Nazi Germany forced Czech President Emil Hacha (who suffered a heart attack during the negotiations) to hand his nation over to the

Germans, Adolf Hitler spent a night in the Prague Castle, "proudly surveying his new possession." During the Nazi occupation of Czechoslovakia in World War II, Prague Castle became the headquarters of Reinhard Heydrich, the Reich Protector of Bohemia and Moravia. He was said to have placed the Bohemian crown on his head; old legends say an usurper who places the crown on his head is doomed to die within a year. Less than a year after assuming power, on May 27, 1942, Heydrich was attacked during Operation Anthropoid, by British-trained Slovak and Czech soldiers while on his way to the Castle, and died of his wounds (which became infected) a week later.

After the liberation of Czechoslovakia and the coup in 1948, the Castle housed the offices of the communist Czechoslovak government. After Czechoslovakia split into the Czech Republic and Slovakia, the castle became the seat of the Head of State of the new Czech Republic.

Listening 3.

CD 1, Track 3

to set out – to begin or embark on an undertaking

to quell – to suppress; to subdue

looming – coming into view with an enlarged and often threatening aspect

to subdue – to bring under control by intimidation; to repress

to execute – to put (a condemned person) to death; to inflict capital punishment upon

magnitude – importance, significance, or extent

to solidify – to make or become strong, united, etc.

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. How long did the first Bohemian phase last?
2. What kind of actions did Ferdinand II take to quell the rebellious Bohemian nobles?
3. What was the reaction of the rebellious Bohemian nobles?
4. Speak about the war between the imperial Catholic armies and the Protestant forces.
5. Who was the “Winter King”?
6. Why were the Protestant states of Northern Europe worried?

II. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. The first Bohemian phase lasted
 - a. from 1618 to 1625.
 - b. from 1680 to 1865.
 - c. from 1619 to 1937.
2. Emperor Ferdinand gathered the forces of the Holy Roman Empire in order
 - a. to gain assistance from Habsburg as well as Catholic Bavaria.
 - b. to repress the revolt.
 - c. to celebrate the magnificent victory.
3. What does the topic say about the Battle of White Mountain in 1620?
 - a. The Protestant forces invaded Bohemia and achieved a crushing victory against the Catholic armies.

- b. The imperial Catholic invaded Bohemia and achieved a crushing defeat against the Protestant forces.
 - c. The imperial Catholic invaded Bohemia and achieved a crushing victory against the Protestant forces.
4. The results of this victory were significant because
- a. the Holy Roman Empire lost its authority.
 - b. the Protestants in Bohemia were brought under control by intimidation.
 - c. the Protestants were given freedom after negotiations.
5. Why were the Protestant states of Northern Europe worried and concerned?
- a. the Protestants were worried about the events and developments in Europe.
 - b. the Protestant states were concerned about the rebellion in Germany.
 - c. the Protestants were anxious about the Protestant principalities of Eastern Europe.

III. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statements you hear.

_____ A new emperor, Ferdinand II set out to quell the rebellious Bohemian nobles.

_____ They declared the Catholic Emperor as the King of Bohemia.

_____ The Bohemian Protestants called for help from other Protestant communities in Europe.

IV. What does the author mean by saying

to set out to quell the rebellion _____

to plead for some assistance _____

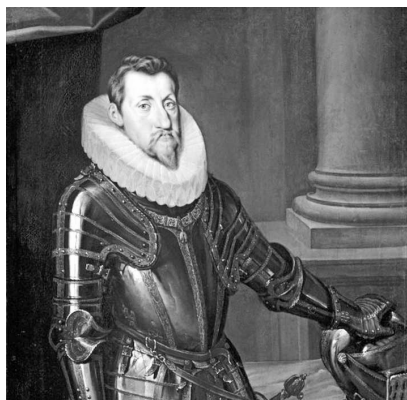
to solidify its power _____
to consolidate its authority _____

V. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

So, the very success itself, in an almost _____
dynamics created an international reaction against the Holy Roman
Empire. The _____ Bohemian king Frederick V, who was
known as the “Winter King” because he had ruled for only such a
very short time before losing his new office,
_____ throughout Europe’s courts. This
was _____ in which he travelled from one
Protestant royal family to another _____ in order
to somehow _____, but ultimately _____.

Supplementary Reading

Ferdinand II



Ferdinand II (9 July 1578 – 15 February 1637), a member of the House of Habsburg, was Holy Roman Emperor, King of Bohemia, and King of Hungary. His acts started the Thirty Years' War. Ferdinand's aim, as a zealous Catholic, was to restore Catholicism as the only religion in the Empire and to suppress Protestantism.

Born at Graz, he was educated by the Jesuits and later attended the University of Ingolstadt. After completing his studies in 1595, he acceded to his hereditary lands (where his older cousin, Archduke Maximilian III of Austria, had acted as regent between 1593 and 1595) and made a pilgrimage to Loreto and Rome. Shortly afterwards, he began the suppression of Protestantism in his territories.

With the Oñate treaty, Ferdinand obtained the support of the Spanish Habsburgs in the succession of his childless cousin Matthias, in exchange for concessions in Alsace and Italy. In 1617, he was elected King of Bohemia by the Bohemian Diet, in 1618, King of Hungary by the Hungarian estates, and in 1619, Holy Roman Emperor.

His devout Catholicism and negative regard of Protestantism caused immediate turmoil in his non-Catholic subjects, especially in Bohemia. He did not wish to uphold the religious liberties signed by the previous emperor, Rudolf II, which had guaranteed the freedom of religion to the nobles and the inhabitants of the cities. Ferdinand was an absolutist monarch and infringed several historical privileges of the nobles. Given the relatively great number of Protestants in the kingdom, including some of the nobles, the king's unpopularity soon caused the Bohemian Revolt. The Second Defenestration of Prague of 22 May 1618 is considered the first step of the Thirty Years' War.

In the following events he remained one of the staunchest backers of the Anti-Protestant Counter Reformation efforts as one of the heads of the German Catholic League. Supported by the Catholic League and the Kings of Spain and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, Ferdinand decided to reclaim his possession in Bohemia and to quench the rebels. On 8 November 1620 his troops, led by the Flemish general Johann Tserclaes, Count of Tilly, smashed the rebels of Frederick V, who had been elected as rival

King in 1619. After Frederick's flight to the Netherlands, Ferdinand ordered a massive effort to bring about re-conversion to Catholicism in Bohemia and Austria, causing Protestantism there to nearly disappear in the following decades, and reduced the Diet's power.

In 1625, despite the subsidies received from Spain and the Pope, Ferdinand was in a bad financial situation. In order to muster an imperial army to continue the war, he applied to Albrecht von Wallenstein, one of the richest men in Bohemia: the latter accepted on condition that he could keep total control over the direction of the war, as well as over the booties taken during the operations. Wallenstein was able to recruit some 30,000 men (later expanded up to 100,000), with whom he was able to defeat the Protestants in Silesia, Anhalt and Denmark. In the wake of these Catholic military successes, in 1629 Ferdinand issued the Edict of Restitution, by which all the lands stripped from Catholics after the Peace of Passau of 1552 would be returned.

Ferdinand died in 1637, leaving to his son Ferdinand III, Holy Roman Emperor, an empire still engulfed in a war and whose fortunes seemed to be increasingly chaotic. Ferdinand II was buried in his Mausoleum in Graz. His heart was interred in the Herzgruft (heart crypt) of the Augustinian Church, Vienna.

Frederick V



Frederick V (26 August 1596 – 29 November 1632) was, as the son and heir of Frederick IV, Elector Palatine, the Elector of the Rhine Palatinate in the Holy Roman Empire upon his father's death in 1610. In 1619 the Protestant estates of Bohemia rebelled against the Catholic Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand

II and offered the crown of Bohemia to Frederick as an influential member of the Protestant Union, an organization founded by his father for the protection of Protestants in the Empire. After accepting the crown as Frederick I, he was abandoned by his allies in the Union and his brief reign as the King of Bohemia ended with his defeat at the Battle of White Mountain – only two months after his coronation – and earned him the derisive nick name of 'the Winter King'. This defeat was followed by an Imperial invasion of Frederick's Palatinate lands and he was forced to flee to Holland in 1622, being formally deprived of them in 1623 by Imperial edict. He lived the rest of his life in exile with his wife and family at the Hague and died in Mainz in 1632.

His eldest surviving son Charles I Louis, Elector Palatine returned to power in 1648 with the end of the war. His daughter Princess Sophia was eventually named heiress presumptive to the British throne, and was the founder of the Hanoverian line of kings.

Count von Tilly



Johann Tserclaes, Count of Tilly (February 1559 – April 1632) was a field marshal who commanded the Catholic League's forces in the Thirty Years' War. He had a string of important victories against the Protestants but was then defeated by forces led by the King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden. Along with Duke Albrecht von Wallenstein of Ferdinand and Mecklenburg, he was one of two

chief commanders of the Holy Roman Empire's forces in the first half of the war.

As commander of the forces of the Catholic League he fought against the Bohemian rebels following the Defenestration of Prague, by which time he had trained his soldiers in the Spanish *Tercio* system, which featured musketeers supported by deep ranks of pikemen. A force of 25,000 soldiers, including troops of both the Catholic League and the Emperor scored an important victory at the decisive Battle of White Mountain west of Prague on 8 November 1620. Half of the enemy forces were killed or captured, while the Catholic League lost only 700 men. This victory was vital in crushing resistance to the Emperor in Bohemia, as it allowed Prague to be captured several days later.

The Battle of White Mountain



Battle of White Mountain (Nov. 8, 1620) was fought near Prague in Bohemia. The battle marked the first major victory of the Roman Catholic Habsburgs over the Protestant Union, a military alliance among the Protestant states of Germany, in the Thirty Years' War (1618–48). The victory enabled the house of Habsburg to end constitutional rule in Bohemia and its neighbours and to establish an

authoritarian government that survived for three centuries, until the reconstruction of central Europe following World War I.

The army raised by the Bohemian rebels and their allies after 1618 achieved initial success, especially after Frederick V, elector Palatine of the Rhine, accepted their offer of the Bohemian crown. In 1620, however, the combined forces of the German Catholic League and of the Holy Roman emperor and king of Bohemia Ferdinand II, under Johann Tserclaes, gradually drove them back toward Prague. Christian of Anhalt, Frederick's principal adviser and one of his military commanders, decided to make a stand on White Mountain (Bílá hora) hoping that his opponents would not dare to attack in winter. He miscalculated: in just one hour Tilly's forces, which included many notable Catholics (such as the future philosopher René Descartes), routed Christian's men. Prague fell at once, soon followed by the rest of the areas in revolt.

An English envoy in Bohemia immediately grasped the significance of the brief encounter. "The loss of soldiers was not much unequal," he wrote, "but the loss of cannon, the baggage, reputation, is the Imperialists victory who, as it seems, hold Bohemia now by conquest." Ferdinand at once had the rebel leaders tried and executed, confiscated the lands of all their supporters, expelled all Protestants, and abolished the constitution. In 1627 he issued a "new constitution," which created an authoritarian government that lasted until 1918, when Czechoslovakia was formed out of Bohemia and adjoining regions. He imposed similar measures on Bohemia's allies in the rebellion against him: Austria, Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia.

Catholics all over Europe celebrated the victory. In Rome, Pope Paul V died while leading a victory parade, and his successor, Gregory XV, gave a new basilica by Italian architect Carlo Maderno the name Santa Maria della Vittoria (Saint Mary of Victory) in honour of the battle. Gregory also canonized Teresa of Avila, whom participants claimed had appeared just before the battle

in order to encourage the victorious troops. In Prague, Ferdinand laid the foundations of the monastery that still stands on the battleground, and he erected a victory column in the heart of the city, which Czech patriots saw as a symbol of Habsburg tyranny and tore down after 1918.

Listening 4.

CD 1, Track 4

to cast about for – to make a mental or visual search

to fare – to succeed, manage

as it were – in a way; so to speak

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Speak about the new phase of conflict.
2. What kind of role did the Protestant powers have in the conflict?
3. What was the power that took the leading role in the war?
4. Did the Danes succeed in the war?
5. Who was the formidable businessman who was known for his management skills?

II. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

This was a _____, a businessman, as it were, who put together military power and _____ because of his _____ fighting on the imperial side. This man was a fascinating and _____, his name was Albrecht von Wallenstein. He had _____ and is

often viewed by historians as _____; he was a Bohemian nobleman _____ to Catholicism after being raised as a Protestant, and who, it seemed, _____ that were offered to him, even though he was not of _____ himself, the possibilities offered to him _____ to build new power and _____.

III. What does the author mean by saying

not to fare well in the conflict _____
revived power _____
to put together military power _____
to set Europe on a different path _____

Supplementary Reading

Christian IV



Christian IV (12 April 1577 – 28 February 1648), sometimes colloquially referred to as *Christian Firtal* in Denmark and *Christian Kvart* or *Quart* in Norway, was king of Denmark-Norway and Duke of Holstein and Schleswig from 1588 to 1648. His 59-year reign is the longest of Danish

monarchs, and of Scandinavian monarchies.

A member of the House of Oldenburg, Christian began his personal rule of Denmark in 1596 at the age of 19. He is frequently remembered as one of the most popular, ambitious, and proactive

Danish kings, having initiated many reforms and projects. Christian IV obtained for his kingdom a level of stability and wealth that was virtually unmatched elsewhere in Europe. He engaged Denmark in numerous wars, most notably the Thirty Years' War (1618–48), which devastated much of Germany, undermined the Danish economy, and cost Denmark some of its conquered territories. He renamed the Norwegian capital Oslo as *Christiania* after himself, a name used until 1925.

Christian took an interest in many and varied matters, including a series of domestic reforms and improving Danish national armaments. New fortresses were constructed under the direction of Dutch engineers. The Danish navy, which in 1596 had consisted of but twenty-two vessels, in 1610 rose to sixty, some of them built after Christian's own designs. The formation of a national army proved more difficult. Christian had to depend mainly upon hired mercenary troops as was common practice in the times – well before the establishment of standing armies – augmented by native peasant levies recruited for the most part from the peasantry on the crown domains.

Up until the early 1620s, Denmark's economy profited from general boom conditions in Europe. This inspired Christian to initiate a policy of expanding Denmark's overseas trade, as part of the mercantilist wave fashionable in Europe. He founded a number of merchant cities, and supported the building of factories. He also built a large number of buildings in Dutch Renaissance style.

His sister Anne had married King James VI of Scotland, who succeeded to the English throne in 1603. To foster friendly relations between the two kingdoms, Christian paid a state visit to England in 1606. The visit was generally judged to be a success, although the heavy drinking indulged in by English and Danes alike caused some unfavourable comments: both Christian and James had an ability to consume great amounts of alcohol, while remaining lucid, which

most of their courtiers did not share. The entertainment which was intended to crown the visit was described by the audience as a drunken fiasco, where most of the players simply fell over from the effects of too much wine.

Despite Christian's many efforts, the new economic projects did not return a profit. He looked abroad for new income. Christian IV's Expeditions to Greenland involved a series of voyages in the years 1605-1607 to Greenland and to Arctic waterways in order to locate the lost Eastern Norse Settlement and to assert Danish sovereignty over Greenland. The expeditions were unsuccessful, partly due to leaders lacking experience with the difficult Arctic ice and weather conditions.

In 1618, Christian appointed Admiral Ove Gjedde to lead an expedition to establish a Danish colony in Ceylon. The expedition set sail in 1618, taking two years to reach Ceylon and losing more than half their crew on the way. Upon arriving in May 1620, the establishment of a colony in Ceylon failed, but instead the *Nayak* of Tanjore (now Thanjavur in Tamil Nadu) turned out to be interested in trading opportunities and a treaty was negotiated granting the Danes the village of Tranquebar (or Tarangamabadi) on India's south coast and the right to construct a "stone house" (Fort Dansborg) and levy taxes. The treaty was signed on 20 November 1620, establishing Denmark's first colony in India. Christian also assigned the privilege establishing the Danish East India Company.

Albrecht von Wallenstein



The Bohemian soldier of fortune Albrecht Wenzel Eusebius von Wallenstein (1583-1634) was one of the major figures in the Thirty Years War. His administrative and financial talents made him one of the richest and most powerful men in Europe.

Albrecht von Wallenstein was born on Sept. 24, 1583, at Hermanitz in Bohemia of noble family. Reared in the Utraquist (Protestant) faith, he converted to Catholicism before 1606 and attached himself to the court of the Hapsburg archduke (later emperor) Matthias, with whom he shared a strong interest in astrology. Marriage with a rich widow in 1609 added large Moravian estates to his possessions.

In 1618, when the Protestant Bohemian nobles rebelled against Matthias's aggressively pro-Catholic successor, Ferdinand II, Wallenstein remained loyal to the Habsburgs. Although he did not participate in their decisive victory in 1620 near Prague, wholesale confiscation of rebel property enabled him to purchase the vast estates of Reichenberg and Friedland. By 1622 he was one of the largest landholders in the kingdom, a status Ferdinand II recognized in 1624 by granting him the title Duke of Friedland. Wallenstein's second marriage, in 1623 to Isabella von Harrach, brought him into the Emperor's most intimate circle.

Wallenstein's astonishingly rapid acquisition of enormous wealth and influence resulted from his ability to grasp every possible advantage from a political system dependent on mercenary armies. From the beginning, he organized his own estates to provide recruiting areas and supporting industries for equipping his regiments, whose services he offered at great profit. He was coldly calculating, shrewdly acquisitive, and enormously ambitious. But his talents as a commander in the field were mediocre.

Wallenstein was named imperial commander against the allied Protestant German and Danish forces in 1625. His first campaigns were disappointing in spite of the astonishing speed he had shown in raising and equipping the army. In 1627, with larger forces at his disposal, he swept the Danes out of Silesia and northern Germany, and by 1629 the Emperor could impose peace on Germany. Wallenstein's price for his services included payment of his debts, large new grants of land, and the duchy of Mecklenburg, this last making him a sovereign prince of the empire.

Overestimating the security of his position in Germany, Ferdinand II dismissed Wallenstein from command in 1630. The Swedish invasion of the same year, however, undid the earlier victories, and Ferdinand II again had to call on Wallenstein's services. The Emperor was at his general's mercy, and the price was exorbitant. The terms of their agreement are still a mystery, but they included, in addition to money and new estates, virtual independence from political or religious interference in territories won back from the Protestant forces. Wallenstein began his last campaign in 1632 by driving the Saxons from Bohemia and then forcing Gustavus II (Gustavus Adolphus) to withdraw from Bavaria. On Nov. 16, 1632, the Swedish army struck Wallenstein's forces at Lützen. Wallenstein withdrew from the field, abandoning his artillery, but Gustavus himself was killed, and the Swedish army retired leaderless.

Wallenstein had been incredibly lucky, and at this point he contemplated using his unprecedented powers as commander in chief to impose a peace on Germany with terms which fell far short of fulfilling Ferdinand's own policies. Wallenstein's own intentions are unfathomable, but both sides feared him as both competed for his allegiance. It is quite possible that he hoped to gain the Bohemian crown for himself. Whatever his motives were, he had decided by the end of 1633 to break with Ferdinand II and began negotiating with the Protestant princes. The Emperor again ordered Wallenstein's dismissal in January 1634 and, to prevent betrayal, ordered loyal officers to imprison him and bring him to Vienna, or if necessary, to kill him. Worn down by illness and enmeshed in the tangle of his own conspiracies, Wallenstein could not complete his negotiations with his former enemies before he was caught by officers loyal to the Emperor at the fortress of Eger in Bohemia. These officers shot Wallenstein on the night of Feb. 25, 1634.

Listening 5.

CD 1, Track 5

to settle with – to make an agreement with

to roll back – restore (a database) to a previously defined state

to decree – to order, adjudge or ordain by decree

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Who did Wallenstein's massive new armies move against?
2. What was the situation in Denmark in this phase of war?
3. When and where was Denmark forced to make an agreement?

4. Why was the Holy Roman Empire a threat to the Northern European power of Sweden?
5. Why was the so-called “Edict of Restitution” of tremendous significance?
6. What did the “Edict of Restitution” define?

II. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. Wallenstein raised mercenary armies in order
 - a. to invade Northern Germany.
 - b. to beat the Danes.
 - c. to move against Holy Roman Empire.
2. The Holy Roman Empire was a menace to
 - a. the Northern European countries.
 - b. Northern Germany.
 - c. the Northern European power of Sweden.
3. The main aim of the so called “Edict of Restitution” was
 - a. to make fundamental changes in the Reformation.
 - b. to restore changes which had come about as a result of a Reformation.
 - c. to iron out the religious conflicts.
4. What did the “Edict of Restitution” order?
 - a. to give back all the lands that had belonged to the Catholic Church.
 - b. to besiege the territories that had been seized since 1522.
 - c. to expand the zone of operations.

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Wallenstein raised massive new _____ and these armies moved against the Danes. They _____ Denmark and it was beaten in this phase of the war. Ultimately Denmark _____ the imperial side at the Treaty of Lübeck in Northern Germany _____. The surging northwards of Holy Roman imperial armies was a new factor because now the Holy Roman Empire had effectively _____ to the Baltic itself, to the Baltic Sea in Northern Europe, and now was a threat to the Northern European power of Sweden.

Supplementary Reading

Treaty of Lübeck (1629)



Treaty or Peace of Lübeck ended the Danish intervention in the Thirty Years' War. It was signed in Lübeck on 22 May 1629 by Albrecht von Wallenstein and Christian IV of Denmark, and on 7 June by Ferdinand II, Holy Roman Emperor. The Catholic League was formally included as a party. It restored to Denmark its pre-war territory at the cost of final disengagement from imperial affairs.

In September 1627, Tilly and Wallenstein had drafted a peace proposal for the Catholic League and the Holy Roman Emperor. The proposal had Christian IV of Denmark:

- surrender all imperial offices,
- surrender his bishoprics in the Lower Saxon Circle,
- buy out his provinces of Holstein, Schleswig and Jutland from the imperial occupation forces for two million Reichstaler each,
- cede either Glückstadt or Holstein to Ferdinand II, Holy Roman Emperor.

While the Danish rigsrådet accepted the proposal as a basis for negotiations, this was rejected by Christian IV. While the Catholic League pressed the emperor to continue the war, and Christian IV was urged likewise by England and the Netherlands, both sent their emissaries to Lübeck for negotiations in January 1629. The emperor had Wallenstein negotiate for him, and Christian IV had sent entrusted delegates whom he had selected bypassing his rigsrådet. Initially, both sides proposed diametrical peace terms:

Conditions for a peace proposed in January 1629

Wallenstein's terms	Danish delegates' terms
<p>Christian IV is to</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • compensate the emperor for his expenses in the Kejserkrigen, • cede Jutland and his duchies in the empire, • not interfere with the empire ever again. 	<p>Ferdinand II is to</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • restore to Christian IV all occupied provinces, • compensate the states of the Lower Saxon Circle for their losses during the occupation, • issue guarantees to the Lower Saxon states concerning their religious and political freedom.

Christian IV's position was somewhat strengthened by his military successes in 1628, but more so by Wallenstein's fear of a Danish-Swedish alliance. Bagging that fear, Christian IV personally met with Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden in February 1629, at Ulvsbäck. Gustavus Adolphus proposed a joint invasion of the empire, either from Stralsund or from Glückstadt, yet under the premise that overall command was with him, and that the invasion force would consist of more Swedish than Danish forces. Christian IV refused.

The treaty was concluded by Albrecht von Wallenstein and Christian IV of Denmark on 22 May 1629, and ratified by Ferdinand II, Holy Roman Emperor. The Catholic League was formally added as a party. The treaty restored to Christian IV his pre-war possessions, and obliged him to cede his claims to Lower Saxon bishoprics, to discontinue his alliances with the North German states, and to not interfere with further imperial affairs in the future.

Tilly had not succeeded in implementing a compensation of the imperial war costs on Christian IV. Also not included in the treaty's text was that Christian IV stop supporting Frederick V, Elector Palatine, as demanded by Maximilian I, Elector of Bavaria.

The treaty marked a turning point in Denmark's status, subsequently reduced from that of a major European power to a politically insignificant state. The new Nordic power would be Sweden, who was to turn the tide of the Thirty Years' War after her forces landed in Pomerania in 1630, and, starting with the Torstenson War, subsequently deprived Denmark of her trans-Kattegat provinces.

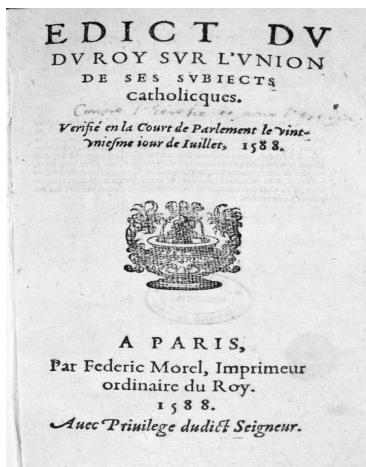
The treaty further divided Christian IV and the Rigsraadet, for Christian IV argued that if the latter had been in charge, it would have accepted the initial imperial territorial and financial demands.

Ferdinand II had hoped for more favourable terms, and was surprised and disappointed of what Wallenstein had negotiated.

While he had arranged for imposing his war costs on Christian IV, this was no longer an option.

Deprived of Danish protection, the North German states faced the Edict of Restitution, issued by Ferdinand II already during the negotiations. It aimed at a re-Catholization of northern Germany, and the restitution of former ecclesial possessions that had been secularized during the Protestant Reformation.

“Edict of Restitution”



The Edict of Restitution was Ferdinand's attempt to restore the religious and territorial settlement after the Peace of Augsburg (1555). The “Ecclesiastical Reservation” forbade the secularisation of Catholic land (i.e. being converted to some form of Protestant belief) after 1555. However, during the decades of weak emperors, princes had secularised Catholic land simply because it was so valuable

and they had got away with it as no emperor was powerful enough to enforce the “Ecclesiastical Reservation”.

The main proposal of the “Edict of Restitution” was to ensure that the “Ecclesiastical Reservation” was enforced and it affected the secularised archbishoprics of Bremen and Magdeburg, 12 bishoprics and over 100 religious houses. The Edict resulted in a great transfer of power and property away from the Protestants to the Catholics. Thousands of Protestants had to leave where they lived and go to states that were Protestant.

The greatest impact of this was in north-east Germany. It was in this area that Ferdinand's power was at its weakest, so this move was

very understandable and potentially very rewarding for him. Ferdinand appointed Imperial administrators to take over the secularised states/cities. By doing this, he was re-establishing Imperial authority to an area that had enjoyed freedom from Imperial rule for nearly 100 years. The threat was implicit to the German princes. It was a move that alarmed the French – though Ferdinand was well within his rights to do what he did.

The German princes could do nothing. They had seen the Coalition destroyed and Wallenstein had a massive army in the field – 134,000 troops – to enforce Imperial authority if required.

Ironically, Wallenstein disliked the Edict as it trespassed into the region he considered his own but he played his part for the emperor to the full. He stated that “he would teach the Electors manners. They must be dependent on the emperor, not the emperor on them.” Ferdinand would have approved of such words. The response of the princes was to group behind Maximilian of Bavaria to pressurise Ferdinand into dismissing Wallenstein.

Their chance came in 1630 when Ferdinand had to call a meeting of the Electors because he wanted his son, also called Ferdinand, elected King of the Romans. Ironically, the man with so much apparent power, had to rely, by law, on the votes of the Electors to maintain his dynasty in power. The meeting was held in Regensburg. Ferdinand also hoped to persuade the Electors to approve greater Imperial involvement in the wars that were being fought in Europe.

John of Saxony and George William of Brandenburg (both Protestant) stayed away in protest at the Edict of Restitution. Those Electors present realised that they had little to gain from involvement in wars that meant little to them. However, Maximilian still asked Ferdinand for the dismissal of Wallenstein.

To win over the Electors, Ferdinand sacked Wallenstein in August 1630 though Wallenstein argued that he was allowed to

resign to save face. To get dismissed the most powerful military figure in Europe was a major victory for the Electors and Regensburg must be seen as a defeat for Ferdinand. However, all of this was overshadowed by an event that had happened in July 1630 – Gustavus Adolphus had landed in Pomerania with 4,000 men. No one knew what his intentions were, but without Wallenstein, Ferdinand had to turn to Maximillian and Tilly once again.

Listening 6.

CD 1, Track 6

overreaching – extending or reaching beyond or over

to contain – to restrain, to prevent (an enemy forces) from operating
beyond a certain level or area

last resort – the last possible course of action open to one

subsidy – any monetary contribution, grant or aid

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Why were France and European countries alarmed?
2. How did France prepare to counterbalance imperial authority?
3. How did Richelieu try to restrain the apparently growing might?
4. Speak about the three important things which he aimed to accomplish.
5. What did “continuous negotiation” mean?

II. What does the author mean by saying

a vast increase in power _____
to intervene to preserve liberties _____

overreaching imperial power _____
to exploit all possibilities _____
to encourage resistance _____

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Richelieu was the man who stood behind these efforts to contain _____. He was the leader of the French state for Louis XIII who aimed principally to accomplish three things after he _____ within France. First of all, those three things were _____ what he feared was _____ by Habsburg lands, Habsburg Spain to the west, and Habsburg control within the lands of the Holy Roman Empire in the east. One of his aims was also to improve France's position in Europe _____ as well as _____, and then third, if possible, _____ towards the centre of the continent so that they could play a new role as the arbiter of the European state system.

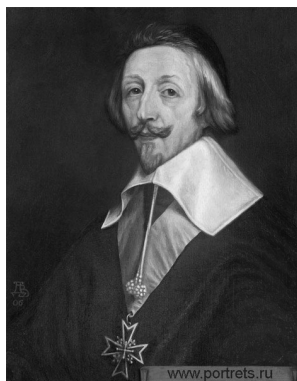
IV. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. France and other European powers were worried because
 - a. the Habsburgs seemed to counterbalance imperial authority.
 - b. the Habsburgs seemed to have an enormous increase in power.
 - c. the Habsburgs claimed that they were intervening to preserve German liberties.
2. Richelieu, the leader of the French state for Louis XIII did his utmost
 - a. to keep under proper control the increasing power of the Holy Roman Emperor.

- b. to boost the apparently growing might of the Holy Roman Emperor.
 - c. to enhance the authority of the Holy Roman Emperor.
3. The main goal of Richelieu was to carry out the following things:
- a. to encircle the Habsburg lands, Habsburg Spain to the west.
 - b. to strengthen France's position and expand territorially.
 - c. to gain great reputation through diplomacy as well as through military power.
4. Richelieu sought to accomplish his aims through the so-called "continuous negotiation" which meant
- a. to be actively involved in peace making negotiations with the Habsburgs.
 - b. to use all possibilities for making alliances with friends and enemies.
 - c. to exploit all chances and possibilities as a way of advancing French aims.

Supplementary Reading

Cardinal Richelieu



Cardinal Richelieu (1585-1642) was born Armand Jean du Plessis in Paris on September 9, 1585. He took the name Richelieu from the name of his family's estate. Armand was extremely intelligent and at the age of nine was sent to College de Navarre in Paris. In 1602, at age seventeen he began studying theology seriously. In 1606 he was appointed Bishop of Luçon, and in 1622 Pope

Gregory made Richelieu a Cardinal.

Cardinal Richelieu rose from his provincial post in Luçon to become France's Secretary of State for foreign affairs in 1616, and then on to head the royal council as prime minister of France in 1624. Even before becoming Prime Minister, Richelieu's political views were well-defined. He had a clear idea of how society should function. Everyone played a specific role in the system, making their unique contributions: the clergy through prayer; the nobility with arms under the control of the king, and the common people through obedience. Richelieu believed in the divine right of the king, whose role was to promote peace and order in society. Richelieu adhered to the maxim that "the ends justify the means". Although he devoutly believed in the mission of the Roman Church, he sought to assign the church a more practical role. Richelieu argued that the state is above everything, and that religion is a mere instrument to promote the policies of the state.

Cardinal Richelieu has been admired by many historians for his intelligence and energy. During his service as prime minister he helped France become the leading power in Europe. He supported the French navy and the establishment of French colonies in Africa and the Caribbean. Richelieu was also a great patron of the arts. He rebuilt the Sorbonne in Paris, supported promising writers and founded the French Academy. Many French historians consider Richelieu as the founder of French unity, as well as the person who released France from its medieval nature.

Listening 7.

CD 1, Track 7

resurgence – rising or tending to rise again, reviving

to descend – to arrive or attack in a sudden or overwhelming way

averse – unwilling, disinclined, opposed (to)

nearsighted – short-sighted, suffering from myopia

to disembark – to land (from a ship)

to trip – to stumble

cast of mind – temper, character

omen – an occurrence regarded as a sign of future event, esp disaster

portent – a sign or indication of a future event, esp a momentous or calamitous one, omen

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What interests did the Swedish elites pursue in the North?
2. What kind of country was Sweden and who was the king?
3. What kind of policy did Sweden pursue in Northern Europe?
4. Speak about the incident that occurred with the King of Sweden.

II. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statement you hear.

_____ Sweden was struggling to preserve the rights of Sweden elites.

_____ The king of Sweden had established a powerful military machine and had been expanding in the Northern Europe.

_____ The king was opposed to expanding further by moving into the Northern German Lands.

_____ King Gustavus II Adolphus was eager to increase his military power in the Northern German.

_____ When the king reached the German coast and started to disembark suddenly he stumbled.

_____ Swedish propaganda explained the omen as a successfully launched mission.

III. Listen to the recording and correct the wrong parts according to the passage.

1. After the *victory of the Protestants* _____ and after what seemed to be a yet another *revival of Protestant power* _____ was the entry of that threatened Northern realm, Sweden, into conflict.
2. Its king had established a powerful military machine, almost the most modern of its day, *with the help of its powerful allies* _____.
3. This king was the remarkable monarch King Gustavus II Adolphus who was known by the admiring nickname “The Lion of the North”, and this Lion of the North now *was expanding his influence in Eastern Europe* _____.
4. And to those of a more traditional or symbolic cast of mind this *might have been a seeming portent of coming victory* _____.

IV. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

He _____ of Northern Germany. But it didn't _____ because Gustavus Adolphus was _____, and as he was approaching the German coast and prepared _____ he managed _____. And to those of a more traditional or symbolic cast of mind this might have been _____. But Swedish propaganda instead argued that, oh, no, he hadn't fallen, _____, instead, he _____ to thank God that he was now being allowed to launch this hopefully _____. And propaganda here had managed _____ what might have been a bad omen into _____.

Supplementary Reading

King Gustavus II Adolphus



Gustav II Adolf (1594-1632, r. 1611-1632); widely known in English by his Latinised name **Gustavus Adolphus** or as **Gustav II Adolph**, was the King of Sweden from 1611 to 1632 and is credited as the founder of Sweden as a Great Power. He led Sweden to military supremacy during the Thirty Years' War, helping to determine the political as well as the religious balance of power in Europe. He was formally and posthumously given the name **Gustavus Adolphus the Great** by the Riksdag of the Estates in 1634.

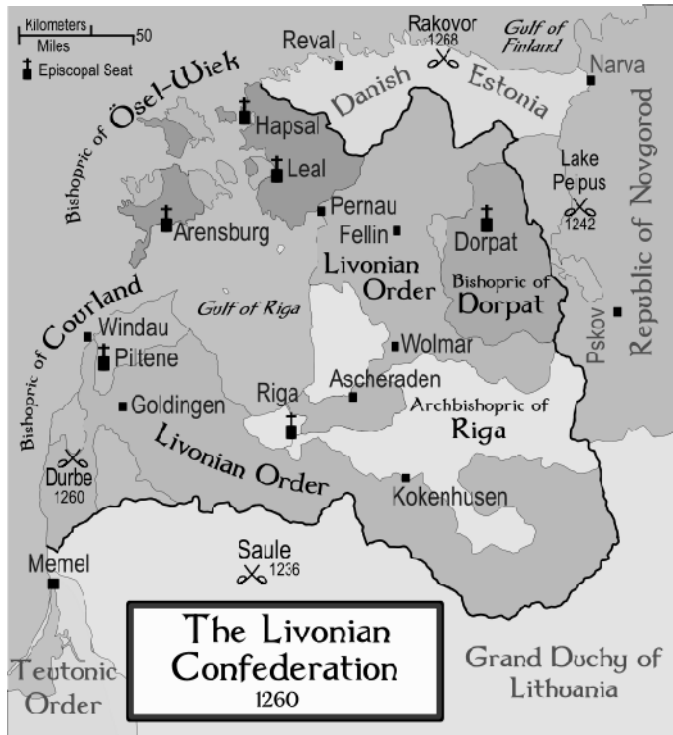
He is often regarded as one of the greatest military commanders of all time, with innovative use of combined arms. His most notable military victory was the Battle of Breitenfeld. With a superb military machine with good weapons, excellent training, and effective field artillery, backed by an efficient government which could provide necessary funds, Gustavus Adolphus was poised to make himself a major European leader, but he was killed a year later at the Battle of Lützen in 1632. He was ably assisted in his efforts by Count Axel Oxenstierna, the Lord High Chancellor of Sweden, who also acted as regent after his death.

In an era characterized by almost endless warfare, he led his armies as king from 1611 (at age 16) until his death in battle in 1632 while leading a charge – as Sweden rose from the status of a mere regional power to one of the great powers of Europe and a model of

early modern era government. Within only a few years of his accession, Sweden had become the largest nation in Europe after Russia, Spain and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth. Some have called him the "father of modern warfare", or the first great modern general. Under his tutelage, Sweden and the Protestant cause developed a number of excellent commanders, such as Lennart Torstensson, who would go on to defeat Sweden's enemies and expand the boundaries and the power of the empire long after Gustavus Adolphus' death in battle.

He was known by the epithets "The Golden King" and "The Lion of the North" by neighboring sovereigns. He made Sweden one of the great powers of Europe in part by reforming the administrative structure. For example, he began Parish registration of the population, so that the central government could more efficiently tax and conscript the people. Historian Christer Jorgensen argues that his achievement in the field of economic reform, trade, modernization, and the creation of the modern bureaucratic autocracy was as great as his exploits on the battlefields. His domestic reforms, which transformed a backward, almost medieval economy and society, were in fact not only the foundations for his victories in Germany, but also absolutely crucial for the creation and survival of the Swedish Empire.

Livonia



Livonia, a historic region on the eastern shores of the Baltic Sea, was once the land of the Finnic Livonians inhabiting the principal ancient Livonian County Metsepole with its center at Turaida (in present-day Latvia). The most prominent ruler of ancient Livonia, Caupo of Turaida, died in 1217.

During the Livonian Crusade (1193–1290) the Livonian Brothers of the Sword, known as the Livonian Order from 1237, colonized ancient Livonia. The name Livonia came to designate a much broader territory: Terra Mariana on the eastern coasts of the Baltic Sea, in the present-day Latvia and Estonia. It bordered on the

Gulf of Riga and the Gulf of Finland in the north-west, Lake Peipus and Russia to the east, and Lithuania to the south.

Livonia was inhabited by various Baltic and Finnic peoples, ruled from the 12th century by an upper class of Baltic Germans. Over the course of time, some nobles were Polonized into the Polish-Lithuanian nobility or became part of the Swedish nobility during the period of Swedish Livonia (1629–1721) or Russified into the Russian nobility.

Duchy of Livonia 1561–1621

In 1561, during the Livonian War, Livonia fell to the Grand Duchy of Lithuania with vassal dependency from Lithuania. Eight years later, in 1569, when the Grand Duchy of Lithuania and Kingdom of Poland formed Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, Livonia became a joint domain administered directly by the king and grand duke. Having rejected peace proposals from its enemies, Ivan the Terrible found himself in a difficult position by 1579, when Crimean Khanate devastated Muscovian territories and burnt down Moscow, the drought and epidemics have fatally affected the economy, Oprichnina had thoroughly disrupted the government, while The Grand Principality of Lithuania had united with The Kingdom of Poland (1385–1569) and acquired an energetic leader, Stefan Batory, supported by Ottoman Empire (1576). Stefan Batory replied with a series of three offensives against Muscovy, trying to cut The Kingdom of Livonia from Muscovian territories. During his first offensive in 1579 he retook Polotsk; during the second, in 1580 he took Velikie Luki, and in 1581 he started the Siege of Pskov. Frederick II of Denmark and Norway had trouble continuing the fight against Muscovy unlike Sweden and Poland. He came to an agreement with John III in 1580 giving him the titles in Livonia. That war would last from 1577 to 1582. Muscovy recognized Polish-Lithuanian control of Ducatus Ultradunensis only in 1582. After

Magnus von Lyffland died in 1583, Poland invaded his territories in The Duchy of Courland and Frederick II decided to sell his rights of inheritance. Except for the island of Æsel, Denmark was out of the Baltic by 1585. As of 1598 Inflanty Voivodeship was divided onto:

- Wenden Voivodeship
- Dorpat Voivodeship
- Parnawa Voivodeship

Swedish Livonia 1629–1721

Sweden was given roughly the same area as the former Duchy of Livonia after the 1626–1629 Polish–Swedish War. The area, usually known as Swedish Livonia, became a very important Swedish dominion, with Riga being the second largest Swedish city and Livonia paying for one third of the Swedish war costs. Sweden lost Swedish Livonia, Swedish Estonia and Ingria to Russia almost 100 years later, by the Capitulation of Estonia and Livonia in 1710 and the Treaty of Nystad in 1721.

Listening 8.

CD 1, Track 8

to surge – to move like a heavy sea

to rally – to organize (supporters, etc.) for a common cause

fit – outburst

to forestall – to delay, prevent, stop or guard against beforehand

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What were the aims of the Swedish king in Germany?

2. Describe the relationship between France and Sweden at that time.
3. Who was General Wallenstein and why had he been fired?
4. When and where was Gustavus Adolphus killed?
5. What kind of dramatic role did Wallenstein have in that period?

II. What does the author mean by saying

under Swedish patronage _____
 at cross purposes _____
 to contain the Swedish advance _____
 organizational skills _____
 dramatic fits of political revolution _____
 mysterious plotting _____

III. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. What did the Swedish king seek to do?
 - a. The Swedish king and his allied armies wanted to surge all the way to Southern Germany.
 - b. He aspired to limit the defensive Protestant rights in Germany.
 - c. The king aimed to establish a Protestant federation throughout the northern lands under Swedish patronage.
2. Which country had the dominating power in Europe?
 - a. France acquired great power in the North of Europe.
 - b. Sweden dominated the centre of Europe.
 - c. Both countries had dominating powers throughout Europe.
3. Why was General Wallenstein brought back?
 - a. Because he could bring together the Catholic forces and restrain the Swedish advance.

- b. Because he was too powerful and too threatening for some authorities on the imperial side.
 - c. Because he had great organizational skills.
4. Why do historians still argue about Wallenstein?
- a. They think that his murder prevented the sort of revolutionary development in the country.
 - b. They think that he has turned Europe on a different path.
 - c. They can't give the true description of his policy.

Supplementary Reading

Battle of Lützen (1632)



The Battle of Lützen was potentially one of the most decisive battles of the Thirty Years' War.

Count Wallenstein had split up his forces as to retreat his army into winter quarters, as he was suddenly informed at 02.00 in the morning that the Swedish army was approaching. He quickly

dispatched a notice to general Pappenheim for assistance. Pappenheim replied he was too far off, and would arrive too late. Slightly outnumbered, Wallenstein deployed his army up for defence, parallel to a long hollow road, with his right flank anchored by some low hills, which he reinforced with artillery.

All day, the Swedish attacked bravely against the Imperial position. King Gustavus Adolphus was always there where his soldiers expected him to see: in the thick of the battle, at the critical moments at the critical spot. Just as the Swedes seemed to make some progress, general Pappenheim arrived with the cavalry of his army and drove the Swedes back. This made Wallenstein exclaim, "Thus I know my Pappenheim!"

That afternoon the Swedish king Gustavus Adolphus was killed, and the news quickly spread through the Swedish army. Instead of having a disastrous effect on the Swedish morale, the Swedish soldiers became incensed. They rallied to a grim bunch of determined soldiers, and led by Field Marshal Gustaf Horn they cleared the battlefield of Imperial forces. But they did not follow up their victory. They sought out the body of their beloved King, and mourned his loss.

This smashing tactical Swedish victory was not turned into a strategic victory. Horn did not pursue, so the Imperial forces were not decimated. They escaped to fight another day, which they did at the Battle of Nördlingen. With the Swedish defeat at Nordlingen, the war dragged on for numerous years.

Listening 9.

CD 1, Track 9

crumbling – falling apart or away

consistency – harmony between parts of something complex

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Did the Swedes still have power in that period?
2. Speak about the political nature of the conflict.
3. What kind of policy did France openly pursue in 1635?
4. What kind of relationship did France and Spain have in 1600s?

II. What does the author mean by saying

on the verge of crumbling _____

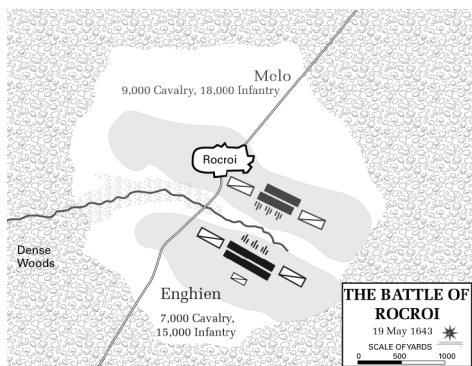
a policy of subsidies _____

devastating conflicts _____

confessional consistency _____

Supplementary Reading

Battle of Rocroi in 1643



The Battle of Rocroi of 19 May 1643 resulted in the victory of a French army under the Duc d'Enghien against the Spanish Army under General Francisco de Melo only five days after the accession

of Louis XIV of France to the throne of France, late in the Thirty Years' War. The battle is considered by many to be the turning point of the perceived invincibility of the Spanish tercio.

The battle was an important personal victory for Mazarin, and established the reputation of the French general Enghien, the future "Grand Condé", but the Spanish were able to rapidly regroup and stabilize their positions. Despite this, the battle was of great symbolic importance because of the high reputation of the Army of Flanders.

It has been noted that Melo's German, Walloon, and Italian troops actually surrendered first, while the Spanish infantry surrendered only after standing hours of infantry and cavalry charges and a vicious spell under the French guns. They were given the treatment usually given to a fortress garrison and retired from the field with their arms, flags and honors.

Military intervention by Bourbon France had proved a very different matter from the Valois contests of the previous century; it was the new nature and weight of absolute monarchy in France which was now to encompass the downfall of Spanish imperial power in Europe. With the end of the Fronde, Cardinal Mazarin slowly turned the tide against the Spanish in France and in the Low Countries. Mazarin's alliance with England resulted in the defeat of the Spanish at the Battle of the Dunes and consequently the taking of Dunkirk in 1658, leading to the Treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659. Although Spain looked to be all-powerful in 1652, the peace settlement reflected the demise of Spain's mastery of Europe in the late 1650s.

The sedan chair belonging to the elderly Spanish infantry general Fontaines (who was from the Spanish Netherlands – now Belgium – and was known to the Spanish as Fuentes) was taken as a trophy by the French and may be seen in the museum of Les Invalides in Paris. Fontaines was killed in the battle; Enghien is reported to have said, "Had I not won the day I wish I had died like him."

Listening 10.

CD 1, Track 10

to lay the groundwork – to do what is necessary before
an event or process can begin

futile – useless, having no effective result, unsuccessful

to drag on – to prolong or be prolonged tediously or unnecessarily

to brutalize – to treat with extreme cruelty

in tandem – together or in conjunction

concurrently – simultaneously

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. How long did the negotiations and war last?
2. Why did the historians argue about the precise demographic damage?
3. What was the fact that gave the war a strange flavour?

II. Write the script of the listening.

Listening 11.

drill – training or exercises used as a method of teaching

fiscal – financial

staple – main or basic element

cravat – a short, wide strip of fabric worn by men round the neck,
(*historical*) a tie

[illegible]

II. Make up questions on the recording.

Supplementary Reading

The History of Cravat



The cravat originated in the 1630s; like most men's fashions between the 17th century and World War I, it was of military origin. In the reign of Louis XIII of France, Croatian mercenaries were enlisted into a regiment supporting the King and Cardinal Richelieu against the Duke of Guise and the Queen Mother, Marie de'

Medici. The traditional Croat military kit aroused Parisian curiosity about the unusual, picturesque scarves distinctively knotted at the Croats' necks; the cloths that were used ranged from the coarse cloths of enlisted soldiers to the fine linens and silks of the officers. The sartorial word *cravat* derives from the French *cravate*, a corrupt French pronunciation of *Croate*. Croatia celebrates Cravat Day on October 18.

Considering the interdependence of many European regions (particularly the French) with the Venetian Republic, which at the time ruled much of the coastal area of modern Croatia, and the word's uncertain philological origin, the new male neckdress was known as a *cravate*. The French readily switched from old-fashioned starched linen ruffs to the new loose linen and muslin *cravates*; the military styles often had broad, laced edges, while a gentleman's cravat could be of fine lace.

During the wars of Louis XIV of 1689–1697, except for court, the flowing cravat was replaced with the more current and equally military "Steinkirk", named after the Battle of Steenkerque in 1692. The Steinkirk was a long, narrow, plain or lightly trimmed neckcloth worn with military dress, wrapped once about the neck in a loose knot, with the lace of fringed ends twisted together and tucked out of the way into a button-hole, either of the coat or the waistcoat. The steinkirk was popular with men and women until the 1720s.

The macaronis reintroduced the flowing cravat in the 1770s, and the manner of a man's knotting became indicative of his taste and style, to the extent that after the Battle of Waterloo (1815) the cravat itself was referred to as a "tie".

Listening 12.

CD 1, Track 12

visceral – characterized by intuition or instinct rather than intellect

revulsion – a sudden and unpleasant violent reaction in feeling;
disgust

to be frustrated – to be hindered or prevented

to expose – to disclose, reveal

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What kind of reaction did the war produce among European intellectuals?
2. Why had the religious motives been replaced by dynastic politics?
3. What did the Europeans need by the end of thirty years of struggle?
4. What had been revealed by this conflict of thirty years' duration?

II. What does the author mean by saying

visceral reaction _____

religious bloodbath _____

to hem in _____

power vacuum _____

Supplementary Reading

Power Vacuum

In political science and political history, the term power vacuum, also known as a power void, is an analogy between a physical vacuum, to the political condition "when someone has lost control of something and no one has replaced them." The situation can occur when a government has no identifiable central power or authority. The physical analogy suggests that in a power vacuum, other forces will tend to "rush in" to fill the vacuum as soon as it is created, perhaps in the form of an armed militia or insurgents, military coup, warlord or dictator.

Hereditary or statutory order of succession or effective succession planning are orderly ways to resolve questions of succession to positions of power. When such methods are unavailable, such as in failed dictatorships or civil wars, a power vacuum arises, which prompts a power struggle entailing political competition, violence, or both. A power vacuum can also occur after a constitutional crisis in which large portions of the government resign or are removed, creating unclear succession.

Historic examples include the death of Alexander the Great, the defeat of France in the Franco-Prussian War, the death of Vladimir Lenin, and the decrease in power of Great Britain and France in the Middle East after the Suez Crisis.

During the course of the treasure voyages (1405-1433), the Chinese Ming empire was the dominant political and military force within the Indian Ocean. However, in 1433, the Chinese government withdrew their treasure fleet and thus left a large void within the Indian Ocean.

When in 2003 the United States led a coalition to oust Saddam Hussein in the Iraq War, the absence of an all-out Iraqi opposition

force at war with government forces meant that once the Ba'ath Party was removed, no local figures were on hand to immediately assume the now-vacant ministerial posts. For this reason, Paul Bremer was appointed by the United States government as the interim head of state to oversee the transition.

In other western-led interventions such as in Kosovo (1999) and Libya (2011) where the initial claim of justification in each case was a humanitarian matter, there had been active opposition fighting on the ground to oust the relevant governments (in the case of Kosovo, this meant removal of state forces from the desired territory rather than ousting the government itself). Subsequently, successor entities were immediately effective in Libya and Kosovo.

Listening 13.

CD 1, Track 13

ordeal – a severe or trying experience

hereditary – transmitted according to established rules of descent

coherence – tendency to unite; coordination

I. Write the script of the listening.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

UNIT 2. The Peace of Westphalia, 1648 – A New Era

Listening 1.

CD 1, Track 14

at long last – finally, after difficulty or delay

to assert – to insist upon (rights, claims, etc.); declare

to overthrow – to throw or turn over; abolish; eliminate

add-on (adj) – additional, supplementary, complementary

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What is the main discussion point in this lecture?
2. What had been discussed in the previous lecture?
3. Why did the Peace of Westphalia have great political significance?
4. Where was the treaty negotiated?
5. What did the close of the Thirty Years' War give to France and Spain?

II. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. What will the lecturer be considering in this lecture?
 - a. The Peace of Westphalia that finally had put an end to horrible sufferings of the Thirty Years' War.
 - b. The Thirty Years' War from 1618-1648.
 - c. The Peace of Westphalia that had eventually brought an end to hostilities.
2. Close attention to the Peace of Westphalia is justified because
 - a. it was the greatest peace conference of modern times.

- b. it was one of the modern founding conferences of modern times.
 - c. it was the first of the great diplomatic peace conferences of modern times.
3. What is the lecturer going to sum up at the end of his lecture?
- a. Important changes that were taking place in the realm of ideas.
 - b. New international law worked out in the Thirty Years' War.
 - c. Crucial concepts of diplomatic law which were set out to codify the new power politics.

III. What does the author mean by saying

dreadful ordeal _____
 to take on new dynastic and political dimensions _____
 an add-on treaty _____
 in the realm of ideas _____
 to craft international law _____

IV. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

The treaty itself _____ in two cities
 in Western Germany – Germany _____
 by this conflict – and according to many historians, one of its
 _____ was the creation of the European
 system of sovereign states _____ as independent
 political units and, in the process, _____
 what had been earlier very powerful _____
 of the ideal of _____, some
 _____ giving _____ to
 European civilization.

Supplementary Reading

Peace Conference of Paris in 1919



The Paris Peace Conference of 1919 was a conference organized by the victors of World War I to negotiate the peace treaties between the Allied and Associated Powers and the defeated Central Powers, that concluded with the signing of the Treaty of Versailles. The conference opened on January 18, 1919 and lasted until January 21, 1920 with a few intervals. It operated, while it lasted, as a world government. Much of the work of the Conference involved deciding which of the Allied powers would administer territories formerly under German and Ottoman rule, introducing the concept of "trusteeship" into international law – territories considered unable to govern themselves are entrusted to another state, whose mandate is to build the nation, creating the necessary foundations for self-determination and independence. Most of the

decisions of which power received which territory, however, had already been made, for example, by the Sykes-Picot Agreement of May 16, 1917. As MacMillan points out, no one thought to consult the people of these territories about how they wished to be governed, with very few exceptions.¹ The results of this division of territory continues to impact the world today since it resulted in the British Mandate of Palestine and in the creation of Iraq, Syria, Lebanon and Jordan as nation states.

The Conference also imposed huge reparations on Germany. Some countries, such as France wanted to impose more sanctions but neither the British Prime Minister, David Lloyd George, or the US President, Woodrow Wilson, wanted to cripple Germany. Most historians argue, however, that the sanctions humiliated Germany and placed too great an economic burden on the country, making, as Lloyd George predicted, another war inevitable.

The League of Nations was established at the Conference, the first attempt at an international intergovernmental organization, with a brief to prevent war, settle disputes and improve peoples' lives across the globe. Just as World War I was believed by many to be the war that would end all war, so the Conference was meant to bring lasting peace. Unfortunately, it sowed seeds that resulted not only in World War II but in subsequent conflicts such as the Lebanese Civil War and the Arab-Israeli Conflict. Much was said about the need to protect minorities and create a more just world, but much of the business of the Conference involved nations protecting their own interests and trying to undermine those of others, such as the British *vis-à-vis* the French. Koreans, living under Japanese colonialism, for example, soon realized, after several Korean leaders traveled to Paris, that Wilson meant self-determination for former colonies of European powers, not existing colonies of Japan.

1659 Peace of the Pyrenees

The struggle between France and Spain that burst out into full-scale war in 1635 was not ended by the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. Instead, the French lost much ground when Spain took advantage of the Fronde, the French civil wars of 1648–1653. Eventually allied with the prince of Condé (1621–1686), one of the leaders of the Fronde, the Spaniards retook earlier French gains, such as Dunkirk, and ended the French-backed rebellion in Catalonia. The end of the Fronde brought little improvement in French prospects, and defeats in 1655–1656 led France to offer terms, only for Philip IV (1605–1665) of Spain to reject them. The French demand that the peace include the marriage of Louis XIV with Philip's daughter Marie-Thérèse, then first in line in the succession, was unacceptable.

The war ended only after the intervention of English forces on the side of France, under an alliance signed in 1657, tipped the balance in Flanders. English units helped Henri de la Tour d'Auvergne, marshal Turenne, defeat the Army of Flanders at the Battle of the Dunes (14 June 1658). This transformed the strategic situation. Having exploited the victory to capture Dunkirk, Gravelines, Menen, and Ieper, La Tour d'Auvergne could threaten an advance on Brussels, the capital of the Spanish Netherlands.

This led to the Peace of the Pyrenees of 7 November 1659, signed at the Isle of Pheasants at the western end of the mountain chain. Important French gains in the war were ceded by Spain. However, the peace was more of a compromise than is usually appreciated, and this reflected the outcome of the war. The French had failed to drive the Spanish from the southern Netherlands or Italy as had been planned, and as a result the Spaniards retained their territories in Italy as well as most of the Spanish Netherlands. The Spanish Empire remained the largest in Western Europe.

The marriage of Louis XIV and Marie-Thérèse as part of the settlement was now acceptable to Spain because Philip now had a son, a reminder of the role of dynastic fortune. As an indication, however, of the extent to which policy was debated and thus of the danger of treating states as unproblematic building blocks, the negotiations were opposed by the queen of Spain, who wanted Marie-Thérèse to marry Emperor Leopold I, and by courtiers concerned to secure better terms for Condé. Dunkirk, a major naval base on the North Sea, was ceded to England, but the recently restored Charles II sold it to Louis XIV in 1662.

When Louis married Marie-Thérèse in 1660, she renounced the right of succession on the Spanish inheritance, both for herself and for her heirs. However, it was by no means clear how acceptable this was to Spanish custom and law. Indeed at the time of the marriage her renunciation was regarded as a matter of formality, entered into in order to allay international mistrust. It gave Louis and the Bourbon dynasty a claim to the Spanish inheritance, which was pushed when Philip IV died in 1665. Louis claimed Brabant, Antwerp, Limburg, and parts of Franche-Comté and Luxembourg from the inheritance, leading to the War of Devolution in 1667-1668. After gains then, including Lille and Tournai, he won more, including Franche-Comté and parts of the Spanish Netherlands, in the Dutch War of 1672-1678. More seriously, the death of Philip's son, Carlos, led to the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714) as the inheritance of the whole succession by Louis's second grandson, Philip V of Spain, was contested by Britain, Austria, and the Dutch.

The Peace of the Pyrenees is sometimes seen as setting the seal on the decline of Spain. This is misleading. It was no more than a stage in the long-running saga of relations. Spain proved a robust power possessing great resilience in the 1640s and 1650s. Subsequent Spanish difficulties owed more to contrasting domestic developments in the 1660s. The vigorous Louis XIV took personal

charge of France on the death of Cardinal Jules Mazarin in 1661, while in Spain the physically and mentally impaired Carlos II could not provide the necessary leadership.

Listening 2.

CD 1, Track 15

toll – loss or damage incurred through an accident, disaster, etc.

exhaustion – weariness; fatigue; extreme tiredness

to set in – to become established

to set off – to separate; distinguish (from); divide

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What had been felt years previous to 1648?
2. What did many historians think about the peace settlement of 1648?
3. How did the historians describe the peace settlement?
4. How do many western civilization textbooks start?
5. Why do many historians debate and what do they point to?

II. What does the author mean by saying

to set the stages _____

a vast toll of life _____

to a great extent _____

to be of enormous and epochal significance _____

historical watershed _____

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Let's first of all _____, as they were,
_____ where things stood by the end of this
_____. After three decades of war in
the centre of Europe and _____ as
well as treasure, _____ among
_____ and peace was urgently
needed. That need had been felt years previous to 1648 but it took a
long time for negotiations _____.
Because it was not the result of _____ for either side,
peace, when it finally arrived, would need to be
_____, perhaps _____ to all
sides, but a compromise that would be built _____,
this much it was clear, that had to be different than those
_____ which had _____ helped
_____ the conflict in the first place.

Listening 3.

CD 1, Track 16

in retrospect – the act of surveying things past

belated – late or too late; protracted

I. Write the script of the listening.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

II. Make up questions on the recording.

Listening 4.

CD 1, Track 17

in earnest – with serious or sincere intentions

telling (adj) – having a marked effect or impact

precious (adv) – quite (intensifier)

spatial – territorial; of or relating to space

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. How long did the negotiations last?
2. What factors could have an impact on negotiations?
3. Why were the negotiations remarkable?
4. Where were Catholic and Protestant negotiations based?
5. Were all of the European powers involved in the negotiations?
6. Were England, Poland and Russia present in the negotiating context?

II. What does the author mean by saying

to achieve swift results _____
precious little incentive _____
to make extensive compromises _____
spatial separation _____
to settle the conflict at long last _____

III. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. When did the negotiations finally come to an end?
 - a. At the beginning of 1643.
 - b. In 1644.
 - c. In 1649.
2. The negotiations were exceptional
 - a. because of the numerous countries involved.
 - b. because of the scattered way in which they took place.
 - c. because of the place they took place.
3. Which countries were absent from the negotiations?
 - a. Sweden and France
 - b. England and Russia
 - c. England, Poland and Russia

IV. Listen to the recording and correct the wrong parts according to the passage.

1. The Congress itself *had great results and completed its negotiations in 1644* _____.

2. Negotiations continued for many years and went on even as *the warring sides were reluctant to lay down the weapons* _____.

3. Diplomats would travel from one place to another, *striving to settle spatial separations* _____.

Listening 5.

CD 1, Track 18

to set upon – to attack

to descend upon – to arrive or attack in a sudden or overwhelming way

to hash out – to give careful consideration to a problem; talk over; debate; hash over

archaic – belonging to or characteristic of a much earlier period; old-fashioned

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Did diplomats enjoy immunity at that period?
2. What was unprecedented in the negotiations?
3. Who played the key role in the negotiations?
4. Did the sides arrive at a satisfactory conclusion during the negotiations?
5. What ground rules did the participants try to establish?
6. Why was the symbolism of precedence very important in that period?

II. What does the author mean by saying

to be exempt from _____
to handle the negotiations _____
to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion _____
to establish ground rules _____
issues of tremendous importance _____

III. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statements you hear.

_____ Diplomats at the time were exempt from violence and they could travel freely even as the war continued.

_____ Many international representatives, diplomats, negotiators arrived in West Germany trying to settle questions of precedence.

_____ Skilled Italian negotiators played a crucial role in the negotiations.

_____ Gathering of international representatives was a form of power in propaganda.

IV. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

The problems _____ somehow, and while probably no _____ was ever arrived at, the first six months of negotiations were spent precisely on trying _____, trying to establish some _____ for the participants and who would have _____ and at what ranks and with what procedures to be followed. This was a _____, and while it might strike us as somewhat _____, it simply underlines again and again _____ in which _____, and how you were ranked, and what prestige your country and your monarch was accorded and was

recognized – these were issues of tremendous importance because _____ was a form of power _____ as well as _____ by other powers.

Listening 6.

CD 1, Track 19

ominous – foreboding evil; sinister

to drag out – to lengthen in duration; protract; prolong

to spark – to incite; inspire

at loggerheads – engaged in dispute of confrontation

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Who were the main participants in the negotiations?
2. What was the key aspect of the settlement?
3. Why were the Swedish negotiators at loggerheads?
4. Why did the French negotiators have to negotiate with one another by writing?

II. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. Who were the main negotiators?
 - a. Great Powers of the Holy Roman Empire.
 - b. Great Powers of the Holy Roman Empire and Sweden.
 - c. Great Powers of the Holy Roman Empire, Sweden and France.

2. Why did the negotiations prolong?

- a. Because the negotiations might take weeks for a letter to travel from the negotiating cities to the capitals of the diplomats.
- b. Because the negotiations might take weeks to gather the negotiating sides around the negotiation table.
- c. Because the negotiations might take weeks to settle tremendous problems.

3. How did the French negotiators negotiate?

- a. The French negotiators were speaking in turns with one another.
- b. They had to communicate with one another by writing alone.
- c. They communicated with one another at the negotiation table

III. What does the author mean by saying

to drag out the entire process _____

to spark arguments and conflicts _____

to speak in turns _____

IV. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Slow communications _____ the negotiations, I mean in addition to _____ between opposing sides slow communications, which meant that it might take weeks for a letter _____ in Western Germany to the capitals of the diplomats, _____ and dragged out the entire process. If this weren't bad enough, there was also the fact that some diplomats who were on the same side, also had a hard time actually _____, I mean hard enough

_____ with an enemy, in this case it
was the diplomatic partners of one's own side that could
_____.

Listening 7.

CD 1, Track 20

ecclesiastical – of or relating to the Christian Church

confessional – of or relating to religious denomination united by a
common system of beliefs

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What did the Treaty recognize?
2. How was sovereignty perceived?
3. What does the religious part of the settlement show?
4. Who were Calvinists?
5. What kind of important events took place in Holland and Switzerland?
6. Did the above mentioned countries have any role in European political history?

II. What does the author mean by saying

extensive thinking _____

a recognition of the realities on the ground _____

confessional identity _____

crucial territorial implications _____

III. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statements you hear.

_____ The Treaty itself was the result of extensive thinking.

_____ The rulers now had territorial superiority, sovereignty in all matters.

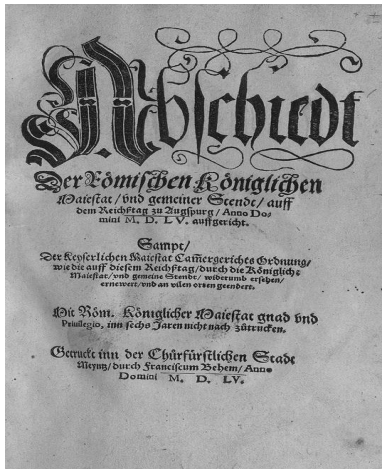
_____ The Peace of Augsburg of 1555 allowed the rulers to determine the religious identity of their own territory.

_____ Calvinists were Protestants of a kind recognized in the Peace of Augsburg.

_____ Calvinism remained the only religion permitted in Holland and Switzerland.

Supplementary Reading

Peace of Augsburg of 1555



The Peace of Augsburg, also called the **Augsburg Settlement**, was a treaty between Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor (the predecessor of Ferdinand I) and the Schmalkaldic League, signed on 25 September 1555 at the imperial city of Augsburg. It officially ended the religious struggle between the two groups and made the legal division of Christendom permanent within the Holy Roman Empire, allowing

rulers to choose either Lutheranism or Roman Catholicism as the official confession of their state. Calvinism was not allowed until the Peace of Westphalia.

The Peace established the principle *Cuius region, eius religio*, which allowed Holy Roman Empire's states' princes to select either Lutheranism or Catholicism within the domains they controlled. Subjects, citizens, or residents who did not wish to conform to the prince's choice were given a period in which they were free to emigrate to different regions in which their desired religion had been accepted.

The Peace of Augsburg contained three main principles:

1. The principle of *cuius region, eius religio* ("Whose realm, his religion") provided for internal religious unity within a state: the religion of the prince became the religion of the state and all its inhabitants. Those inhabitants who could not conform to the prince's religion were allowed to leave, an innovative idea in the sixteenth century. This principle was discussed at length by the various delegates, who finally reached agreement on the specifics of its wording after examining the problem and the proposed solution from every possible angle.
2. The second principle, called the *reservatum ecclesiasticum* (ecclesiastical reservation), covered the special status of the ecclesiastical state. If the prelate of an ecclesiastic state changed his religion, the men and women living in that state did not have to do so. Instead, the prelate was expected to resign from his post, although this was not spelled out in the agreement.
3. The third principle, known as *Declaratio Ferdinande* (Ferdinand's Declaration), exempted knights and some of the cities from the requirement of religious uniformity, if the reformed religion had been practiced there since the mid-1520s, allowing for a few mixed cities and towns where Catholics and Lutherans had lived together. It also protected the authority of the princely families, the knights and some

of the cities to determine what religious uniformity meant in their territories. Ferdinand inserted this at the last minute, on his own authority.

The third principle exempted knights and some of the cities under the jurisdiction of an ecclesiastical prince if they had practiced Lutheranism for some time (Lutheranism was the only branch of Protestantism recognized under the Peace). The provision was not publicized as part of the treaty, and was kept secret for almost two decades.

The document itself had critical problems. While it gave legal basis for the practice of the Lutheran confession, it did not accept any of the Reformed traditions, such as Calvinism, nor did it recognize Anabaptism. Although the Peace of Augsburg was moderately successful in relieving tension in the empire and increasing tolerance, it left important things undone. Neither the Anabaptists nor the Calvinists were protected under the peace, so many Protestant groups living under the rule of a Lutheran prince still found themselves in danger of the charge of heresy. These minorities did not achieve any legal recognition until the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. The intolerance towards Calvinists caused them to take desperate measures that led to the Thirty Years' War. One of the more notable measures was the Second Defenestration of Prague (1618) in which two representatives of the fiercely Catholic Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand II were thrown out of a castle window in Prague.

Listening 8.

CD 1, Track 21

to loosen – to make or become less fixed, firm, or compact

hollow – without validity; meaningless

bottom line – the final outcome of a process; the most important or fundamental aspect of a situation
on the margins – on the outskirts

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. How was the Holy Roman Empire reorganized?
2. Speak about 300 principalities which were political units of the Holy Roman Empire.
3. What kind of actions could those principalities accomplish?
4. Which were the provisions and reservations that the principalities weren't allowed to do?
5. Did the Holy Roman Empire maintain its dominant power?
6. What kind of implications and interests did France and Sweden have in this period?

II. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. The Holy Roman Empire was rearranged
 - a. after the Peace of Westphalia.
 - b. before the Peace of Westphalia.
 - c. during the Peace of Westphalia.
2. The Holy Roman Empire, which had been a unit encompassing more than 300 principalities, now
 - a. was independent and a great political force.
 - b. was more powerful than ever.
 - c. ceased to be a political unit.

3. The 300 principalities were able to
 - a. sign agreements, make peace and war against the Holy Roman Emperor.
 - b. make peace and war and alliances at their own will.
 - c. make alliances or war with the help of Holy Roman Emperor.
4. What did France and Sweden expect in the given situation?
 - a. France and Sweden wanted to have supreme power on the outskirts of the Holy Roman Empire.
 - b. Germany was, in some sense, seeking to maintain its continuing great power.
 - c. France and Sweden aspired to resist Germans in the outskirts of the Holy Roman Empire.

III. Summarize the recording in no more than 5 sentences.

Listening 9.

CD 1, Track 22

bewildering – causing utter confusion; puzzling

to carve out – to make or create

earth-shattering – striking, startling

venerable – worthy of reverence on account of great age, position, etc.; ancient

wistfully – in a sadly pensive manner, esp about something yearned for

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Write the script of the listening.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue or grey ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are approximately 20 lines visible. The paper appears to be a standard notebook page or a sheet of stationery.

This image shows a blank sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and extend across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

II. Make up questions on the recording.

[illegible]

III. What does the author mean by saying

bewildering complexity _____
to look earth-shattering _____
venerable history _____
to find the role redefined _____
to preserve neutrality _____

Listening 10.

CD 1, Track 23

acclaim – an enthusiastic approval

null – without legal force; invalid

void – not legally binding

invalid – having no cogency or legal force; not valid

iniquitous – unjust

reprobate – morally unprincipled; depraved

inane – senseless or empty

scathing – harshly critical

amity – friendship, cordiality

resolve – intention, determination; firmness of purpose

precursor – predecessor, forerunner

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. How was the treaty greeted among Europeans?
2. Why did Pope Innocent X declare the treaty to be “null, void, invalid, iniquitous”?
3. What was written in the first lines of the treaty?

4. Why do the debates among historians actually continue to this very day?
5. Were German nationalists and the Nazis satisfied with the Treaty of Westphalia?
6. Why do many historians consider the Treaty of Westphalia to be in essence a constitution of the new European state system?

II. What does the author mean by saying

to greet with universal acclaim _____
a scathing review _____
a perpetual amity _____
to end the bloodshed _____

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Actually debates continue among historians to this very day regarding it as the outcome of this _____ – the so-called Westphalian system of sovereign states engaged in _____ with each other. 1648 indicates _____ for many historians in its recognition of sovereignty and at least _____ of states. Some pundits debate this and consider the Treaty of Westphalia as a much more _____ that might later have led to these developments, but not something that _____ to work in this way. They point out that _____ that a structure was still supposed to be in place for the Holy Roman Empire, however weak it might have been.

IV. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. How did Germans and other Europeans acknowledge the Treaty?
 - a. It was greeted with great enthusiasm.
 - b. It was criticized by the Catholic Papacy.
 - c. The Catholic Papacy confirmed the treaty and was encouraged by the concessions.
2. How did Pope Innocent X publicize the Treaty?
 - a. He declared it to be void, valid, legally binding, inane and impartial.
 - b. He considered it to be iniquitous, unjust, damnable and unbiased.
 - c. He proclaimed it to be damnable, reprobate, null, void and unjust.
3. What did the first lines of the Treaty suggest?
 - a. "That there shall be a Christian and universal peace, and a perpetual, true, and sincere cordiality."
 - b. "That there shall be a global Christian community, and a sincere, perpetual, true and friendship."
 - c. "That there shall be universal Christian principles, and a perpetual, true, and sincere amity."
4. How do many Europeans today treat the Treaty of Westphalia?
 - a. Some of them think that it is a new system for making concessions.
 - b. Some of them consider it to be a new structure to keep away from war.
 - c. Many of them point out that it is of essence for the important interaction of sovereign states.

Supplementary Reading

Pope Innocent X



Pope Innocent X (1574-1655), born Giovanni Battista Pamphilj (or Pamphili), was Pope from 15 September 1644 to his death in 1655.

Pamfili was a church judge under Pope Clement VIII and a papal representative at Naples for Pope Gregory XV. He was made ambassador to Spain and cardinal (1626) by Pope Urban VIII, whom he succeeded on Sept. 15, 1644.

Having been supported by cardinals who had opposed his predecessor, the elderly Innocent reversed Urban's policies, as demonstrated by his condemnation of the Peace of Westphalia. But he reigned at a time when popes were no longer consulted by nations in settling war or making peace, and his protest went unnoticed by both sides.

Innocent's relationship with his relatives was questionable, for he was guilty of nepotism, and much of his pontificate was dominated by his avaricious sister-in-law, Olimpia Maidalchini. Innocent supported the Spanish Habsburgs – a branch of one of the great sovereign dynasties of Europe – by refusing to recognize the independence of Portugal, then at war with Spain. In Rome, Innocent attacked Urban's relatives, the Barberini, for extortion and confiscated their property. He clashed with France when the Barberini took refuge in Paris with Cardinal Mazarin, whose threat to invade Italy forced Innocent to yield. In theological matters he intervened in the quarrel between the Jesuits and the Jansenists and

in a bull of 1653 condemned five propositions concerning the nature of grace as interpreted by Bishop Cornelius Jansen, the founder of Jansenism. A century of controversy with the Jansenists ensued, which was particularly damaging to the French Church. By the time of Innocent's death, papal prestige had seriously declined.

Listening 11.

CD 1, Track 24

archenemy – a chief enemy

infantry – soldiers who fight on foot with small arms

to bedevil – to throw into confusion

finer – delicate, subtle in perception

ingenious – clever, done skillfully

to occasion – to bring about, esp incidentally or by chance; cause

to relegate – to move to a position of less authority, importance, etc.

demotion – reduction in rank or status.

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. How did the war between France and its archenemy Spain end?
2. When did France and Spain make peace and what did the Treaty of the Pyrenees imply?
3. Why was there confusion among the negotiators about the treaty?
4. How did the conflicting sides arrive at the conclusion?
5. Did the traditional marital diplomacy work at that period?
6. What did the Treaty of the Pyrenees give the both sides?

II. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

The treaty also in its negotiations _____
by those _____ that we talked about in
earlier lectures. To avoid quarrels over _____
negotiators _____ the Treaty of the
Pyrenees _____ – to ensure
that no one power seen more powerful than the others – Spain, or
France, _____ – they instead settled on
_____ in a special _____
that was built in the middle of a river which was the border between
France and Spain in the Pyrenees, and thus either side
_____ and would escape
this _____.

II. Summarize the recording in no more than 5 sentences.

[illegible]

Supplementary Reading

King Philip IV of Spain



Philip IV of Spain (1605-1665, r. 1621-1665) was King of Spain and Portugal. He ascended the thrones in 1621 and reigned in Spain until his death and in Portugal until 1640.

Philip IV was born in Valladolid, and was the eldest son of Philip III and his wife, Margaret of Austria. In 1615, at the age of 10, Philip was married to 13-year-old Elisabeth of France, although the relationship does not appear to have been close; some have even suggested that Olivares, his key minister, later deliberately tried to keep the two apart to maintain his influence, encouraging Philip to take mistresses instead. Philip had seven children by Elisabeth, with only one being a son, Balthasar Charles, who died at the age of sixteen in 1646. The death of his son deeply shocked the king, who appears to have been a good father by the standards of the day. Elisabeth was able to conspire with other Spanish nobles to remove Olivares from the court in 1643, and for a brief period she held considerable influence over Philip.

Philip remarried in 1646, following the deaths of both Elisabeth and his only legitimate heir. His choice of his second wife, Maria Anna, also known as Mariana, Philip's niece and the daughter of the Emperor Ferdinand, was guided by politics and Philip's desire to strengthen the relationship with Habsburg Austria. Maria Anna bore him five children, but only two survived to adulthood, a daughter Margarita Teresa and the future Charles II of Spain – but

the latter was sickly and considered in frequent danger of dying, making the line of inheritance potentially uncertain.

Perceptions of Philip's personality have altered considerably over time. Victorian authors were inclined to portray him as a weak individual, delegating excessively to his ministers, and ruling over a debauched Baroque court. Victorian historians even attributed the early death of Baltasar to debauchery, encouraged by the gentlemen entrusted by the king with his education. The doctors who treated the Prince at that time in fact diagnosed smallpox, although modern scholars attribute his death to appendicitis. Historians' estimation of Philip gradually improved in the 20th century, with comparisons between Philip and his father being increasingly positive – some noting that he possessed much more energy, both mental and physical, than his diffident father.

Philip was idealised by his contemporaries as the model of Baroque kingship. Outwardly he maintained a bearing of rigid solemnity; foreign visitors described him as being so impassive in public he resembled a statue, and he was said to have been seen to laugh only three times in the course of his entire public life. Philip certainly had a strong sense of his 'royal dignity', but was also extensively coached by Olivares in how to resemble the Baroque model of a sovereign, which would form a key political tool for Philip throughout his reign.

Although interpretations of Philip's role in government have improved in recent years, Diego Velázquez's contemporary description of Philip's key weakness – that 'he mistrusts himself, and defers to others too much' – remains relevant. Although Philip's Catholic beliefs no longer attract criticism from English language writers, Philip is still felt to have been 'unduly pious' in his personal life. Notably, from the 1640s onwards he sought the advice of a noted cloistered abbess, Sor María de Ágreda, exchanging many letters with her. This did not stop Philip's becoming known for his

numerous affairs, particularly with actresses; the most famous of these was his actress-mistress María Inés Calderón (La Calderona), with whom he had a son in 1629, Juan José, who was brought up as a royal prince. By the end of the reign, and with the health of Carlos José in doubt, there was a real possibility of Juan José's making a claim on the throne, which added to the instability of the regency years.

Philip IV's reign, after a few years of inconclusive successes, was characterized by political and military decay and adversity. He has been held responsible for the decline of Spain, which was mainly due to organic causes largely beyond the control of any one ruler. Philip IV died broken-hearted in 1665, expressing the pious hope that his surviving son, Charles II, who was only 4 years old at the time, would be more fortunate than himself. In his will, Philip left political power as regent on behalf of the young Charles II to his wife Mariana, with instructions that she heed the advice of a small *junta* committee established for this purpose. This committee excluded Juan José, Philip's illegitimate son, resulting in a chaotic power play between Mariana and Juan José until Juan José's death in 1679.

Listening 12.

CD 1, Track 25

to draw to – to approach

uncanny – strange or mysterious, especially in an unsettling way

prodigy – a person of unusual or marvelous talent

inherent – existing as an inseparable part; integral; peculiar

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What does the lecturer want to deliver in this part of lecture?
2. Who was Hugo Grotius?
3. Why do historians draw parallel lines between Hugo Grotius and Machiavelli?
4. What was the crucial work of 1625 by Hugo Grotius?
5. What did Hugo Grotius seek to show by his book?

II. What does the author mean by saying

a certain inner logic _____
to draw to a close _____
uncanny and fascinating parallels _____
to be out of favour _____

III. Write whether the sentences are true or false.

_____ The lecturer wants to describe the changes in the international life and order.

_____ Hugo Grotius has been called the “Father of International Law”.

_____ Machiavelli and Grotius were very anxious about further losses of the territories.

_____ Hugo’s crucial work of 1625 known as “On the Law of War and Peace” was about religious considerations, religious doctrine and theology.

_____ Grotius sought in some sense to find legal codes and legal patterns that were inherent in the interaction of states.

IV. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Grotius thus sought in some sense to find _____ and _____ that _____ in the interaction of states as a way of introducing _____ to _____; and he also, and it was very important for discussing concepts like _____, _____ and its rights, as well as the concept of _____, which sought also to give _____ to thinking about when war _____.

Supplementary Reading

Hugo Grotius



Hugo Grotius (1583-1645) was a Dutch scholar and jurist whose legal masterpiece, *De Jure Belli ac Pacis* (On the law of war and peace) [1625], contributed significantly to the formation of international law as a distinct discipline. In addition to that work, Grotius wrote a number of literary pieces of lasting merit, including *Sacra* (a collection of Latin poems) and the drama *Christus Patiens*. Like Erasmus, Grotius sought to end the religious

schism and urged the papacy to reconcile with the Protestant faiths.

Grotius's primary contribution to international law is his suggestion that a rational system governs international relations. He began his analysis with natural law. Unlike brute creation, he reasoned, human nature is characterized by the desire for a peaceful

and orderly society. From this basic observation it is possible to comprehend the sources of the laws governing both individual behavior and the conduct of nations.

Grotius is often considered one of the first to separate natural law from divine law, but the distinction is not always easy to perceive. "The law of nature is a dictate of right reason, which points out that an act, according as it is or is not in conformity with rational nature, has in it a quality of moral baseness or moral necessity; and that, in consequence, such an act is either forbidden or enjoined by the author of nature, God." Grotius's ethics were certainly informed by Christian values.

From this foundation he developed his system of international law. Grotius claimed that just as the desire for community necessitates certain laws and principles to hold society together for mutual benefit, so the community of nations is held together by certain natural principles. Consequently, the only justification for war is the enforcement of rights (although Grotius excluded "total" war). The execution of hostilities is itself limited, according to Grotius, by natural law.

Like Locke, Grotius saw the state as "a complete association of free men, joined together for the enjoyment of rights and for their common interest." Unlike Locke, he did not believe sovereignty ultimately rests with the people. Although sovereignty emanates from the people, it is possible to give the sovereignty away by transferring it to a monarch. Moreover, Grotius did not view the right of rebellion as absolute. Orders or laws contrary to the law of nature should not be carried out, of course, but the absolute right of rebellion is never permissible. Unless this right has been retained in the ordering of society, resistance to authority will be detrimental to the natural order of society.

ius gentium

The *ius gentium* or *jus gentium* (Latin, "law of nations") is a concept of international law within the ancient Roman legal system and Western law traditions based on or influenced by it. The *ius gentium* is not a body of statute law or a legal code, but rather customary law thought to be held in common by all *gentes* ("peoples" or "nations") in "reasoned compliance with standards of international conduct."

Following the Christianization of the Roman Empire, canon law also contributed to the European *ius gentium*. By the 16th century, the shared concept of the *ius gentium* disintegrated as individual European nations developed distinct bodies of law, the authority of the Pope declined, and colonialism created subject nations outside the West.

In classical antiquity, the *ius gentium* was regarded as an aspect of natural law, as distinguished from civil law. The jurist Gaius defined the *ius gentium* as what "natural reason has established among all peoples".

As a form of natural law, the *ius gentium* was regarded as "innate in every human being," a view that was consonant with Stoic philosophy. Cicero distinguished between things that are written and those that are unwritten but upheld by the *ius gentium* or the *mos maiorum*, "ancestral custom." In his treatise *De officiis*, he regards the *ius gentium* as a higher law of moral obligation binding human beings beyond the requirements of civil law. A person driven into exile, for instance, lost his legal standing as a Roman citizen, but was supposed to retain the basic protections extended to all human beings under the *ius gentium*.

The 2nd-century Roman jurist Ulpian, however, divided law into three branches: natural law, which existed in nature and governed animals as well as humans; the law of nations, which was

distinctively human; and civil law, which was the body of laws specific to a people. Slavery, for instance, was supported by the *ius gentium*, even though under natural law all are born free. In this tripartite division of law, property rights might be considered a part of the *ius gentium*, but not of natural law. Hermogenianus, a Roman jurist of the second half of the 3rd century, described the *ius gentium* as comprising wars, national interests, kingship and sovereignty, rights of ownership, property boundaries, settlements, and commerce, "including contracts of buying and selling and letting and hiring, except for certain contractual elements distinguished through *ius civile*". The *ius gentium* was thus in practice important in facilitating commercial law.

Listening 13.

CD 1, Track 26

to distil – to purify

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Write the script of the listening.

II. Make up questions on the recording.

Supplementary Reading

Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679)



Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679) was an English philosopher who is considered one of the founders of modern political philosophy. Hobbes is best known for his 1651 book *Leviathan*, which established the social contract theory that has served as the foundation for later Western political philosophy.

In *Leviathan*, Hobbes set out his doctrine of the foundation of states and legitimate governments and creating an objective science of morality. This gave rise to social contract theory. *Leviathan* was written during the English Civil War; much of the book is occupied with demonstrating the necessity of a strong central authority to avoid the evil of discord and civil war.

Beginning from a mechanistic understanding of human beings and their passions, Hobbes postulates what life would be like without government, a condition which he calls the state of nature. In that state, each person would have a right, or license, to everything in the world. This, Hobbes argues, would lead to a "war of all against all"

(*bellum omnium contra omnes*). The description contains what has been called one of the best known passages in English philosophy, which describes the natural state humankind would be in, were it not for political community:

"In such condition, there is no place for industry; because the fruit thereof is uncertain: and consequently no culture of the earth; no navigation, nor use of the commodities that may be imported by sea; no commodious building; no instruments of moving, and removing, such things as require much force; no knowledge of the face of the earth; no account of time; no arts; no letters; no society; and which is worst of all, continual fear, and danger of violent death; and the life of man, solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short. In such a state, people fear death, and lack both the things necessary to commodious living, and the hope of being able to toil to obtain them. So, in order to avoid it, people accede to a social contract and establish a civil society." According to Hobbes, society is a population beneath a sovereign authority, to whom all individuals in that society cede some rights for the sake of protection. Any power exercised by this authority cannot be resisted, because the protector's sovereign power derives from individuals' surrendering their own sovereign power for protection. The individuals are thereby the authors of all decisions made by the sovereign. There is no doctrine of separation of powers in Hobbes's discussion. According to Hobbes, the sovereign must control civil, military, judicial and ecclesiastical powers, even the words.

Hobbes also developed some of the fundamentals of European liberal thought: the right of the individual; the natural equality of all men; the artificial character of the political order (which led to the later distinction between civil society and the state); the view that all legitimate political power must be "representative" and based on the consent of the people; and a liberal interpretation of law which leaves people free to do whatever the law does not explicitly

forbid. His understanding of humans as being matter and motion, obeying the same physical laws as other matter and motion, remains influential; and his account of human nature as self-interested cooperation, and of political communities as being based upon a "social contract" remains one of the major topics of political philosophy.

Samuel von Pufendorf



Samuel von Pufendorf (1632-1694) was the German political and legal philosopher and historian. A scholarship enabled Pufendorf to attend the famous Prince's School at Grimma. He studied contemporary philosophy at Jena, where he also read newly published books on mathematics and discovered the works of Hugo Grotius and Thomas Hobbes. At Jena he came in contact with Erhard Weigel, a former teacher of Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz, whose strange but original method of teaching ethics "mathematically" made a lasting impression upon Pufendorf. When war broke out between Sweden and Denmark, Pufendorf was imprisoned for eight months; upon his release Pufendorf migrated in 1659 to the Netherlands.

On the recommendation of Grotius's elder son, Pufendorf was offered the chair of natural and international law at Heidelberg, the first such chair at a German university. He was soon appointed also as instructor of the heir to the crown of the Palatinate, and thus he began to mix with the electoral court, where he avidly studied the burning contemporary political problems. Out of this study came a pseudonymous work on the condition of the Holy Roman

Empire, *De Statu Imperii Germanici* (1667), a work later famous for its statement that the constitution of the Empire resembles a monster, being neither a monarchy nor an aristocracy nor a democracy.

After his appointment as professor of natural law at the University of Lund in Sweden, Pufendorf wrote his fundamental work on national and international law, *De Jure Naturae et Gentium* (1672). By 1684 a Swiss Calvinist theologian was lecturing on the *De Officio Hominis* at Lausanne, but Lutheran theologians in both Sweden and Germany criticized Pufendorf's ideas vehemently. The king of Sweden himself had to protect his professor of law and induce the authorities of the university to defend Pufendorf against the charge of heresy. Pufendorf replied bitterly to the charge, and a long paper war ensued. Finally, Pufendorf published a "sanguinary" (his own description) polemical treatise titled *Eris Scandica* (Frankfurt, 1686), containing all his essays and letters relating to the controversy.

From 1688 until his death shortly after having been knighted by his former sovereign, the king of Sweden, Pufendorf lived in Berlin, where he had been called as court historian by the elector of Brandenburg.

A noted representative of the Baroque era, Pufendorf was a man of great self-confidence and stolid self-reliance. He had unshakable faith in the power of scientific reason and wished to establish it in the fields of jurisprudence and politics. He believed in the certainty of mathematics and rejoiced in the reunion of philosophy and mathematics then taking place. Although he wished to treat the problematic questions of jurisprudence and politics "mathematically," he was a true empiricist who sought to introduce a "scientific" method into the study of history. He was therefore eager to undertake the thoroughly planned research into public archives that resulted in his history of Sweden.

Pufendorf may be called the initiator of the seventeenth-century movement of "scientific" natural law in Germany. By introducing the

ideas of Grotius and Hobbes into German thought he made their ideas really effective for the first time. He liberated the natural-law theory from the domination of scholasticism and humanism. In so doing he built up an independent political science that always took into account contemporary history and reason of state. A clever and levelheaded politician, he predicted the decline of the Habsburg monarchy after the Treaty of Westphalia. In criticizing the "monstrous" constitution of the empire he sought to advance a European commonwealth based on the natural and rational principles of international law. As a historian, Pufendorf introduced the empirical study of archives and gave an effective example of a new method of historical insight, and he may be regarded as an important predecessor of nineteenth-century historicism.

Listening 14.

CD 1, Track 27

to set the stage (for) – to pave the way (for); prepare the ground (for)

speculation – a supposition or opinion; thought; contemplation;
theory

eminence – a position of superiority, high rank, or fame

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What kind of treaty was "The Treaty of Westphalia" after all?
2. Was the compromise nature of The Treaty of Westphalia made clear?
3. Why do many historians believe that the Treaty of Westphalia set the stage for a new kind of international politics?

4. What does the lecturer say about the awareness of the new state system by contemporaries?

II. What does the author mean by saying

a compromise settlement _____

a crushing decisive victory _____

a long drawn out conflict _____

a war-torn continent _____

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Now it's _____ and a fascinating one to consider _____ were contemporaries aware of what they had built. If one _____ of many historians that indeed _____, to what extent were people aware of this, to what extent was this something that then still _____. I think when one _____ as well as _____, one sees much more than _____ about what sort of a new world are we living in, what sort of _____; one sees much more simply _____ that peace had arrived _____ after a generation and decades of _____. So, a sense of relief probably _____ over some sort of _____ of the long-term _____ of the new state system, which now would grow out of the Treaty of Westphalia. That system is something that we'll continue to explore in our next lectures, and, in particular, the rise to _____ with a new role in that new states system – France, which we'll examine in our next lecture.

UNIT 3. French Superpower

Listening 1.

CD 2, Track 1

sheer – absolute, unmitigated

ascendancy – the condition of being dominant, esp through superior economic or political power

anachronism – the representation of an event, person, or thing in a historical context in which it could not have occurred or existed

apt – suitable for the circumstance or purpose; appropriate

to seize on – to take immediate advantage of

to hem in – to enclose, confine, restrain, or limit

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. When did France's tremendous might become clear?
2. What is the lecturer going to speak about in later lectures?
3. Why has the period from 1648 to 1715 been called the Age of Louis XIV?
4. What did the coalitions of other states led by Britain seek?

II. What does the author mean by saying

tremendous might _____

sheer might _____

vast claims of absolutism _____

III. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statements you hear.

_____ The word superpower is much more a product of the 20th century.

_____ The superpowers of the United States and the Soviet Union have also sheer might.

_____ Spain, which was the leading power in Europe, was now displaced, and in its place emerged the Kingdom of France which took on the role of the strongest of the European powers.

_____ Coalitions of other states led by Britain strove to limit France in order to assert a European balance of power.

IV. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

We'll examine _____
as an _____ in this Baroque age, beyond
France itself, but especially _____ in
France, we'll see the skilled _____ of the
successor to Cardinal Richelieu Cardinal Mazarin, we'll
_____ of Louis XIV
_____ for himself as well as for
France, and how, _____ to that
French power, coalitions of other states very often
_____ sought to _____
in order to, instead of French hegemony, _____
– something that would _____
in the important Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the second of the great
_____ after the Treaty of Westphalia.

Supplementary Reading

Louis XIV, “the Sun King”



The day after Cardinal Mazarin's death, Louis XIV (1638-1715; r. 1643-1715), at the age of twenty three, expressed his determination to be a real king and the sole ruler of France:

"Up to this moment I have been pleased to entrust the government of my affairs to the late Cardinal. It is now time that I govern them myself. You [secretaries and ministers of state] will assist me with your counsels when I ask for them. I request and order you to seal no orders except by my command. I order you not to sign anything, not even a passport . . . without my command; to render account to me personally each day and to favor no one."

His mother, who was well aware of Louis's proclivity for fun and games and getting into the beds of the maids in the royal palace, laughed aloud at these words. But Louis was quite serious.

Louis proved willing to pay the price of being a strong ruler. He established a conscientious routine from which he seldom deviated, but he did not look upon his duties as drudgery since he judged his royal profession to be "grand, noble, and delightful". Eager for glory, Louis created a grand and majestic spectacle at the court of Versailles. Consequently, Louis and his court came to set the standard for monarchies and aristocracies all over Europe. Less than fifty years after his death, the great French writer Voltaire used the title "Age of Louis XIV" to describe his history of Europe from 1661 to 1715. Historians have tended to use it ever since.

Although Louis may have believed in the theory of absolute monarchy and consciously fostered the myth of himself as the Sun

King, the source of light for all of his people, historians are quick to point out that the realities fell far short of the aspirations. Despite the centralizing efforts of Cardinals Richelieu and Mazarin, France still possessed a bewildering system of overlapping authorities in the seventeenth century. Provinces had their own regional parliaments, their own local Estates, their own sets of laws. Members of the high nobility with their huge estates and clients among the lesser nobility still exercised much authority. Both towns and provinces possessed privileges and powers seemingly from time immemorial that they would not easily relinquish. Much of Louis's success rested less on the modernization of administrative machinery, as is frequently claimed, than on his clever and adroit manipulation of the traditional priorities and values of French society.

Instead of the high nobility and royal princes, Louis relied for his ministers on nobles who came from relatively new aristocratic families. Such were Michel Le Tellier, secretary of state for war; Hugues de Lionne, secretary for foreign affairs; and Nicholas Fouquet, superintendent of finances. His ministers were expected to be subservient; said Louis, "I had no intention of sharing my authority with them." When Fouquet began to flaunt the enormous wealth and power he had amassed in the King's service, Louis ordered his arrest and imprisonment.

The maintenance of religious harmony had long been considered an area of monarchical power. The desire to keep it led Louis into conflict with the French Huguenots and the papacy. Louis XIV did not want to allow Protestants to practice their faith in largely Catholic France. Perhaps he was motivated by religion, but it is more likely that Louis, who believed in the motto, "one king, one law, one faith", felt that the existence of this minority undermined his own political authority. His anti-Protestant policy, aimed at converting the Huguenots to Catholicism, began mildly by offering rewards, but escalated by 1681 to a policy of forced conversions. The most

avored method was to quarter French soldiers in Huguenot communities and homes with the freedom to misbehave so that their hosts would "see the light quickly". This approach did produce thousands of immediate conversions. In October 1685, Louis issued the Edict of Fontainebleau.

In addition to revoking the Edict of Nantes, the new edict provided for the destruction of Huguenot churches and the closing of their schools. Although they were forbidden to leave France, it is estimated that 200,000 Huguenots left for shelter in England, the United Provinces, and the German states. Through their exodus, France lost people who had commercial and industrial skills, although some modern scholars have argued this had only a minor impact on the French economy. Perhaps a more important effect of the Huguenot dispersal was the increased hatred of France that the Huguenot emigres stirred up in their adopted Protestant countries. Whatever his motives, Louis's anti-Protestant policy was not aimed at currying papal favor. Louis was a defender of Gallicanism, the belief that the monarchy possessed certain rights over the Catholic church in France, irrespective of papal powers. In the 1670s, Louis claimed the regale or the right of the French king to appoint the lower clergy and collect the revenues of a diocese when it was vacant. Pope Innocent XI condemned Louis's actions, threatening him with reprisals. Louis responded by calling a special assembly of French clergy and directing them to draw up a Declaration of Gallican Liberties. This document claimed that the pope's authority in France was limited to spiritual matters and that even in spiritual matters the pope was subject to the decisions of a general council. The pope protested this challenge to papal authority and the possibility of a schism loomed large. But neither side wanted to go that far. After Innocent's death, a compromise was arranged, and by 1693 the Gallican articles had been retracted.

Listening 2.

CD 2, Track 2

to sink in – to enter or penetrate the mind

to steer – to guide, direct; pursue (a specified course)

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Let's first of all _____ just as we'd really allow _____ how much had changed by the start of this period. Now, _____ France took on a new position. Earlier French diplomacy and _____ especially under Richelieu _____ against _____ of Habsburg power and against Habsburg _____, but now in a truly _____ it was France that seemed _____ in Europe, after the Peace of Westphalia 1648. As the Habsburgs _____, so now France _____ on the Continent. Whereas French rulers had earlier helped _____ in Europe often _____ by the continuous negotiations of Richelieu, now they had, _____, by a sort of _____, achieved such a powerful position in Europe that France _____ by many other Europeans as, in turn, _____ and a power that _____. France's policies _____, not of the church, who also played _____: the Cardinals Richelieu and Mazarin, and then after Mazarin the

one that we need to define, _____

This image shows a blank sheet of white paper with horizontal blue ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

CD 2, Track 3

to ordain – to predestine irrevocably; predetermine

disruption – destruction; demolition

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Write the script of the listening.

[illegible]

II. Make up questions on the recording.

This image shows a blank sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and extend across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

Supplementary Reading

The Age of Baroque

The word "Baroque," like most period or stylistic designations, was invented by later critics rather than practitioners of the arts in the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. It is a French translation of the Portuguese phrase "pérola barroca," which means "irregular pearl," or false jewel – notably, an ancient similar word,

"Barlocco" or "Brillocco," is used in Roman dialect for the same meaning – and natural pearls that deviate from the usual, regular forms so they do not have an axis of rotation are known as "baroque pearls." The word may have been influenced by the mnemonic term "Baroco" denoting a supposedly labored form of syllogism.

The term "Baroque" was initially used with a derogatory meaning, to underline the excesses of its emphasis, of its eccentric redundancy, its noisy abundance of details, as opposed to the clearer and sober rationality of the Renaissance. It was first rehabilitated by the Swiss-born art historian, Heinrich Wölfflin (1864–1945) in his *Renaissance und Barock* (1888); Wölfflin identified the Baroque as "movement imported into mass," an art antithetic to Renaissance art. Writers in French and English did not begin to treat Baroque as a respectable study until Wölfflin's influence had made German scholarship pre-eminent.

In modern usage, the term "Baroque" may still be used, usually pejoratively, to describe works of art, craft, or design that are thought to have excessive ornamentation or complexity of line, or, as a synonym for "Byzantine," to describe literature, computer programs, contracts, or laws that are thought to be excessively complex, indirect, or obscure in language, to the extent of concealing or confusing their meaning.

In contemporary culture the term "baroque" is also commonly used to describe any artistic style that could be extremely elaborate, ornamented or adorned. In reality, the modern usage of baroque has nothing or very little to do with classic baroque, even though many people are unaware of the distinction.

The Baroque was defined by Heinrich Wölfflin as the age where the oval replaced the circle as the center of composition, centralization replaced balance, and coloristic and "painterly" effects began to become more prominent. Art historians, often Protestant ones, have traditionally emphasized that the Baroque style evolved

during a time in which the Roman Catholic Church had to react against the many revolutionary cultural movements that produced a new science and new forms of religion – the Reformation. It has been said that the monumental Baroque is a style that could give the Papacy, like secular absolute monarchies, a formal, imposing way of expression that could restore its prestige, at the point of becoming somehow symbolic of the Catholic Reformation. Whether this is the case or not, it was successfully developed in Rome, where Baroque architecture widely renewed the central areas with perhaps the most important urbanistic revision during this period of time.

Listening 4.

CD 2, Track 4

breathing space – a pause for rest

to soar – to rise or increase in volume, size, etc.

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Did people consider the end of the Thirty Years' war as the beginning of a permanent peace?
2. What did European monarchs need to do?
3. How was the pressure expressed?
4. What was the reason that the state apparatus had to expand dramatically?
5. Why did mercantilism urge that the state needed to intervene actively in the economic life of a nation?

II. Listen to the extract and continue the sentences.

1. People saw the end of the Thirty Years' war as _____

- _____.
2. It was required by European rulers to rebuild and to re-energize their realms in ways that _____.
3. Large permanent armies that were prepared, trained and equipped by the monarchs also _____.
4. At this time the large permanent armies could consume nearly _____.
- _____.
5. One economic theory suggested that by active state intervention it was possible _____.
- _____.

III. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statements you hear.

_____ People regarded Thirty Years' war as the final establishment of a permanent peace.

_____ The pressure by European monarchs made the government prepare for future competition.

_____ The state apparatus expanded and intervened in areas of the economy as well as of the society in ways that were quite new and could be dramatic.

_____ Effective state interference could develop certain industries and produce prosperity.

IV. Summarize the recording in no more than 5 sentences.

Supplementary Reading

Mercantilism



Mercantilism was a political movement and an economic theory, dominant in Europe between 1600 and 1800. The term "mercantilism" was not in fact coined until 1763, by Victor de Riqueti, marquis de Mirabeau, and was popularized by Adam Smith in 1776. In fact, Adam Smith was the first person to organize formally most of the contributions of mercantilists in his book *The Wealth of Nations*.

No general definition of mercantilism is entirely satisfactory, since it was not as much a school of thought as a collection of policies intended to keep the state prosperous by economic regulation.

The "mercantile system" developed logically from the changes inherent in the decline of feudalism, the rise of strong nation-states, and the development of a world market economy. Mercantilists advocated the use of the state's military power to ensure local markets and supply sources were protected.

Generally, mercantilism holds the prosperity of a nation dependent upon its supply of capital, and assumes that the global volume of trade is "unchangeable." In other words a positive balance of trade ought to be maintained, with a surplus of exports. The following ideas, and the underlying principles, may be called mercantilism:

1. The economic health or wealth of a nation can be measured by the amount of precious metal, gold, or silver, which it possessed.
2. A favorable balance of trade is essential.
3. Each nation should strive for economic self-sufficiency, increasing domestic production, and founding new home industries.
4. Agriculture should be encouraged, reducing the need to import food.
5. Tariffs should be high on imported manufactured goods and low on imported raw material.
6. A merchant fleet is of vital importance, avoiding the need for foreign assistance in transporting goods and raw materials.
7. Colonies should provide markets for manufactured goods and sources of raw material.
8. A large population is important to provide a domestic labor force and to people colonies.

9. The crown or state should be heavily involved in regulating the economy (Rempel 1998).

Mercantilism was based on the premise that national wealth and power were best served by increasing exports and collecting precious metals in return. It superseded the medieval feudal organization in Western Europe, especially in the Netherlands, France, and England. Domestically, this led to some of the first instances of significant government intervention and control over the economy, and it was during this period that much of the modern capitalist system was established. Internationally, mercantilism encouraged the many European wars of the period and fueled European imperialism.

Mercantilism was finally challenged by advocates of "laissez-faire" who argued that international and domestic trade were both important, and that it was not the case that one country must grow wealthy at the expense of another. As this and other economic ideas arose throughout the nineteenth century, the mercantilist view was superseded. Nonetheless, many of the ideas and policies have not been forgotten, emerging again as circumstances changed. For example, the Great Depression of the early twentieth century created doubts about the efficacy and stability of free market economies, providing a new role for governments in the control of economic affairs.

Listening 5.

CD 2, Track 5

to shunt – to move or be moved aside

to enliven – to invigorate; to make active or vivacious

intendant – a manager or superintendent

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Who felt that the trend of vast new claim of power on the part of monarchs was quite threatening?
2. What did older representative bodies seek to resist?
3. Speak about the pre-eminent example of absolutism.
4. Who were intendants and what kind of responsibilities would they have?
5. What kind of activities was Richelieu engaged in?

II. What does the author mean by saying

vast new claim of power _____
to be shunted aside _____
to experience varying success _____
would-be absolutist monarchs _____
to seek to enliven _____
to establish a standing army _____

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

Now, as you might have understood from _____
of this vast _____,
there were certainly people who _____ and felt that
this _____. These were
principally _____
who earlier had seen _____ as not being
_____ from that of the monarchs
who now claimed _____; they
resisted this trend seeing it as _____

that overturned older patterns of _____.
Also, older representative bodies – parliaments – sought _____ because they
felt, quite rightly, that the implication was that _____
if power _____ in the kings and
queens themselves. And this _____, while
powerful even in France itself, _____ in
different European countries.

Listening 6.

CD 2, Track 6

to validate – to confirm or corroborate; give official confirmation to

indicative – serving as a sign; suggestive

suggestive – conveying a hint

fervor – great intensity of feeling or belief; zeal

minority – the period during which a person is below legal age

to sow – to implant or introduce

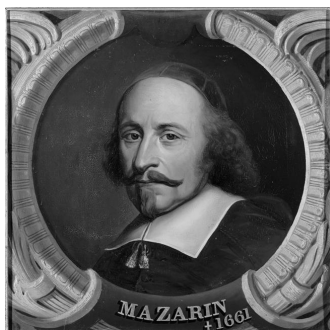
SKILLS FOCUS

I. Write the script of the listening.

II. Make up questions on the recording.

Supplementary Reading

Cardinal Jules Mazarin



Cardinal Jules Mazarin, (original Italian in full Giulio Raimondo Mazzarino, or Mazarini), who was born on July 14, 1602, in Pescina, Abruzzi, Kingdom of Naples and died on March 9, 1661, in Vincennes, France, was the first minister of France after Cardinal de Richelieu's death in 1642. During the early years of King Louis XIV, he completed Richelieu's work of establishing France's supremacy among the European powers and crippling the opposition to the power of the monarchy at home.

Mazarin's ambition was to put an end to the rivalry between the Catholic powers of Europe. On Richelieu's death, however (1642), and especially after that of Louis XIII (1643), he became the first minister of France, an office that the regent, Anne of Austria, entrusted to his experience and his ability in the name of the child Louis XIV. Mazarin used this new power to promote the peace negotiations that opened at Münster, in Westphalia, on April 10, 1644, although he now had to subordinate his ideal of peace to

French foreign policies and ambitions. He was aided by a good diplomatic team, over which he exercised firm control, and by extremely competent generals, Louis II de Bourbon, prince de Condé, and Henri de Turenne. Their brilliant victories over the Spanish and imperial troops helped bring about the Peace of Westphalia, a general European settlement that established peace in Germany.

As the war between France and Spain still continued and as grave issues were developing in the north and east, Germany could easily have been involved again in a general war. No one believed in the power of the Emperor to safeguard the empire from this danger. Mazarin took advantage of the weakened imperial power of the Habsburgs to organize a defensive alliance between France and the German states closest to the French frontier. Spain, however, encouraged by the defection of the United Provinces of the Netherlands, who had signed a separate peace in January 1648, refused to agree to the peace. In order to force Spain to make a settlement, Mazarin continued the war and formed an alliance with England (1657), surrendering to the English the fort of Dunkirk, which had been captured from the Spaniards after the Battle of the Dunes (1658).

Peace with Spain was finally negotiated in a general treaty signed on Nov. 7, 1659, at the Pyrenees frontier. Mazarin completed this settlement by arbitrating the “northern peace” and by returning Lorraine to its duke. Thus, at his death, the former diplomat of the Holy See could rejoice at having “returned peace to Christendom”. He would have liked to have seen Europe take advantage of this peace by uniting in a crusade against the Turks and, above all, to have “let these peoples enjoy the fruits of the tranquility” they had regained now that fighting had ended in their home territory.

France, indeed, needed a rest. Mazarin therefore had to limit his activities within the realm to thwarting intrigues at court and

multiplying financial expedients to meet war expenditures. The new taxes imposed upon leading Parisians contributed to the discontent that precipitated the revolts known as the Fronde. These rebellions, which lasted more than five years, originated in the judicial oligarchy of the Parlement of Paris; they spread to the upper nobility and soon found popular support even in the provinces largely because of “Mazarinades,” inflammatory pamphlets written against the Cardinal. Mazarin was obliged to leave the court twice and was only able to maintain his post because he was in favour with Anne of Austria and the boy king Louis XIV, whose education he had carefully directed.

The Fronde was finally suppressed in 1653, and Louis XIV was crowned the following year. Mazarin increasingly involved the young sovereign in affairs of government, encouraging him to stand firm against the Parlement and helping him train a staff of great administrators for his reign. He reestablished the role of the intendants or commissaries of the king, who administered the provinces; they gradually assumed the power of the provincial governors who had shown themselves to be unreliable during the rebellions. He thus succeeded in sustaining order through a policy of moderation, which he applied even to popular revolts such as the peasant uprising of Sologne in 1658.

Mazarin’s enemies reproached him for his greed. He had accumulated offices and benefices and had sometimes confused royal income with his own. Yet, on several occasions, when the state faced desperate financial situations, he put his own fortune at its disposal. A lover of the arts, he acquired fine collections, decorated his Parisian mansion with works by Italian artists, and brought the Roman opera into favour in France. His library remains in the palace (now called the Institut de France) that he ordered built to house the College of the Four Nations, intended for the education of young men from the four provinces that had been acquired by France during

his ministry: Alsace, Roussillon, Flanders-Artois, and the region of Pinerolo. He founded the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture and gave pensions to several men of letters.

According to the Roman tradition of nepotism, Mazarin offered rich dowries and arranged noble marriages for his nephews and especially for his Mancini and Martinozzi nieces. Yet he did not allow his affection as an uncle to win out over political considerations; thus, he thwarted the desire of Louis XIV, who by treaty was bound to marry the Spanish infanta, to marry Marie Mancini. Anne of Austria felt a strong attraction for him: he was a handsome man, eloquent and charming; devoid of political experience herself, she accepted his advice unquestioningly. The “Mazarinades” accused them of having an illicit relationship, but the evidence is conflicting. Mazarin was not an ordained priest (in 1632 he had received only minor orders), though he thought of entering the priesthood on several occasions, especially in 1651 and even in 1660 shortly before his death.

Listening 7.

CD 2, Track 7

plenitude – abundance

to bestride – to extend across; span

power base – political support

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What did Cardinal Mazarin continue and seek to do?
2. Speak about Cardinal Mazarin’s cunning acts of diplomacy.

3. Who came to power after Mazarin's death in 1661?
4. Whose famous statement was "L'état, c'est moi." – "I am the state."?
5. Why did "the Sun King" Louis XIV choose the sun as his personal symbol?

II. What does the author mean by saying

cunning acts of diplomacy _____
to stand out of special significance _____
plenitude of ambition _____
vast production of propaganda _____
a vivid representation _____

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

It wasn't only _____: France certainly had
_____ with a population of 19 million in
1700, _____, both _____
as well as _____, France was the leading state
in Europe of its day. And it was symbolized in what really amounted
to _____, the building of the
Palace of Versailles itself at the site of Paris, which one can visit to
this very day and _____ at the message that
_____ in the magnificent fountains,
the parks, the gold of _____ itself
as the largest palace in Europe which was meant to be
_____ of all the power possessed
by Louis XIV.

IV. Listen to the part of recording. Tick the statements you hear.

_____ Cardinal Mazarin was known by his traditional marital diplomacy.

_____ Cardinal Mazarin's long reign of 72 years is the longest on record in Europe.

_____ Louis XIV chose the sun as his personal symbol shining glory over all of France and Europe.

_____ It's often said that what Richelieu had sown in terms of future power for France was ripped or harvested by Cardinal Mazarin.

Supplementary Reading

Palace of Versailles



The Palace of Versailles (in French: Château de Versailles, or simply Versailles) is a royal chateau in Versailles, France. When the chateau was built, Versailles was a country village, but it is now a suburb of Paris. From 1682, when King Louis XIV moved from Paris, until the royal family was forced to return to the capital in 1789, the Court of Versailles was the center of power in Ancient Régime France.

In 1660, Louis XIV was approaching majority and the assumption of full royal powers from his advisers, who had governed France during his minority. He was looking for a site near Paris, but away from the tumults and diseases of the crowded city. He had grown up in the disorders of a civil war between rival factions of aristocrats and wanted a site where he could organize and completely control a government of France by absolute personal rule. He settled on the royal hunting lodge at Versailles, and over the following decades had it expanded into the largest palace in the world.

Versailles is famous not only as a building, but as a symbol of the system of absolute monarchy which Louis XIV espoused. It greatly influenced both the architecture and general culture not only of France but also of European nobility in general. It remains today as a cultural treasure and one of Europe's most popular tourist attractions.

Versailles became the home of the French nobility and the location of the royal court – thus becoming the center of French government. Louis XIV himself lived there, and symbolically the central room of the long extensive symmetrical range of buildings was the King's Bedchamber (*La Chambre du Roi*), which itself was centered on the lavish and symbolic state bed, set behind a rich railing not unlike a communion rail. All the power of France emanated from this center: there were government offices here; as well as the homes of thousands of courtiers, their retinues and all the attendant functionaries of court, thus keeping the lords close at hand and securing the French government in an absolute monarchy.

At various periods before Louis XIV established absolute rule, France – like the Holy Roman Empire – lacked central authority and was not the unified state it was during the proceeding centuries. During the Middle Ages some local nobles were at times more powerful than the French King and, although technically loyal to the King, they possessed their own provincial seats of power and

government, culturally influential courts and armies loyal to them but not the King. And they had the right to levy their own taxes on their subjects. Some families were so powerful that they achieved international prominence and contracted marriage alliances with foreign royal houses to further their own political ambitions. Although nominally the Kings of France, had de facto royal power and at times had been limited purely to the region around Paris.

Listening 8.

CD 2, Track 8

allure – appeal; fascination

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What was the key goal of the ambitious, young king?
2. How were his realms to be secured?
3. How did France expand its colonial realms?
4. Where did French interests start to concentrate on after the Treaty of Westphalia?

II. Listen to the recording and choose the correct answer.

1. The main feature of the king's policy was
 - a. to establish the largest army in Europe reinforced by his reforms of its structure and its organization.
 - b. to expand French frontiers and win territory.
 - c. to create enduring innovations.

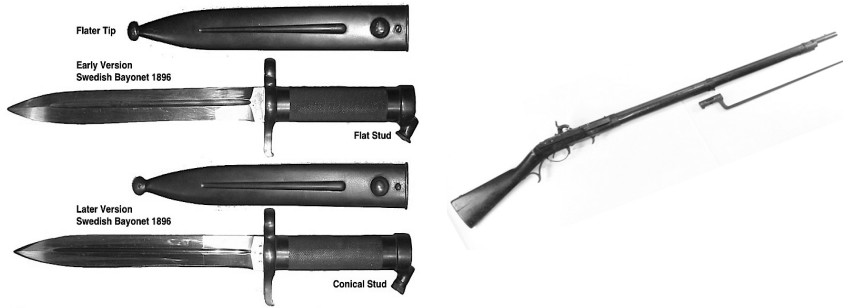
2. The masterful military engineer de Vauban was the author of
 - a. the technical organization.
 - b. the military service and defense forces.
 - c. the chains of fortresses and the building of a modern navy.
3. Louis XIV was fascinated by the expansion of the following lands:
 - a. Italian, Spanish and German.
 - b. French and Spanish.
 - c. German and French.

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

All of these _____ and to some minds _____ and _____ conducted by Louis XIV. After the Treaty of Westphalia _____ started to _____ into _____. If earlier they had concentrated _____, now _____ into the border lands between Germany and France was _____. Spain remained _____, however, at the same time, so they needed _____ as well as _____. As with earlier French statesmen one way in which Louis XIV _____ was to _____ which were _____ and didn't really please many who wanted to _____; this Catholic sovereign also _____ with the Ottoman Turks – a Muslim power – as well as Protestants throughout Europe as needed.

Supplementary Reading

Bayonet



The term *bayonette* dates back to the end of the 16th century, but it is not clear whether bayonets at the time were knives that could be fitted to the ends of firearms, or simply a type of knife.

The concept of the bayonet, which is essentially the idea of improvising a firearm as a spear, probably evolved from the early concept of spears having firearms being attached to them, also known as "Fire lances". Various forms of fire lances were recorded in the 14th century Chinese gunpowder military treatise *Huolongjing* including the Fire lance and the Pear Flower Lance. These examples demonstrated a clear need for a form of hybrid weapon as such weapons only have a firing range of 3 meters or less, meaning reloading is almost impossible during an encounter with enemy forces and an immediate melee backup weapon is necessary.

A possibility is that the bayonet originated as a hunting weapon: early firearms were fairly inaccurate and took a long time to reload, thus a hunter of dangerous animals such as wild boar could easily have been exposed to danger if his bullet missed the animal. The bayonet may have emerged to allow a hunter to fend off wild animals in the event of a missed shot. This idea was particularly persistent in Spain where hunting arms were usually equipped with bayonets from

the 17th century until the advent of the cartridge era. The weapon was introduced into the French army by General Jean Martinet and was common in most European armies by the 1660s.

New Finland

New Finland or *Uusi Suomi* is a district in the Qu'Appelle valley, the south eastern part of the province of Saskatchewan, Canada.

Uusi Suomi is Finnish for "New Finland", the name adopted by Finnish block settlement. The homesteaders found an area in Saskatchewan which resembled the homeland of Finland both in geography and climate. The earliest settler arrived in 1888, and was followed by Finnish immigrants from Finland as well as from the iron ore mines of Minnesota and Dakota regions in the United States. The centre of the New Finland district consisted of a church, hall, and schoolhouse. Finland was undergoing profound changes following Tsar Nicholas II's February manifesto which was a main factor initiating the Great Exodus from Finland. The Canadian Pacific Railway along with Canadian immigration minister Clifford Sifton were advertising both abroad and in the United States encouraging settlement to Canada's "Last Best West". The community which arose had strong religious beliefs and celebrated Finnish cultural traditions. The years between 1870 and 1930 are sometimes referred as 'the Great Migration' of Finns into North America. The "February manifesto" of Tzar Nicholas II in 1899 merged the army of Finland with that of Russia which resulted in mandatory army training. Other cultural freedoms were being usurped during this time which violated the constitution of Finland.

The Finnish settlers found an area which was still wooded and had historically escaped the many grass fires which blanketed the great plains. The homesteaders found an area which resembled their

homeland both in geography and climate. Qu'Appelle River and Round Lake were nearby water areas, for a community used to a land of lakes. *Suomi* translates to "the people and the land of the marshes". They were able to bring many of the farming customs of Finland to the new country. They ploughed the land with oxen, harvested with scythes, and threshed it with flails. The Finns were also excellent cattlemen. For sustenance, fish was plentiful from the streams and rivers as were various species of wild game. Many settlers would add an extra room to the sauna to keep the chickens warm through the cool winter months. The families were self-sufficient on the land, trapping, hunting, completing garments of skins and hides, picking berries, canning and baking. Settlers would travel into town, a trip which took 24 hours by horse, selling logs for any additional provisions they may need. In the early 1900s the community saw a store, blacksmith, sawmill, grist mill, and shingle making enterprises spring up.

St. John's New Finland Lutheran Church, with an active congregation, was officially declared a municipal heritage property on May 4, 2007. The church building was built in 1907, and then the community moved it in 1934 by steam engine to the present location 8 kilometres south of the original construction site. This arduous undertaking necessitated sawing the church in half. The seam can still be seen where the church was rejoined. In 1993, a book, *The Finns of New Finland 1888–1993*, was published in recognition of its centennial, and in 2003, the Finns celebrated the church's 110 anniversary.

Listening 9.

CD 2, Track 9

Manifest Destiny – the belief that the US was a chosen land that had been allotted the entire North American continent by God

to beckon – to entice or lure

to crest – to come or rise to a high point

to stir – to rouse or stimulate; to cause or incite others to cause (trouble, arguments, etc.)

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What kind of reaction did Louis' aggressive foreign policy stir?
2. Speak about Louis' aggressive moves.
3. Who organized coalitions against French expansion?
4. Speak on William of Orange's favourite activity.

II. What does the author mean by saying

to win fame _____

manifest destiny _____

a triple alliance _____

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

_____ against French _____

became _____ of Prince William of

Orange. And _____, a favourite activity that he

continued especially after he _____ by becoming

the King of England _____
which _____, that he earlier
_____ against increased French power
before _____. We'll speak in the
next lecture more about these _____ in England
and what they _____. What we
need to focus on here was that with William of Orange's favourite
activity of seeking _____ there was
launched in earnest the long British tradition of offshore balancing in
European diplomacy and statecraft – nothing personal but rather the
intent to stop any power, in this case France, later it would be
Germany, from dominating the European Continent and potentially
threatening the position of Britain off the coast of Europe as well.

IV. How does the topic develop? Number each in order.

_____ The War of Devolution

_____ The Glorious Revolution

_____ Louis XIV and his aggressive foreign policy

_____ The Dutch War

Supplementary Reading

War of Devolution of 1667

The Franco-Spanish Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659) brought France modest territorial gains. The peace was sealed by a marriage in 1660 between the young Louis XIV and the daughter of Philip IV, Marie-Thérèse. If both powers regarded the 1659 settlement as a welcome escape from twenty-five years of indecisive conflict, by the mid-1660s perceptions had hardened that France was the dominant

military and political force in Europe, while the Spanish monarchy was locked into a spiral of instability, weakness, and diminishing resources. With Philip IV's death in 1665 and the minority of the young and sickly Charles II, the temptation for Louis XIV to exploit his once-powerful rival became overwhelming. Though dynastic convention would grant the inheritance of the entire Spanish monarchy to the male heir of Philip IV, Louis's jurists argued that local custom in parts of the Spanish Netherlands granted shares in an inheritance to the female heirs by a previous marriage. Because the Spanish had never paid Marie-Thérèse's dowry, it was claimed that her renunciation of rights to the Spanish inheritance was void, and that the private law of the Netherlands could thus be applied to territory coveted by the French king. This legal sophistry proved sufficient to justify Louis's aggressive designs, and in May 1667 three armies totaling 70,000 men poured across the frontiers of the Spanish Netherlands. Defensive capacity had been depleted since 1659 as many troops had been transferred back to the Iberian Peninsula to sustain the failing struggle against Portuguese independence. The French offensive was overwhelming: more major cities and fortresses fell to the French in a single campaign than in the previous twenty-five years of war.

However, the scale of this success concerned other European powers. Although the Dutch had previously been allies of the French, the prospect that the Spanish Netherlands would be entirely absorbed by Louis's armies caused them to join with the English and Swedish, committed if necessary to forcing France back to her 1659 frontiers. This Triple Alliance was ratified in January 1668. The French response was further military activity – the occupation of Spanish Franche-Comté. Yet shortly after this Louis XIV and his ministers agreed to the modest peace settlement of Aix-la-Chapelle (2 May 1668). The critical factor in the settlement was the secret partition treaty for the division of the entire Spanish inheritance,

drawn up in January 1668 between Louis and the Habsburg emperor, Leopold I, and based upon the assumption that Charles II would not survive his minority. Leopold had little doubt that he would then inherit the entire Spanish Empire but did not believe that he could make good his rights against a powerful France that would be nervous about a reunited Habsburg Empire. Hence a partition was arranged, giving France the Spanish Netherlands, Franche-Comté, Naples and Sicily, the Philippines, and Navarre, in return for accepting the emperor's succession to the rest of the empire. The partition treaty had the desired effect on Louis XIV, persuading him that a rapid settlement of the outstanding Netherlands conflict would facilitate the orderly acquisition of a greater prize than even the most successful military campaign in 1668 would offer.

Dutch War (1672-1678)



The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (May 1668) ended the short Franco-Spanish war over territory in the Spanish Netherlands. Louis XIV and his advisers had been concerned at the prospect of a coalition (the Triple Alliance) opposed to further French gains and had anticipated the enforcement of the secret partition treaty for the division of all the Spanish territories on the death of

the young king, Charles II. But as Charles demonstrated unexpected vitality, and Louis was assured by his generals that a second campaign in 1668 would have conquered the whole of the Spanish Netherlands, Aix-la-Chapelle seemed an exasperating mistake. By

1669 Louis wanted another war, but his ministers were sharply divided as to whether this aggression should be directed once again at the Spanish Netherlands or toward powers likely to oppose this French expansion, most notably the Dutch Republic. Neither the secretary for foreign affairs, Hughes de Lionne, nor the finance minister, Jean-Baptiste Colbert, favored war in the early 1670s, but both recognized that obstructing the king's will on this matter would play into the hands of their rivals. Lionne regarded further belligerence against the Spanish Netherlands as the option most likely to forge a coalition against France; Colbert reluctantly considered that a war against the Dutch would at least serve some of his mercantilist goals of acquiring a larger share of European trade for French merchants. Playing on Louis's resentment of Dutch "presumption" and "ingratitude," the ministers turned Louis away from the Spanish Netherlands, and constructed an apparently effective system of alliances to isolate the Dutch Republic.

Careful military planning ensured a rapid sweep across the Rhine and into the Dutch Republic in May 1672. The Dutch forces were ill-prepared and under strength; a frantic population lynched Johan and Cornelis de Witt, the principal directors of the States of Holland, and acclaimed William III of the House of Orange as military leader and stadtholder. During the campaign of 1672 the French armies appeared unstoppable: Utrecht fell on 30 June, Nijmegen on 9 July. The Dutch offered generous terms for peace that would have abandoned any opposition to a French conquest of the Spanish Netherlands. But Louis now sought to destroy Dutch political autonomy and strip the Dutch of a swathe of landward territory extending northward to Utrecht. When the Dutch responded by flooding the land around Amsterdam and blocking the French advance, the rejection of the earlier Dutch peace proposals made both settlement and outright victory equally unattainable.

European alarm increased through the summer and autumn of 1672. Troops from Brandenburg intervened on behalf of the Dutch, but French forces drove them back in the last months of the year. More serious was the confrontational mood in Vienna, among many other princes in the Empire, and within Spain. In 1673, despite Louis's capture of the prestigious fortress of Maastricht, allied troops in Germany outmaneuvered the French and forced them onto the defensive. With supply lines to the Dutch Republic disrupted, Louis was obliged to evacuate all his troops from Dutch territory. Although French armies subsequently enjoyed piecemeal success and overran Franche-Comté for the second time in 1674, the war was now being fought in campaign theaters and for aims unconnected with original French war plans. Tax revolts at home and the worsening plight of the French economy indicated that the conflict was spiraling out of control. France was sustaining an unprecedented military burden of around 250,000 soldiers against a coalition that remained united in the face of military setbacks. Successive French campaigns alternated between years of military stagnation such as 1675, when the death of marshal Henri de La Tour d'Auvergne led to the collapse of military activity in Germany, and years of impressive French military success such as 1678. Peace negotiations began at the Dutch city of Nijmegen as early as 1676, but they dragged on as the various powers surveyed the shifting balance of military advantage. When a series of agreements were finally reached between August 1678 and February 1679, it was clear that French victories late in the war had helped gain considerable advantages for Louis XIV. But Spain, not the Dutch Republic, paid the price of the settlement with the loss of Franche-Comté and further territory in the Spanish Netherlands. The Dutch profited, gaining the abolition of punitive French trade tariffs imposed in 1667, and economic recovery from the war years followed rapidly in the 1680s. The political and military turnaround since 1672 had entrenched William in the republic, and until his

death in 1702, Dutch foreign policy was shaped by William's implacable hostility to Louis XIV.

Prince William of Orange William, King of England



William III (1650-1702), also widely known as William of Orange, was sovereign Prince of Orange from birth, Stadholder of Holland, Zeeland, Utrecht, Gelderland and Overijssel in the Dutch Republic from 1672 and King of England, Ireland and Scotland from 1689 until his death in 1702. He is sometimes informally known in Northern Ireland and Scotland as "**King Billy**".

William inherited the principality of Orange from his father, William II, who died a week before William's birth. His mother Mary, Princess Royal, was the daughter of King Charles I of England. In 1677, he married his fifteen-year-old first cousin, Mary, the daughter of his maternal uncle James, Duke of York.

A Protestant, William participated in several wars against the powerful Catholic king of France, Louis XIV, in coalition with Protestant and Catholic powers in Europe. Many Protestants heralded him as a champion of their faith. In 1685, his Catholic father-in-law, James, Duke of York, became king of England, Ireland and Scotland. James's reign was unpopular with the Protestant majority in Britain. William, supported by a group of influential British political and religious leaders, invaded England in what became known as the "Glorious Revolution". On 5 November 1688, he landed at the

southern English port of Brixham. James was deposed and William and Mary became joint sovereigns in his place. They reigned together until her death on 28 December 1694, after which William ruled as sole monarch.

William's reputation as a staunch Protestant enabled him to take the British crowns when many were fearful of a revival of Catholicism under James. His reign in Britain marked the beginning of the transition from the personal rule of the Stuarts to the more Parliament-centred rule of the House of Hanover.

Legacy



Statue of an idealized William III erected in Queen Square, Bristol in 1736.

William's primary achievement was to hem in France when it was in a position to impose its will across much of Europe. His life was largely opposed to the will of the French King Louis XIV. This effort continued after his death during the War of the Spanish Succession.

Another important consequence of William's reign in England involved the ending of a bitter conflict between Crown and Parliament that had lasted since the accession of the first English monarch of the House of Stuart, James I, in 1603. The conflict over royal and parliamentary power had led to the English Civil War during the 1640s and the Glorious Revolution of 1688. During

William's reign, however, the conflict was settled in Parliament's favor by the Bill of Rights 1689, the Triennial Act 1694 and the Act of Settlement 1701.

William endowed the College of William and Mary (in present day Williamsburg, Virginia) in 1693.

Nassau, the capital of the Bahamas, is named after him. Similarly Nassau County, New York the western-most county on Long Island, is a namesake. Long Island itself was also known as Nassau during early Dutch rule.

The modern day Orange Institution is named after William III, and makes a point of celebrating his victory at the Boyne. Orange marches in Ulster, England, Wales, United States, New Zealand, Canada, Ghana, Togo, Republic of Ireland, Scotland and Continental Europe on "the Twelfth" of July (the anniversary of the Battle of the Boyne) often carry a picture of him with them. Hence "orange" is often thought of as a "Protestant" color in Ireland. The flag of the Republic of Ireland includes the color orange, as well as white and green, and signifies the aspiration to peace between Protestants and Roman Catholics in Ireland.

New York was briefly renamed New Orange for him. His name was applied to the fort and administrative center for the city on two separate occasions reflecting his different sovereign status – first as Fort Willem Hendrick in 1673 when the Dutch renamed New York to New Orange and then as Fort William in 1691 when the English evicted Colonists who had seized the fort and city. Orange, Connecticut and The Oranges in northern New Jersey, are named for him.

Russian Tsar Peter the Great greatly admired William, and his Great Embassy visited the England of his time. There the two met a few times and Peter's portrait was painted by William's court artist, Sir Godfrey Kneller.

The joint style of William III and Mary II was "William and Mary, by the Grace of God, King and Queen of England, France and Ireland, Defenders of the Faith, etc." when they ascended the Throne. From April 11, 1689 – when the Estates of Scotland recognized them as Sovereigns – the style "William and Mary, by the Grace of God, King and Queen of England, Scotland, France and Ireland, Defenders of the Faith, etc." was used. After Mary's death, William continued to use the same style, omitting the reference to Mary.

Glorious Revolution

The Glorious Revolution of 1688-1689 replaced the reigning king, James II, with the joint monarchy of his protestant daughter Mary and her Dutch husband, William of Orange. It was the keystone of the Whig (those opposed to a Catholic succession) history of Britain.

According to the Whig account, the events of the revolution were bloodless and the revolution settlement established the supremacy of parliament over the crown, setting Britain on the path towards constitutional monarchy and parliamentary democracy. But it ignores the extent to which the events of 1688 constituted a foreign invasion of England by another European power, the Dutch Republic.

Although bloodshed in England was limited, the revolution was only secured in Ireland and Scotland by force and with much loss of life. Moreover, the British causes of the revolution were as much religious as political. Indeed, the immediate constitutional impact of the revolution settlement was minimal. Nonetheless, over the course of the reign of William III (1689-1702) society underwent significant and long-lasting changes.

To understand why James II's most powerful subjects eventually rose up in revolt against him we need to understand the

deep-seated fear of 'popery' in Stuart England. 'Popery' meant more than just a fear or hatred of Catholics and the Catholic church. It reflected a widely-held belief in an elaborate conspiracy theory, that Catholics were actively plotting the overthrow of church and state. In their place would be established a Catholic tyranny, with England becoming merely a satellite state, under the control of an all-powerful Catholic monarch. This conspiracy theory was given credibility by the existence of some genuine catholic subterfuge, most notably the Gunpowder Plot of 1605.

A new crisis of 'popery and arbitrary government' erupted in the late 1670s. Public anxieties were raised by the issue of the royal succession. Charles II fathered no legitimate offspring. This meant that the crown would pass to his brother, James, Duke of York, whose conversion to Catholicism had become public knowledge in 1673. Public concern about the succession reached fever pitch in the years 1678-1681. The so-called 'exclusion crisis' was provoked by allegations made by Titus Oates, a former Jesuit novice, of a popish plot to assassinate Charles II and place his brother on the throne. The fantastical plot was given credibility by the mysterious death of Sir Edmund Bury Godfrey, the magistrate who first investigated Oates' claims.

Whig politicians within parliament, led by the earl of Shaftesbury, promoted exclusion bills which would have prevented James from succeeding to the throne. But the radical tactics deployed by the king's opponents, including mass petitions and demonstrations, gradually alienated some initial supporters of exclusion. Charles's hand was strengthened further by an agreement with France reached in March 1681, by which the king received £385,000 over three years. With this financial support, and with public opinion turning against his critics, Charles was able to dissolve parliament on 28 March 1681.

Offshore balancing

Offshore balancing is a strategic concept used in realist analysis in international relations. It describes a strategy where a great power uses favored regional powers to check the rise of potential hostile powers.

The "offshore balancing" arguably permits a great power to maintain its power without the costs of large military deployments around the world. It can be seen as the informal-empire analogue to federalism in formal ones (for instance the proposal for the Imperial Federation in the late British Empire). It was primarily used during the Cold War between the US and Soviet Union.

According to political scientist John Mearsheimer in his University of Chicago "American Grand Strategy" class, offshore balancing is the strategy used by the United States in the 1930s and also in the 1980-1988 Iran-Iraq war. Mearsheimer argues that when the United States gave Lend-Lease aid to Britain in the 1940s, the US was engaging in offshore balancing by being the arsenal of democracy, not the fighter for it. This is consistent with offshore balancing because the US initially did not want to commit American lives to the European conflict. The United States supported the losing side (Iraq) in the Iran-Iraq War to prevent the development of a regional hegemon, which could ultimately threaten US influence. Furthermore, offshore balancing can seem like isolationism when a rough balance of power in international relations exists, which was the case in the 1930s.

Listening 10.

CD 2, Track 10

undaunted – not put off, discouraged, or beaten; brave

to come into one's own – to receive what is due to one; become fulfilled

to portend – to signify or indicate; predict, give warning (of)

battle royal – a long violent argument

to cash in – to take advantage (of)

to level – to raze to the ground

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. How did Louis call his policy?
2. Why did Louis send out his archivists and lawyers to go into the archives?
3. Why did the coalition of European powers confront him?
4. Speak about the hostilities between the British sea power and the French fleet.
5. Why was Louis XIV able to claim the Spanish throne for his grandson?

II. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

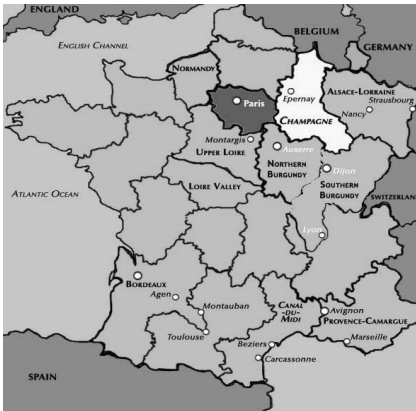
What's probably more important than _____
that were _____ is the
very fact of coalition itself with many European powers
_____ against what seemed to be
_____ on the
Continent. What interests us was another interesting feature: British

sea power _____ as it
_____ against the French
fleet that had been gathered at La Hogue in 1692, this sea power was
growing _____ a future British
_____. The
Treaty of Ryswick in 1697 finally ended the war but
_____. In some sense
what _____ was a
larger conflict. The death _____ of the
last of the Habsburg dynasty in Spain the Spanish King Carlos II in
1700 _____. Louis
XIV now was able _____ what Mazarin had
already thought of _____
on the basis of having been married to a Spanish princess. Louis XIV
claimed the Spanish throne for his grandson, and there was
celebration _____, it was announced “it was as
if the Pyrenees Mountains _____
because now France and Spain could be one, under the Bourbon
monarchy. This in itself was precisely what other Europeans were
worried about and they _____.

III. Summarize the recording using no more than 5 sentences.

Supplementary Reading

Alsace



Alsace is a cultural and historical region located on France's eastern border and on the west bank of the upper Rhine adjacent to Germany and Switzerland.

For more than 300 years, from the Thirty Years' War to World War II the political status of Alsace has been heavily contested between

France and various German states in many wars and diplomatic conferences. The economic and cultural capital as well as largest city of Alsace is Strasbourg. The city is the seat of several international organizations and bodies.

German Land within the Kingdom of France

When hostilities were concluded in 1648 with the Treaty of Westphalia, most of Alsace was recognized as part of France, although some towns remained independent. The treaty stipulations

regarding Alsace were complex. Although the French king gained sovereignty, existing rights and customs of the inhabitants were largely preserved. France continued to maintain its customs border along the Vosges mountains where it had been, leaving Alsace more economically oriented to neighbouring German-speaking lands. The German language remained in use in local administration, in schools, and at the (Lutheran) University of Strasbourg, which continued to draw students from other German-speaking lands. The 1685 Edict of Fontainebleau, by which the French king ordered the suppression of French Protestantism, was not applied in Alsace. France did endeavour to promote Catholicism. Strasbourg Cathedral, for example, which had been Lutheran from 1524 to 1681, was returned to the Catholic Church. However, compared to the rest of France, Alsace enjoyed a climate of religious tolerance.

The warfare that had partially depopulated the region created opportunities for a stream of immigrants from Switzerland, Germany, Austria, Lorraine, Savoy and other lands that continued until the mid-18th century.

France consolidated its hold with the 1679 Treaty of Nijmegen, which brought most remaining towns under its control. France seized Strasbourg in 1681 in an unprovoked action. These territorial changes were recognized in the 1697 Treaty of Ryswick that ended the War of the Grand Alliance.

Lorraine



French domination of the area dates from the 17th century, when control of the duchy became vital in the struggles between the French kings and the Habsburgs, who ruled the Holy Roman Empire. The French had already established a foothold by taking Metz, Toul, and Verdun in 1552, and they occupied the duchy a number of times in the devastating wars of the 17th century. Lorraine was given to Stanisław I, the former king of Poland and father-in-law of the French king Louis XV, by the treaties (1738) ending the War of the Polish Succession. On Stanisław's death in 1766, Lorraine was incorporated into France as an administrative *généralité* under an intendant (royal governor), with Nancy as its capital. It was broken up into *départements* during the French Revolution (1790).

Part of Lorraine, along with Alsace, was joined to the German Reich after the French defeat in the Franco-German War of 1870–71 but was returned to France at the end of World War I.

War of the League of Augsburg (1688-1697)

The War of the League of Augsburg (1688-97) – often called the War of the Grand Alliance or the Nine Years' War – was a conflict between Louis XIV of France and a European coalition of Austria, the Holy Roman Empire, the Dutch Republic, Spain, England and Savoy. It was fought in Europe and the surrounding seas, Ireland, North America and in India. It is sometimes considered the first global war. The conflict encompassed the Williamite war in Ireland and Jacobite risings in Scotland, where William III and James II struggled for control of England and Ireland, and a campaign in colonial North America between French and English settlers and their respective Indian allies, today called King William's War by Americans.

Louis XIV of France had emerged from the Franco-Dutch War in 1678 as the most powerful monarch in Europe, an absolute ruler who had won numerous military victories. Using a combination of aggression, annexation, and quasi-legal means, Louis XIV set about extending his gains to stabilize and strengthen France's frontiers, culminating in the brief War of the Reunions (1683-84). The Truce of Ratisbon guaranteed France's new borders for twenty years, but Louis XIV's subsequent actions – notably his Edict of Fontainebleau in 1685 – led to the deterioration of his military and political dominance. Louis XIV's decision to cross the Rhine in September 1688 was designed to extend his influence and pressure the Holy Roman Empire into accepting his territorial and dynastic claims. Leopold I and the German princes resolved to resist, and when the States General and William III brought the Dutch and the English into the war against France, the French King faced a powerful coalition aimed at curtailing his ambitions.

The main fighting took place around France's borders in the Spanish Netherlands, the Rhineland, the Duchy of Savoy and

Catalonia. The fighting generally favoured Louis XIV's armies, but by 1696 his country was in the grip of an economic crisis. The Maritime Powers (England and the Dutch Republic) were also financially exhausted, and when Savoy defected from the Alliance, all parties were keen to negotiate a settlement. By the terms of the Treaty of Ryswick (1697) Louis XIV retained the whole of Alsace but was forced to return Lorraine to its ruler and give up any gains on the right bank of the Rhine. Louis XIV also accepted William III as the rightful King of England, while the Dutch acquired a Barrier fortress system in the Spanish Netherlands to help secure their borders. With the ailing and childless Charles II of Spain approaching his end, a new conflict over the inheritance of the Spanish Empire embroiled Louis XIV and the Grand Alliance in the War of the Spanish Succession.

North American theatre (King William's War)

The European war was reflected in North America, where it was known as King William's War, though the North American contest was very different in meaning and scale. The European war declaration arrived amid long-running tensions over control of the fur trade, economically vital to both French and English colonies, and influence over the Iroquois, who controlled much of that trade. The French were determined to hold the St. Lawrence country and to extend their power over the vast basin of the Mississippi. Moreover, Hudson Bay was a focal point of dispute between the Protestant English and Catholic French colonists, both of whom claimed a share of its occupation and trade. Although important to the colonists, the North American theatre of the Nine Years' War was of secondary importance to European statesmen. Despite numerical superiority, the English colonists suffered repeated defeats as New France effectively organized its French

troops, local militia and Indian allies, to attack frontier settlements. Almost all resources sent to the colonies by England were to defend the English West Indies, the crown jewels of the empire.

Friction over Indian relations worsened in 1688 with French incursions against the Iroquois in upstate New York, and with Indian raids against smaller settlements in Maine. The war dragged on for several years longer in a series of desultory sallies and frontier massacres: neither the leaders in England nor France thought of weakening their position in Europe for the sake of a knock-out blow in North America. By the terms of the Treaty of Ryswick the boundaries and outposts of New France, New England, and New York remained substantially unchanged. In Newfoundland and Hudson's Bay French influence now predominated but William III, who had made the interests of the Bay Company a cause of war in North America, was not prepared to hazard his European policy for the sake of their pursuit. The Iroquois Five Nations, abandoned by their English allies, were obliged to open separate negotiations, and by the treaty of 1701 they agreed to remain neutral in any future Anglo-French war.

The Treaty of Ryswick in 1697

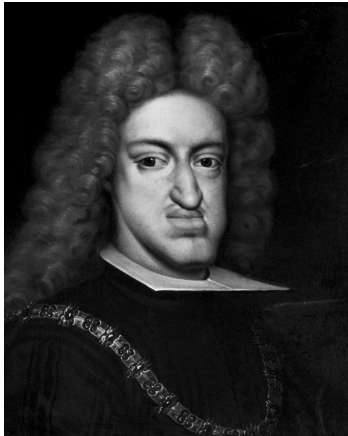


Treaty of Ryswick is the peace which in 1697 ended the war between France on the one side and the Empire, England, Spain and Holland, on the other. Begun in 1689 under the leadership of the new king of England, William III, its object was to put a check on the ambitious designs of Louis XIV, and it raged in the Netherlands, the Rhineland, Italy, Ireland and Spain,

in India and America and on the sea. Negotiations for peace began in 1696, but they were soon broken off, William III and the English parliament at this time refusing to treat except "with our swords in our hands." But in May 1697 they were renewed under the mediation of the king of Sweden. The French representatives had their headquarters at the Hague and those of the allies at Delft, the conferences between them taking place at Ryswick. For the first few weeks no result was reached, and in June William III and Louis XIV each appointed one representative to meet together privately. The two chosen were William Bentinck, earl of Portland, and marshal Boufflers, and they soon drew up the terms of an agreement, to which, however, the emperor Leopold I and the king of Spain would not assent. But in a short time Spain gave way, and on September 10, 1697 a treaty of peace was signed between France and the three powers, England, Spain and Holland, the Empire still holding aloof. William then persuaded Leopold to make peace, and a treaty between France and the Empire was signed on October 30.

The basis of the peace was that all towns and districts seized since the treaty of Nijmegen in 1679 should be restored. Then France surrendered Freiburg, Breisach and Philippsburg to Germany, although it kept Strasbourg. On the other hand it regained Pondicherry and Nova Scotia, while Spain recovered Catalonia, and the barrier fortresses of Mons, Luxemburg and Courtrai. The duchy of Lorraine, which for many years had been in the possession of France, was restored to Leopold Joseph, a son of duke Charles V, and the Dutch were to be allowed to garrison some of the chief fortresses in the Netherlands. Louis undertook to recognize William as king of England, he abandoned his interference in the electorate of Cologne and also the claim which he had put forward to some of the lands of the Rhenish Palatinate.

Spanish King Carlos II



Charles II, son of Philip IV, was the last Habsburg ruler of Spain. The reign of Charles II is perhaps best known for the decline of this empire. Plagued by poor leadership, monetary inflation, bankruptcy, and a series of military defeats, Spain in the later seventeenth century surrendered its primacy on the European stage to France.

Charles as an individual was sadly symbolic of this decline, as he was known more for his physical infirmity and absence from government than for his accomplishments. Given Charles's weak physical condition, it was generally assumed that he was lacking in intelligence as well, and little was required of him in the way of educational training. He was never able to read and write well, and did not master other basic courtly skills such as horsemanship and fencing.

Charles's reign was characterized by factionalism in which various figures in the court competed for control in the power vacuum left by the absence of a strong king. Charles inherited his throne in 1665 at the age of four. His mother, Mariana of Austria, acted as regent and relied on a series of favorites to assist her in the tasks of government. When Charles came of age in 1676, he too depended on the assistance of others in the court. As a result, there was constant competition to gain access to the king, and factions developed around the individuals most likely to be able to control him. In addition to Mariana of Austria, the most significant of these were Charles's half-brother Don Juan José of Austria (an illegitimate

son of Philip IV), a charismatic and popular figure in the court and a constant focus of opposition to the queen mother, and Charles's second wife, Mariana of Neuburg, whom he married in 1689. During the 1680s and 1690s, the king also relied on the assistance of a series of ministers. This practice increased the influence of the aristocracy in the court, but because of factional conflicts, no single minister was able to accomplish much or to remain in power for more than a few years. Charles's final failure was his inability to leave an heir. Anticipating this, the other European powers, particularly France and Austria, spent much of his reign designing plans to partition Spain, and his death in 1700 resulted in the twelve-year War of the Spanish Succession.

Historians of Spain have paid little attention to the late seventeenth century, and those who have described Spain during the reign of Charles II reserve their harshest criticism for the king, associating his personal weaknesses with Spain's decline. Recent studies of the "decline of Spain" argument, however, have questioned whether Charles's reign was truly as disastrous as it appears. While the court in Madrid was preoccupied with its internal power struggles, other regions of Spain experienced a gradual recovery. Although military dominance in Europe clearly passed to the French, recent research indicates that within Spain, population growth, agricultural output, and textile manufacture all began to recover under the reign of Charles II. In fact, much administrative and fiscal reform that has been attributed to the reign of the Bourbon kings in the eighteenth century may well have had its roots in the last decades of the seventeenth in the regions outside Castile. Even artistic production, which had declined in Castile because of a lack of court patronage, flourished in provincial cities such as Seville. Although Charles II is a king more often regretted than celebrated in the annals of Spanish history, the negative impact of his personal failings on Spain has been much exaggerated.

Listening 11.

CD 2, Track 11

promontory – a high point of land, esp of a rocky coast, that juts out into the sea

relic – something that has survived from the past, such as an object or custom

remnant – a surviving trace or vestige, as of a former era

to wield – to exert or maintain (power or authority)

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. Why were enormous Spanish holdings in Europe and in Americas at risk?
2. Why was the War of the Spanish Succession in some sense considered the First World War?
3. What kind of actions did Sir John Churchill and Prince Eugene take?
4. Why was Battle of Blenheim bitter?
5. What poem did Robert Southey write?
6. What was the essential message of the poem?

II. What does the author mean by saying

to be at stake _____
in tandem with _____
political strivings _____

III. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

The poem is set long after _____
in Blenheim in Bavaria, it concerns _____
who has been working out in the fields and whose grandchildren find
something, they're playing with it and _____.
It's a skull which is _____,
and the children ask their grandfather, "_____"?
What was this?" And the grandfather says, "Oh,
_____." And they _____ him and asking,
"What was it for? Who won? _____?"
And the grandfather, _____, simply
can answer that "Well, _____, I don't really
know what it was about but it was a great victory." There is
_____ here _____
which _____ had
certainly been _____;
we need to _____ even as we
talk about _____
that on the lower level of _____ the cost
_____ very often by multitudes of
others who had no such _____.

Supplementary Reading

War of the Spanish Succession

War of Spanish Succession 1701-1713

- Louis' grandson claimed Spanish throne
- Opposed by Dutch, English, Austrians, and Prussians
- Peace of Utrecht 1713
- Balance of Power preserved in Europe

The War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714) was a major European conflict that arose in 1701 after the death of the last Spanish Habsburg king, Charles II. Charles had bequeathed all of his possessions to Philip, duc d'Anjou – a grandson of the French King Louis XIV – who thereby became Philip V of Spain. The war began slowly, as the Holy Roman Emperor Leopold I fought to protect his own dynasty's claim to the Spanish inheritance. As Louis XIV began to expand his territories more aggressively, however, other European nations (chiefly England and the Dutch Republic) entered on the Holy Roman Empire's side to check French expansion. Other states joined the coalition opposing France and Spain in an attempt to acquire new territories, or to protect existing dominions.

The war lasted over a decade, and was marked by the military leadership of notable generals such as the Duc de Villars and the Duke of Berwick for France, the Duke of Marlborough for England, and Prince Eugene of Savoy for the Austrians. The war was

concluded by the treaties of Utrecht (1713) and Rastatt (1714). As a result, Philip V remained King of Spain but was removed from the French line of succession, thereby averting a union of France and Spain. The Austrians gained most of the Spanish territories in Italy and the Netherlands. As a consequence, France's hegemony over continental Europe was ended, and the idea of a balance of power became a part of the international order due to its mention in the Treaty of Utrecht.

Sir John Churchill, the Duke of Marlborough



At home Marlborough was an important political figure whose support was indispensable to any ministry. The key to this influence lay with his wife, who had been Anne's (Queen of Great Britain) firm companion and guide through all the political upheavals of the past two decades. Anne, though a woman with decided views and prejudices of her own, was content to leave her affairs in the hands of Sarah's husband and his friend and political ally Sidney, earl of Godolphin, whom Anne made lord treasurer and, in effect, prime minister.

Both Marlborough and Godolphin were Tories of a traditional kind and so were staunch supporters of the crown and the court as well as of the church. They allied themselves at first with Robert Harley, later the 1st earl of Oxford, leader of a new breed of Tory hostile to the financial interests nurtured by the war. This alliance provided backing for the war against Louis XIV that produced the

great victories of Blenheim and Ramillies, but increasingly, as the old Tories left the government one by one, Marlborough and Godolphin could find effective and consistent support for the war only from the Whigs. Sarah strongly advocated a Whig alliance, with the result that her influence over Anne, among whose prejudices was a strong dislike of the Whig leaders, rapidly declined. A political crisis in January 1708 resulted in Harley's dismissal, and Marlborough and Godolphin were now entirely dependent upon the Whigs. Although Marlborough continued to win his battles, the Whigs proved unable to secure peace, and, by now weary of war, the people endorsed Anne's dismissal of Godolphin and his Whig colleagues in the general election of 1710. Marlborough, who had already found himself increasingly isolated and without influence during the Whig predominance, was left in command of the army for another year, but when he endeavored to take a political stand over the terms of peace being negotiated by the new government, he was dismissed in December 1711 from all his appointments after charges of misuse of public money had been made in the House of Commons. He took no further part in public life under Anne, retiring abroad when condemned by the Commons for misappropriation of public money. Although restored to favour under George I, Marlborough was already a sick man and lived in retirement up to his death.

Prince Eugene



Prince Eugene of Savoy (1663-1736) was one of the most successful military commanders in modern European history, rising to the highest offices of state at the Imperial court in Vienna.

Born in Paris, Eugene grew up around the French court of King Louis XIV. The Prince was initially prepared for a career in the church, but by the age of 19 he had determined on a military career.

Following a scandal involving his mother Olympe, he was rejected by Louis XIV for service in the French army. Eugene moved to Austria and transferred his loyalty to the Habsburg Monarchy.

Spanning six decades, Eugene served three Holy Roman Emperors: Leopold I, Joseph I, and Charles VI. The Prince's fame was secured with his decisive victory against the Ottomans at the Battle of Zenta in 1697, earning him Europe-wide fame. Eugene enhanced his standing during the War of the Spanish Succession, he gained further success in the war as Imperial commander in northern Italy, most notably at the Battle of Turin (1706). Renewed hostilities against the Ottomans in the Austro-Turkish War consolidated his reputation, with the decisive encounter at Belgrade (1717).

Throughout the late 1720s, Eugene's influence and skilful diplomacy managed to secure the Emperor powerful allies in his dynastic struggles with the Bourbon powers, but physically and mentally fragile in his later years, Eugene enjoyed less success as commander-in-chief of the army during his final conflict, the War of the Polish Succession. Nevertheless, in Austria, Eugene's reputation remains unrivalled. Although opinions differ as to his character,

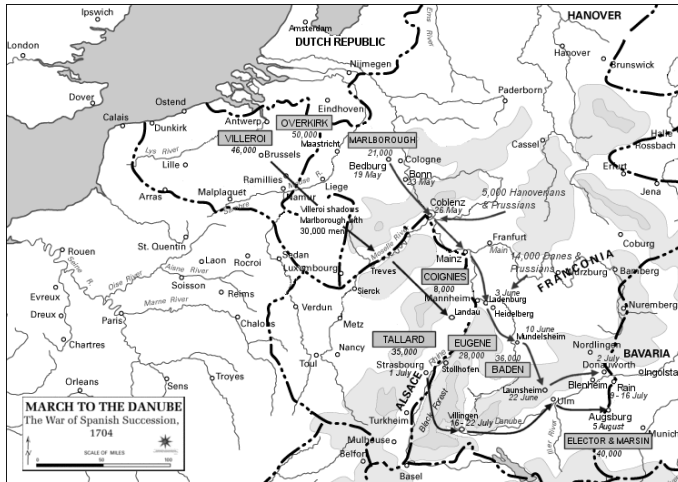
there is no dispute over his great achievements: he helped to save the Habsburg Empire from French conquest; he broke the westward thrust of the Ottomans, liberating central Europe after a century and a half of Turkish occupation; and he was one of the great patrons of the arts whose building legacy can still be seen in Vienna today.

Gibraltar

In 1704 British forces captured Gibraltar, one of the most important strategic points in the entire world.

Gibraltar had been in Spanish hands for over 240 years, back when they took it from Muslim forces in 1462. After the British took Gibraltar from the Spanish in 1704, they have managed to keep it to this day. Gibraltar was named after the Muslim conqueror Tariq ibn Ziyad, who led the first Muslim invasion of the Iberian Peninsula in 711 (the word “Gibraltar” is derived from the term Jabal Tariq, which means “Tariq’s Hill”). Due to its strategically important location, Gibraltar has suffered around 10 sieges throughout history. The British who took it on this day were part of a coalition of countries which had united against the Spanish. This occurred during the War of Spanish Succession, during which the houses of Habsburg and Bourbon, probably the two most powerful royal dynasties in European history, vied for control over the Spanish crown.

Battle of Blenheim, 1704



The Battle of Blenheim was a major battle of the War of the Spanish Succession fought on August 13, 1704. King Louis XIV sought to knock Emperor Leopold out of the war by seizing Vienna, the capital of the Holy Roman Empire, and gain a favorable peace settlement.

French losses were immense: some 30,000 killed, wounded and missing. Moreover, the myth of French invincibility had been destroyed and Louis' hopes of an early and victorious peace had been wrenched from his grasp. Marlborough and Eugène, working indivisibly together, had saved the Habsburg Empire and thereby preserved the Grand Alliance from collapse. Munich, Augsburg, Ingolstadt, Ulm, and all remaining territory of Bavaria soon fell to the Allies. By the Treaty of Ilbersheim, signed November 7, 1704, Bavaria was placed under Austrian military rule, allowing the Habsburgs to utilise its resources for the rest of the conflict.

The remnants of the Elector of Bavaria's and Marshal Marsin's wing limped back to Strasbourg, losing another 7,000 men through

desertion. Despite being offered the chance to remain as ruler of Bavaria (under strict terms of an alliance with Austria), the Elector left his country and family in order to continue the war against the Allies from the Spanish Netherlands where he still held the post of governor-general. Their commander-in-chief that day, Marshal Tallard – who, unlike his subordinates, had not been ransomed or exchanged – was taken to England and imprisoned in Nottingham until his release in 1711.

The 1704 campaign lasted considerably longer than usual as the Allies sought to wring out maximum advantage. Realizing that France was too powerful to be forced to make peace by a single victory, however, Eugène, Marlborough and Baden met to plan their next moves. For the following year the Duke proposed a campaign along the valley of the River Moselle to carry the war deep into France. This required the capture of the major fortress of Landau which guarded the Rhine, and the towns of Trèves and Trarbach on the Moselle itself. Trèves was taken on October 26 and Landau fell on November 23 to the Margrave of Baden and Prince Eugène; with the fall of Trarbach on December 20, the campaign season for 1704 came to an end.

Marlborough returned to England on December 14 to the acclamation of Queen Anne and the country. In February 1705, Queen Anne granted him the Park of Woodstock and promised a sum of £240,000 to build a suitable house as a gift from a grateful crown in recognition of his victory – a victory which British historian Sir Edward Creasy considered one of the pivotal battles in history, writing – "Had it not been for Blenheim, all Europe might at this day suffer under the effect of French conquests resembling those of Alexander in extent and those of the Romans in durability." Britain had won a battle that would propel it to military dominance in the epoch, while the French conversely lost the hegemony that they had enjoyed in the years leading up to the conflict.

Listening 12.

CD 2, Track 12

to hammer out – to form or produce (an agreement, plan, etc.) after
much discussion or dispute

to get at – to mean or intend

to get around – to overcome or circumvent

SKILLS FOCUS

I. Listen to the extract and answer the questions.

1. What was the only practical option of the vast struggle of the War of the Spanish Succession?
2. Why were the dynastic complications on the allied side enormously complicated?

II. Listen to the recording and complete the abstract.

How did all this finish? How did all this conclude, _____ of the War of the Spanish Succession? The answer was _____. Dynastic complications _____ in 1711, these are _____ but let me try to sum them up as follows. When the Holy Roman Emperor, the Habsburg Emperor, died it became clear that if the allied side were able _____ and to substitute a Habsburg _____ from Austria, that Habsburg claimant _____ both Austria and Spain in the future, and so in some sense _____ the whole reason for fighting this war because one didn't want _____ being

able to unite Spain and France if the result _____, in turn, uniting Austria and Spain, and you were back to _____. So, finally it was clear that _____ and this was finally _____ at the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, which even though it's spoken of in the singular was actually _____ at this time. The treaties were between England, the Dutch, Savoy, Spain and France, and the negotiations represented at Utrecht the second modern European peace congress after Westphalia.

Supplementary Reading

Treaty of Utrecht



Treaties of Utrecht, also called Peace of Utrecht, (April 1713–September 1714), is a series of treaties between France and other European powers and another series between Spain and other powers, concluding the War of the Spanish Succession.

France concluded treaties of peace at Utrecht with Britain, the Dutch Republic, Prussia, Portugal, and Savoy. By the treaty with Britain, France recognized Queen Anne as the British sovereign and undertook to cease supporting James Edward, the son of the deposed king James II. France ceded Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, the Hudson Bay territory, and the island of St. Kitts to Britain and promised to demolish the fortifications at Dunkirk, which had been used as a base for attacks on English and Dutch shipping. In the treaty with the Dutch, France agreed that the United Provinces should annex part of Gelderland and should retain certain barrier fortresses in the Spanish Netherlands. In the treaty with Prussia, France acknowledged Frederick I's royal title and recognized his claim to Neuchâtel (in present Switzerland) and southeast Gelderland. In return France received the principality of Orange from Prussia. In the treaty with Savoy, France recognized Victor Amadeus II, duke of Savoy, as king of Sicily and that he should rule Sicily and Nice. The treaty with Portugal recognized its sovereignty on both banks of the Amazon River. France's Guiana colony in South America was restricted in size.

The peace treaties involving Spain took longer to arrange. Spain's treaty with Britain gave Gibraltar and Minorca to Britain. The treaty was preceded by the *asiento* agreement, by which Spain gave to Britain the exclusive right to supply the Spanish colonies with African slaves for the next 30 years. On Aug. 13, 1713, the Spanish treaty with Savoy was concluded, ceding the former Spanish possession of Sicily to Victor Amadeus II as his share of the spoils of war. In return he renounced his claims upon the Spanish throne. The peace between Spain and the Dutch was delayed until June 26, 1714, and that between Spain and Portugal until the Treaty of Madrid (February 1715).

The question of the Spanish Succession was finally settled in favour of the Bourbon Philip V, grandson of France's Louis XIV.

Listening 13.

proviso – a condition or stipulation

to marshal – to guide or lead, esp in a ceremonious way

I. Write the script of the listening.

172

This image shows a blank sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

II. Make up questions on the recording.

[illegible]

Supplementary Reading

Peace of Rastatt

Treaties of Rastatt and Baden (1714) are peace treaties between the Holy Roman emperor Charles VI and France that ended the emperor's attempt to continue the War of the Spanish Succession after the other states had made peace in the Treaties of Utrecht.

Charles VI made peace in his own name at Rastatt and in the name of the states of the Holy Roman Empire half a year later at Baden in Switzerland. In these treaties Charles renounced his claims to the Spanish throne but did not actually make peace with Spain and did not recognize the Bourbon Philip V as king of Spain. A technical state of war with Spain existed until 1720. The emperor was recognized by France as the ruler of the former Spanish possessions of Milan, Tuscany, Naples, the Southern Netherlands, and Sardinia. The emperor recovered Breisach, Kehl, and Freiburg east of the Rhine; in return he ceded Strasbourg and Alsace to France and agreed to allow France's allies, the electors of Bavaria and Cologne, to recover their possessions. This settlement, like the final treaties of the general settlement of Utrecht, became part of the foundation of international relations in Europe for the next generation.

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Marine Mkrtchyan, Armenuhi Martirosyan

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Improving Listening Skills

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