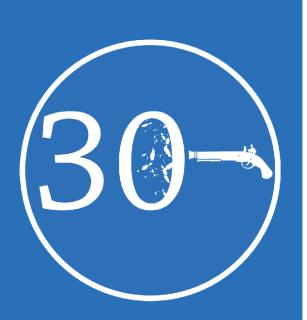
THE 30 YEARS WAR

Background Guide SSICsim 2017



Director: Bamdad Attaran

Includes:

Welcome Letter

Background

Character Guides



Contents

Welcome Letter	2
Letter from the Vatican's Secretary of State	2
Introduction:	3
History of the Thirty Years' War	4
Religious Tensions within the Empire	4
The Political Landscape in Europe in 1618	5
War Breaks Out	6
The Bohemian Revolt (1618-1620)	6
Danish intervention (1625-1632)	6
French intervention (1634 - 1648)	8
Preparing the Peace Congress	8
The Situation in 1641	8
Key Topics	9
Topic 1: The Fight over Territories: Deciding the New Shape of the Holy Roman Empire	9
The Swedish Satisfaction	9
The French Satisfaction:	10
Topic 2: The Rights of the Estates of the Empire	11
Territorial Sovereignty	11
Right to Alliance	12
Right to Co-Determination	12
Committee Mechanics	13
Timeline	13
Use of Electronic Devices	13
Rules of Procedure	13
Directives	14
Troop and Finance Management	14
Rules of Military Engagement	15
Character List	17
Committee Maps	23
Work Cited	24



Welcome Letter



Letter from the Vatican's Secretary of State

December 7th 1637

In nomine Patris et Filii et Spiritus Sancti (In the name of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Spirit):

Let it be known to all, and every one whom it may concern, or to whom in any manner it may belong, that for many years past, discords and civil divisions being stirred up in the Holy Roman Empire, which increased to such a degree, that not only all Germany, but also the neighbouring Kingdoms, and France particularly, have been involved in the disorders of a long and cruel war.

It is time to once again enjoy the fruits of peace. How much longer can this conflict prolong? Oh noble leaders, I urge that for the sake of your kingdoms, your peoples and for that which you hold dear, let us come to our sense and agree to end this conflict.

Make no mistakes - the path to peace is not a coward's path. Lord Ferdinand the Second; elected Roman Emperor, King of Germany, Hungary, Bohemia, Dalmatia, Croatia, Slavonia, Arch-Duke of Austria, Duke of Burgundy, Brabant, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Marquis of Moravia, Duke of Luxemburg, Prince of Swabia, Count of Hapsburg, Tirol, Kyburg and Gorizia, Lord of Burgovia; has descended into the heavens. With his passing Europe transcends into a new era, an era defined by peace and stability. The newly elected Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, King Ferdinand the Third, has made a royal proclamation to bring about an end to the ongoing hostilities. It is precisely for such a reason that I am writing to each of you. On behalf of the Catholic Church and the Holy Roman Empire I am summoning a council. I sincerely extend this invitation, for the presence of all your excellencies is required if we seek to establish long term peace within Europe. May the father forgive us all for failing to end this conflict sooner.

Dominus vobiscum et cum spiritu tuo (May the lord be with you and your spirit),

Bamdad Attaran

Chair and Committee Director of the Thirty Years' War Committee, SSICsim 2016



Introduction:

The Thirty Years War emerged as a religious conflict between the Catholic and Protestant states in the Holy Roman Empire. Tensions rose in the religiously divided empire when Archduke Ferdinand II became the Holy Roman Emperor and strongly advocated for religious uniformity. Soon enough neighbouring nations such as France, Sweden and Spain were drawn into the conflict for various political, economic, and religious reasons, leading to a complex and fluid network of alliances. This war had devastating ramifications for all its participants. The war had been a direct contributor to widespread famine in Europe and the spread of various diseases. As a result, many states saw the rapid decline of their populations. The will to fight had faltered and peace within the European continent was a desirable outcome. However, negotiating peace between the warring parties was a long and tedious process.

In 1637, Ferdinand III became the Holy Roman Emperor, and upon the death of his father, he began to advocate for peace within Europe. In 1641, the first stages of negotiations began. It was not until 1648 that a series of Peace Treaties had been signed, which became known as the Peace of Westphalia.

The Peace of Westphalia of 1648 earns its fame as the first world charter of sovereign nations, influencing the foundation of the Congress of Aix-la Chapelle of 1818, the Paris Settlement of 1919, the League of Nations, and ultimately, the United Nations Charter, which left the most of the Peace of Westphalia's framework unchanged. The Peace of Westphalia has a lasting influence on international law and policy for over three centuries. In addition to the legacy Westphalia left in the world of international law, one of the key significances of this peace treaty is the religious impact that it caused. The Peace of Westphalia ultimately ended the religious conflict that had ailed Central Europe for centuries by consecrating "the principle of toleration by establishing the equality between Protestant and Catholic states and by providing some safeguards for religious minorities." The Peace of Westphalia consisted a two-part treaty that ended the Thirty Years' War in Central Europe: the Treaty of Osnabrück between the Holy Roman Empire and the victorious Protestant Sweden and the Treaty of Münster between the Holy Roman Empire and the victorious Catholic France.

In this Historical Crisis Committee, delegates will take the roles of prominent diplomats who made significant contributions in the negotiations for the Peace of Westphalia. Therefore, committee delegates are tasked to establish a series of peace treaties that will address the overarching issues, while attempt to maintain the political agenda of the individuals they represent



History of the Thirty Years' War

Religious Tensions within the Empire

To understand the conflict of the early 1600s, it is the most appropriate to start with the reformatory era and the Diet of Speyer of 1526. Due to foreign policy circumstances, the Catholics were forced to show some forbearance and Protestantism was able to make a first major progress in politics, as the reformation had already spread in various entities. However, in 1530, the following Diet held in Augsburg could not settle the dispute between Catholics and Protestants, as the latter sought more and more acceptance and power. This triggered the "Schmalkadic League" in 1531, consisting of all Protestant cities and rulers. Electoral Saxony and Hesse led the league in military terms to defend themselves from the Edict of Worms, which ostracized all Protestants. A year later, it seemed like military force was not necessary, when the emperor Karl V. granted law and peace to the Protestants in the Nuremberg Peace of 1532 1. This stopped persecution or religious minorities, mainly Protestants, and allowed the Reformation to spread out without restriction

Nevertheless, the Schmalkaldic League continued to gain support. Karl V. agreed to the peace due to greater issues in foreign affairs, but after that crisis, tried to reimburse the religious unity in his empire through a general council and religious negotiations until 1541. All the attempts to take down Protestantism ended by way of war in 1546 and led to the victory of Karl V. in the Schmalkadic War in 1547. After the Protestants were defeated, the estates of the empire were supposed to be converted back to Catholicism. The Augsburg Interim of 1548 (decreed by the Emperor) offered some transitional solutions on how the defeated estates were supposed evolve into predominantly Catholic States.

The transition of the defeated estates turned out to be an impossible effort to achieve, as the rulers of the Protestant territories revolted against Karl V. and his idea of a monotheistic empire, he was unable to revert his decisions. As a result, he abdicated and the Treaty of Passau was signed in 1552 under Karl's brother, Ferdinand I. However, the former emperor was able to influence the negotiations leading up to the treaty, that only a temporary solution could be established. To settle the dispute, the Peace of Augsburg in 1555 was initiated ². Only then, the legal details about the coexistence of the two confessions were defined, thus established the separation of religious and secular powers.

As time passed, both sides challenged the peace of Augsburg. In the upcoming years, one of the most significant issues was how far one ruler's lawful right to determine the confession of his subjects reached. It was also heavily discussed in the 1560s and 1570s of what would happen to a ruler's benefices once he converted. The notion of forced conversions and the degree to which it

² Robert Cowley and Geoffrey Parker, eds, "Thirty Years' War," History.com, accessed July 5th, 2016, http://www.history.com/topics/thirty-years-war



¹ Henry Kamen, "The Economic and Social Consequences of the Thirty Years' War," Past and Present 39 (1968): 44

would be tolerate, was also a serious matter of debate. These issues caused multiple conflicts. In 1583, the war of Cologne was centered around the archbishop, as he attempted to stay in power. Until 1609, various issues over jurisdiction, entities, and the interpretation of the peace of Augsburg were enforced ³.

Due to the imbalance of power between the Protestants and the Catholics, it became impossible to use common procedural rules, and the courts and diets, as they had lost their power to settle disputes peacefully. In 1608, the Protestants, feeling disadvantaged by the Catholics, founded the "Protestant Union," which was answered in 1609 by the establishment of the so-called "Catholic League". Both sides were now politically organized in different associations. The main motivation for the Protestants was the need to protect themselves after the jurisprudence was disabled. However, they only gained power after they allied with France and by extension, gained military might. What followed was the first fight over a territory with international involvement. In the Jülich Cleves War of succession, the Netherlands, Spain and France supported various alliances. Through diplomatic efforts of the English and the French, the dispute (1609 - 1614) was settled without force. Overall, even though peace prevailed after the peace of Augsburg for another 60 years, it also heated up the conflict and initiated the lapse of the political system. Since neither side had great military potential, the conflict did not escalate. With the entry of other European powers though alliances, this was about to change.

The Political Landscape in Europe in 1618

The primary conflict within Europe was an ongoing rivalry between the kingdoms of France and Spain. Both states had major holdings within Italy, with Spain controlling much of Southern Italy putting them into direct conflict within that region. Spain was also in control of the Netherlands and allied with the Holy Roman Empire through strong family ties (both were ruled by members of the Habsburg dynasty). This meant that France was effectively surrounded by Spanish and Habsburg States, as well as puppet states of the Holy Roman Empire. As a result France began to support any power willing to oppose Habsburg rule.

However, Spain had its own problems facing several domestic independence movements, most prominently that of the Netherlands. The Spanish King's despotism and stern counter-reformation (also referred to as the Catholic Reformation), in response to the Protestant, reformation resulted in the Dutch Revolt. The Dutch territories had first declared independence in 1568, this revolt escalated into a total war known as the Eight Year's War (1568-1648). The war was never formally ended, but only led to a ceasefire agreement in 1609. With the start of the Thirty Years War, this conflict would once again break out in 1621.

⁵ Geoffrey Symcox, War, Diplomacy, and Imperialism, 1618-1763 (New York: Walker, 1974), 120. ⁶ Ibid.



³ Traité De L'amour De Dieu, (Paris: Maison De La Bonne Presse, 1925).

⁴ lbid.

Similarly, the Baltic Sea was also an area of much conflict. Denmark, Sweden, and Poland all thrived to become the dominant regional power of the Baltics. Sweden and Poland had previously been ruled by two branches of the same dynasty. However, due to a confessional divide with Sweden embracing the Reformation and Poland heavily opposing it, Sweden broke away from that union in 1599 and winning the subsequent war. Denmark, which had become rich through its control of the Öresund (a straight in the Baltic Sea that was a primary trade route), had its own aspirations in the region and declared war on Sweden in 1611⁷. Denmark's victory in the "Kalmar War" in 1613 left it as the regional power of the Baltic Sea.

War Breaks Out

The Bohemian Revolt (1618-1620)

In the midst of this highly apprehensive situation, a succession crisis within the Holy Roman Empire came about. Emperor Matthias had no natural heirs and thus tried to have his dynastic heir Ferdinand (later Emperor Ferdinand II.) to not only inherit the imperial throne, but also the separate crowns of Bohemia and Hungary ⁸. Ferdinand, however, was known as devoted Catholic and thus faced opposition by the Protestant nobility of Bohemia. Although he managed to win the majority of the Bohemian electorate, upon sending two Catholic Counselor to administer the kingdom in his stead, they were promptly thrown out of the window in what became known as the Second Defenestration of Prague, sparking the Bohemian Revolt of 1618.

Other Protestant states quickly joined the rebellion, thus creating a more powerful Protestant Union. The electorate of the Palatinate Frederick V., ruler of a notable electoral state, joined the rebellion for he was promised the Bohemian crown in return of his support. They were also joined by many British volunteer regiments and in the east by the Prince of Transylvania with Ottoman support 9 . Many Protestant states, most notably Saxony, did not take up the Protestant cause. As a result, the Emperor, with the support of his Habsburg ally Spain, quickly defeated them. Although battles ensued until 1625, the war was essentially won in 1621, with Frederick V. being stripped of all titles and banned from the Holy Roman Empire and the Protestant Union disbanded.

Danish intervention (1625-1632)

This first portion of the war left the power balance between Protestant and Catholic states strongly in favour of the Catholic. This led Christian IV, the king of Denmark and duke of the German estate Holstein and a Protestant ruler having established himself as the primary power within the Baltic Sea,

⁹ J.P. Sommerville, "The Bohemian Crisis," History Department of University of Wisconsin-Madison, accessed June 21, 2016, https://faculty.history.wisc.edu/ sommerville/351/351-042.htm.



⁷ Cowley and Parker, "Thirty Years' War."

⁸ Hans Sturmberger, "Ferdinand II," Encyclopædia Britannica, accessed June 16, 2016, http://www.britannica.com/biography/Ferdinand-II-Holy-Roman-emperor.

to fear that the Catholic victory might threaten other Protestant states such as Denmark. In 1625, he relied on the monetary support of both France – although Catholic, was generally opposed to the Habsburg dynasty – and Great-Britain, – which he had maintained strong family ties with. With their assistance, he moved a "defensive" army of 35, 000 into Lower Saxony, prompting the "Low Saxon War". ¹⁰. In response, the emperor enlisted the help of the Bohemian nobleman, Albrecht von Wallenstein, who at the time already maintained an army much stronger than the Danish Invasion force. In return for Wallenstein's assistance, he was allowed to plunder any captured territories. Wallenstein guickly defeated the Danish army and captured Jütland.

Facing his catastrophic defeat, Christian IV. agreed to the Treaty of Lübeck in 1629, which allowed him to maintain control over all his provinces in return for not aiding any Protestant states within the empire. In the same year, Ferdinand II. also proclaimed the Restitution Edict, which returned any secularized Church holdings within Protestant estates to the Catholic Church ¹¹.

Swedish intervention (1630-1648)

Only a year later, the Northern German estates were once again invaded. This time by the Swedish king, Gustave Adolphus, making his landing through Pomerania. The Swedish invasion happened for the very same reasons as the Danish ones with many of the same supporters. This invasion too was prominently motivated by a security dilemma, were protestant States feared the growing influence and power of the Holy Roman Empire. Additionally, Adolphus used the power vacuum left after the Danish defeat to establish Sweden as the new great power in the Baltic Sea¹². Ferdinand II., having previously dismissed Wallenstein due to his lust for power, was forced to rely solely on the support by the Catholic League. The Catholic troops under leadership of Tilly lost battle after battle and the Swedish army continuously gained ground moving far into the south of the empire.

Only after Tilly was killed in battle in 1632, the emperor had once again enlisted Wallenstein's support. At the battle of Lützen between Wallenstein and the Swedish army, the Swedish were victorious, but at the casualty of Swedish king Adolphus ¹³. After this consequential loss, the Swedes proceed to lose ground. After another major loss in 1634, they started retreating out of Southern Germany. Using this changing tide, Ferdinand II. made peace with the Protestant powers within the Holy Roman Empire through the Peace of Prague in 1635. This peace treaty would delay the Restitution Edict by 40 years and guarantee that secularized bishoprics held in 1627 – which were essentially only those in the Northern part of the Empire – would be retained by their Protestant rulers. It also meant the creation of a unified imperial army to fight the ongoing war with Sweden. ¹⁴ Having started as a conflict between Protestant and Catholic rulers, with both Protestant and Catholic states within the empire now fighting on one side, it could now hardly be considered as a war over religion anymore.



¹⁰ Ronald G. Asch, The Thirty Years War: The Holy Roman Empire and Europe, 1618-48 (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1997), 112.

¹¹ lbid.

¹² Jennifer Meagher, "The Holy Roman Empire and the Habsburgs, 1400-1700," The Metropolitan Museum of Art, last modified October 2002, http://www.metmuseum.org/toah/hd/habs/hd_habs.htm. ¹³ lbid.

¹⁴ lbid.

French intervention (1634 - 1648)

As Imperial victory seemed imminent after the Peace of Prague, Cardinal Richelieu decided that it was time for France to stop participating merely as an indirect actor and to openly join the war. At first, this led to a catastrophic outcome for France as Spanish troops quickly invaded the country, coming close to seizing Paris itself in 1636. However, the situation stabilized with both sides gaining little ground for several years. Following 1640, the tides seemed to turn in favor of France. This was accompanied by two major rebellions in Spain within the same year in Portugal and Catalonia, both declared their independence from the Spanish Crown fueled by monetary support from France. For Sweden, the tide turned as well. After reorganizing, the Swedish army won the outnumbered battle of Wittstock in 1636, they started marching south once more.

Preparing the Peace Congress

In 1637, Emperor Ferdinand II. died. His successor, Ferdinand III., started to support the stance that a peace treaty agreed by all powers in order to end the war. As a result, negotiations toward a universal peace congress commenced, and eventually led to the preliminary agreements to the peace of Hamburg in 1641. In this document, it was decided that the peace congress should be conducted in the city of Münster and Osnabrück: one Catholic and one Protestant, both of which are in close proximity to each other. The two cities and the road connecting them were to be demilitarized and all envoys to the congress were guaranteed safe conduct¹⁶.

The Situation in 1641

The remaining powers of the war meet in Münster to find a completely novel solution to the war. Instead of winning the war on the battleground, they sought to find a solution through careful and thorough negotiations. At this point the war had not yet been halted but, it very much still ongoing: The Swedish army, that initially believed to be defeated, had gained ground retaking many possessions such as the lands of Saxony. This had prompted the Emperor to also invite a Swedish delegation to the negotiation table ¹⁷. At the same time, Denmark was preparing to join the war once again, only this time on the Imperial side against Sweden. The war between Spain and France was also still ongoing and although France appeared to be on the winning end, both sides had the opportunity claim major victories in future battles. Both states also faced unrest within their states. While Spain had to fight major independence movements, Cardinal Mazarin had to face both, the recent death of Louis XIII. and a new king, Louis XIV. of merely 5 years of age, and also a rising popular unrest over war taxation. Rumors of a coming uprising within France were spreading like wildfire ¹⁸.



¹⁵ Whaley, "The Holy Roman Empire: From Charlemagne to Napoleon."

¹⁶ Joachim Whaley, Germany and the Holy Roman Empire: Volume 1: Maximilian I to the Peace of Westphalia 1493-1648 (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012), 255.

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ lbid.

Key Topics

Topic 1: The Fight over Territories: Deciding the New Shape of the Holy Roman Empire

Arguably having less of permanent impact as the other topic, at the time of the peace negotiations the territorial redistribution through the peace treaty was probably the most contested and fought over. At the center of the negotiations stood the "satisfaction" of both the Swedish and the French crown and the question of how much the Holy Roman Empire would be willing to surrender in order to make peace through such satisfaction.

The Swedish Satisfaction

The Swedish demanded the permanent secession of *Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Wismar* and *the Island of Poel* as well as the Archbishopric of Bremen and Verden, which Sweden had recently taken over from Denmark. Interestingly, those claims did not mean a full secession from the Empire as Sweden desired these estates to remain Imperial fiefs. Thus, Sweden would become an Estate of the Empire with all the obligations and rights implied by this relation ¹⁹.

Whether all of these demands were genuine or meant as a strong position from which to compromise remains to be seen. Sweden at this point in the War is still in control of much of the Northern estates of the Empire and these demands are if not backed up by historic claims justified by their ongoing presence within these territories.

Contrarily, the Annexation of Pomerania has long been a goal of the Swedish Crown. This claim was contested by the House of Brandenburg, which after the death of the last native Duke of Pomerania, Borislav XIV, had acquired an indisputable right to the entirety of the duchy. This claim is supported by the majority of the Pomeranian Estates. Regardless, Sweden has been the occupier and de facto ruler of the duchy for the majority of the war contriving and insisting on its claim from this continued occupation ²⁰.

When considering this question, the delegates may yield the estates of Pomerania to either side, but might take into account the historical division of Pomerania into a Vor- and Hinterpommern (Western and Eastern Pomerania), which may be reinstated as a way of compromise between Sweden and Brandenburg. If Pomerania has to give up on their claims they will also likely demand compensation.

The bishoprics of Bremen and Verden, which Sweden had taken control of from their previous Danish occupant in 1643, would likely be secularized if given to Sweden. In the meantime, the

¹⁹ Theodore A., Dodge, *Gustavus Adolphus: A History of the Art of War*, (Houghton Mifflin, 1895) 23. ²⁰ Ibid.



burghers of Bremen have already applied to make the city of Bremen a free and imperial city which might have consequences on the Swedish control over it.

In addition of these territorial demands, Sweden, in contrast to most other war participants, also strongly demanded a "satisfaction of her militia" in the form of monetary compensations given to the Swedish officers and soldiers. The original demand for these is roughly equivalent to two Seventy Million Pounds today ²¹.

The French Satisfaction:

The French crown demanded control over the Bishoprics of Metz, Toul, Verdun as well as Upper and Lower Alsace and the fortresses of Breisach and Phillippsburg. The first few may be quite easily settled, as Metz, Toul and Verdun had been de facto controlled by France for over a hundred years ²².

The French claim on Alsace will likely be more complicated. France had held the position throughout the war that it was not making war against the Holy Roman Empire, but rather, against the Habsburg dynasty and particularly the House of Austria. This position, mainly taken in favor of the French ally Bavaria and the Spiritual Electors, remained a guiding principle for the peace negotiations. Consequently, any peace treaties formulated to satisfy France would have to come mainly at a cost of Austria.

When demanding the Austrian holdings within Alsace, the French diplomats presumptively expected the whole of Alsace was more or less under Austrian control. However, in reality, the Habsburg dynasty only had partial direct control of Alsace. The majority of the landgraviate of Upper Alsace was direct feudally subject to the Emperor. Within the landgraviate of Lower Alsace, however, Austria controlled only the Landvogt, who exercised authority over some 40 villages as well as the "ten free Imperial towns of Alsace." The majority of the nobility remained largely independent and the "landgraviate" became a merely titular holding of the bishop of Strasburg - who coincidentally did not even directly control the city of Strassburg - which was immediate to the Empire.

Thus, when the French diplomats demanded the secession of the "landgraviate of Upper and Lower Alsace" or the "landgraviate of both Alsaces," it demanded titles that Austria never truly held and had no title to. Within the peace negotiations, the actual implications of these demands should be considered

Alternatively, France might also hold the landgraviates of Upper and Lower Alsace as fiefs of the Holy Roman Empire. This construct would make France a vassal of the Empire, which at first sight might seem to be to the emperor's advantage, but in reality would mean a strong anti-Habsburg force within the Empire.

²² C.N., Trueman, "France and The Thirty Years War" (The History Learning Site, 2015) 19 July 2016



²¹ Ibid

Topic 2: The Rights of the Estates of the Empire

In the early 17th century, the constitution of the Holy Roman Empire and the overarching power of the Habsburg family, made the Holy Roman Emperor the single most influential individual in all of Europe. The Habsburg family had held this dynasty since 1438. Given the tremendous influence of the Holy Roman Emperor, "the king of kings", both the French and Swedish demands for peace addressed not only relations between the Empire and these two crowns, but also constitutional questions within the empire seeking to limit the emperor's powers ²³. While the emperor's envoys argued vehemently that these issues were better addressed at the next diet – without foreign interference –the inclusion of the estates of the empire into the negotiations meant that these issues needed to be addressed as well.

Delegates should therefore discuss the future relations between the emperor and the estates with regards to three distinct areas. Firstly, the powers of the estates and the empire within the estates' own territories, namely the ideas of self-determination and sovereignty. Secondly, the rights and duties of the estates towards the emperor and the empire, with specific focus on how much power the estates and the Imperial diet will hold with regards to Imperial matters. Thirdly, the rights of the estates towards other states and their ability to go into alliances and consequently to wage war independently from the emperor.

Territorial Sovereignty

Internal sovereignty, namely territorial sovereignty (exercise of power over all people within the territory), might have already been part of customary law, but was never laid down as positive law before. Here, envoys face the issue of what the empire within the German entities should be established. Moreover, though other nations are not directly affected by this, they will have an impact on future cooperation and negotiations in central Europe. The relationship between the Emperor and the imperial estates could be designed in various ways. Any possibility from the (modern) concept of a federal "state" to a loose connection between entities for the Holy Roman Empire is possible.

Right now, the relation is in favor of the emperor, as he holds the formal power over the entities. As previously stated, the rulers hold customary rights and are now eager to receive internal sovereignty over their entities. This could not only result in, but not limited to, either the rulers to follow through with their political goal or the Emperor enforcing his power over the entities in positive law. For example, could the sovereignty be split concerning issues (taxation, administration, imperial register etc.) or the entities could be organized in new (enlarged) imperial circles? Moreover, this needs to be connected to the topic of freedom of religion; will there be a sovereignty which covers this field as well? If and to what extend would the entities be independent from the emperor is one of the major questions the negotiations need to address.

²³ Ronald G. Asch, The Thirty Years War: The Holy Roman Empire and Europe, 1618-48 (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1997), 112.



Right to Alliance

Among the top demands of the two crowns was having rights of the estates, "to conclude any such alliance with a view to his own security, provided it was neither directed against the Emperor, the Empire or its Landfrieden, not against the conditions of the Peace of Westphalia itself." 28 This would mean that they would be allowed to practice foreign policy and diplomacy without any prior consent of the emperor, a striking affirmation of the estates' political independence and a signal that the empire resembled more closely a confederacy of states and not a fully integrated country.

More importantly, this would not only mean that they could go into diplomatic relations with foreign powers, but also that in order to fulfill their obligations towards their allies, they could wage war outside the empire independently from the empire itself.

Right to Co-Determination

The distribution of power regarding Imperial matters is a primary concern. The Imperial diet had traditionally played a primary role within the Imperial constitution meeting in irregular intervals to discuss the most important issues for the empire. However, their actual power was still quite limited and the Emperor was usually able to make many decisions at their own discretion, from minor changes in law or taxation to major issues. This became especially apparent in the course of the 30 years' war when the Emperor made several major decisions, from the Imperial ban on the Count Palatinate of the Rhine to the Edict of Restitution, which some even deemed as arbitrary.

Therefore, both, the Swedish and the French crown demanded that the Imperial estates would be granted a voting power through the Imperial diet in most or all Imperial matters. This includes, but not limited to, taxation and levies, new laws or their interpretation, questions of war and peace or new alliances. It is upon the delegates in Münster and Osnabrück to decide how far the power of the diet or the emperor will reach. It is utmost important for Imperial delegates to decide how much power they are willing to surrender for the sake of peace.



Committee Mechanics

Timeline

Although the negotiations for the Peace of Westphalia began in 1641, the time frame for our committee will start on December 1637 and end in October 1648. This specific time frame has been selected because prior to 1641, fighting still continued throughout much of Europe. This will give delegates the opportunity to move troops as they see fit, and use their respective powers to achieve their political goals.

Use of Electronic Devices

The use of electronic devices is not permitted during committee session. Delegates are encouraged to bring research notes. All working papers and directives must be hand written and submitted to the chair for approval. Delegates are advised to use the time allocated to unmoderated caucuses to personal directives or committee directives.

Rules of Procedure

For this particular committee the first committee session shall begin by the call to order followed by the roll call. During the roll call members of this committee must identify themselves as present. Delegates that arrive late must send a letter to the Dias informing them of their arrival.

Due to the fast-paced nature of crisis committees, debate will be run as a perpetual moderated caucus. Initially, the speaking time and topic will be set by the chair. Thereafter, delegates are welcome to motion for moderated caucuses with different speaking times and/or topics. Delegates must raise their placards and be called on in order to speak. Points and motions are allowed between speakers. Motions for unmoderated caucuses or other formats of debate are welcome and will be accepted at the discretion of the Dias. If there are no motions on the floor, then debate will return to a moderated caucus with no set topic. Delegates may pass notes amongst themselves or to the dais during committee, but are asked to refrain from speaking without being called on during a moderated caucus.

Moderated Caucus:

A moderated caucus is a semi-formal forum in which the general rules of debate are not suspended. A moderated caucus is primarily used when delegates wish to discuss a specific aspect of a certain topic. Delegates may motion for a moderated caucus. In their motion, delegates should determine the topic of their moderated caucus, the duration and speaking time of each delegate. Once the motion has been recognized by the Dias the committee shall proceed to vote on it, it requires a simple majority to pass. Once the motion has passed the delegate who proposed it may reserve the right to speak first or last. Motions will be voted based on an ascending order, from most disruptive to least disruptive. Note, the Dias may refuse to recognize a motion if they believe that it does not



serve the interest of the committee.

Unmoderated Caucus:

At any time, a delegate may move to have an unmoderated caucus. A time limit must be specified. At the discretion of the Moderator, this motion shall proceed to an immediate vote, requiring a simple majority to pass. The time limit is subject to the Moderator's approval and shall not exceed twenty minutes. During the caucusing session, formal rules are suspended, and members may discuss issues informally.

Directives

Within this committee, directives are used as a means of communication between committee members and the war room. Generally, directives are short and action-oriented policies adopted by a small number of delegates.

Personal Directives:

Personal directive informal declarations of the actions that a delegate takes, granted they have the ability to commit the actions they seek to undertake. Delegates may reserve the right to inform other delegates about their personal directive. Personal directives do not require the approval of the committee, however they all need to receive approval from both the war room and Dias. If two or more delegates wish undertake a certain directive, both delegates must sign the directive.

Committee Directives:

When the committee reaches consensus in regards to the action they deem necessary in response to the issues that are being discussed, they pass committee directives. Committee directives are very similar to resolutions, while they do not need to be sponsored, directives follow similar protocol as draft resolutions. They must be approved by the Chair before being introduced through a motion made from the floor. Directives can have a withdrawal of support. The sponsors of a directive may amend its clauses, and should notify the Dias in regards to any changes that they have made. Committee directives may not be amended once introduced. Committee directives require a two-thirds majority to pass.

Troop and Finance Management

Each delegation has a number of troops at their disposal, the number of troops allocated to each delegation will be based on historical estimates. The location of these troops will be displayed on the committee map at all times. The map indicates the whereabouts of each delegates army. A single army can consist of up to 10,000 soldiers. Each army will consist solely of infantry men. Delegates can use personal directives to mobilize their troops as they see fit. Troops can be mobilized as soon as the directive has been approved by both the Dias and the War Room. For simplicities sake, this committee will ignore geographical and physical obstacles within the European continent, the only factor that affects travel time shall distance. the time it takes to mobilize troops will be distance. Every



350kms that an army travels, will count as a single day. The War Room will keep track of troop movements and will notify a delegate once their army has arrived at the requested destination.

Although this committee is based on a military conflict, we do not wish military movements to be your primary focus. Instead, direct your attention towards addressing possible ways to resolve the given conflict.

In addition to troops delegates will be assigned financial assets based on historical records. This pool of money indicates each delegates overall economic capabilities. Money can be used as means of negotiating peace, and it can also be donated to other delegates. The duration a delegate's troops spend fighting in battles will assert additional costs. Delegates who liquidize all their financial assets will lose their voting power in the committee. Delegates may purchase additional troops (which will act as mercenaries) from the war room, the price of troops fluctuate through various committee sessions, and will be announced by the war room upon the request of the delegates. Troops may be purchased via a written personal directive.

Delegates will also have access to natural resources, which will act as their main source of revenue for the nation they represent. The committee will only recognize three types of resources: Gold, Silver, and Iron. In this committee each resource will have the same equal value. Resources will be distributed based on each state's respective GDP in the 17^{th} century. The source (mines) of each delegate's resources will be displayed on the committee map, alongside all mobilized troops. The source of each resource will generate an output of 15,000,00 international dollars. Delegates may obtain another delegate's resources through trade, diplomatic means or through military conquest. Note that delegates may not lend or sell portions of the resources at their disposal, they may only sell the source of the resource itself.

Rules of Military Engagement

This committee shall enforce certain rules of military engagement:

1.1.1 Combat

When two armies of equal strength, meaning two armies with the <u>exact number of troops</u>, engage in combat the outcome will be decided through a coin toss. The War Room will conduct the coin toss, and inform the committee of the outcomes of that specific battle.

1.1.2 When two armies of uneven strength engage in combat, the army with the greater number of troops will be the successor of the battle. The defeated army will lose all of their troops, and the victor will subtract the total number of troops of their opponent from their own army. For example, consider a war between Country X & Country Y. Both states have several armies at their disposal. Imagine that two of these armies confront each other in battle. Let's assume X's army consists of 500 soldiers & Y's army consist of 800 soldiers. In this scenario County X will lose the battle, and their army, while Country Y will win the battle, and have 300 remaining soldiers in that army.



1.2 Conquest of Cities

Delegates have the opportunity to conquer cities that have been recognized on the committee map. A minimum of 2500 troops is required in order to attempt to besiege a city, if no existing troops are stationed at the city. In order to attempt to conquer a city, a delegate must send a personal directive to the chair to notify them of their intentions. Upon the chairs approval the delegate's troops may encircle their target city. Delegates must offer their opponent the right to surrender, and the right to a diplomatic solution.

If delegates are unable to agree on an alternative outcome, the assaulting delegate may proceed to attempt to conquer the city. Since all cities are fortified with range units, they offer a base resistance to fend off invaders. Thus, an army attempting to invade a city will automatically lose 1000 soldiers in their attempt to siege.

If troops are stationed within the city, the outcome of the siege will be determined by the number of troops. Since each city offers a base resistance of 1000, delegate must take into consideration that they will need an additional 1000 units, if they wish to have the opportunity to determine the outcome of the battle through a coin toss. If the army of an invading delegate significantly surpasses the number of unit stationed in the city, the invading delegate will subtract the total number of troops stationed from their army.

1.3 Conquest of Resource

In addition to cities delegates may also try to conquer areas for strategic resources. Delegates wishing to increase their national income or decrease the rival of a rival delegate have the ability to use their troops to take control of the source of strategic resources. A minimum of 500 troops are required in order to attempt to take over the source of a strategic resource. Delegates must send a personal directive to the Dias, and obtain their approval. Resource sites do not offer any base resistance. If troops are stationed within, the previously mentioned rules of combat shall be enforced.

1.4 Peace & Diplomacy

All formal negotiations between delegates, in the form of personal directives, which have been approved by the chair are legally binding. Delegates who violate ratified negotiations may face financial penalties. The chair will determine the amount of the monetary reparations, this decision may not be amended.

Once a proposal for peace has been agreed upon by two warring states, via a personal or committee directive, they are bound to keep the terms of their agreement until the agreed upon date. Thus they may not engage in war with each other, once they have made peace.

*Please note that if you have any further questions regarding the structure of the committee do not hesitate to contact the chair directly. Additionally, a short period of time will be allocated to discuss any concerns regarding the above mentioned procedures, prior to the beginning of the first committee session. *



Character List

Moderators:

Alvise Contarini

A renowned politician in the Venetian Republic. He began his practice in 1618, and worked in the Grad Council of the Republic in 1922. He served as the ambassador to the Dutch Republic, England and France. Having such an outstanding experience as a diplomat, he was sent to the congresses of Munste and Osnabrück as a mediator. He spent eight years trying to broker a series of peace treaties between the warring parties²⁴.

Fabio Chigi (Pope Alexander VII)

A bishop of the Catholic church and the Apostolic Nunciature to Cologne. At the time of the conference was appointed as the secretary of State for the Vatican. He was sent to participate in the negotiations as both a mediator and a papal representative. He became Cardinal in 1651, and Pope Alexander VII in 1655 ²⁵.

Electorate of Cologne:

Franz Wilhelm Count von Wartenberg

Between 1621 - 1625, Wilhelm was the manager of foreign affairs of the Elector Ferdinand of Cologne. In 1626, he was appointed as the Catholic Bishop of Osnabrück. He was chosen Prince-Bishop of Verden in 1630 and Bishop of Minden in 1631. As one of the representatives of the Holy Roman Empire and the Papacy in Cologne, his main motives were to ensure that the electorate would stay under the control of the Empire and the Catholic church. In the negotiations, he sought to ensure that Cologne would never again be occupied by Swedish forces and to ensure the electorate's security from aggressor states, such as France and the Dutch Republic. In addition, Wilhelm was responsible for showcasing the "proper" relationship between electorates and the Empire. As a result he did not advecate for the rights to see determination and right to

and the Empire. As a result, he did not advocate for the rights to co-determination and right to alliances, because he believed that electorates were mere extensions of the Empire, and that the emperor should have total authority within all their estates.

French Delegation:

Henri II d'Orléans, Duke of Longueville

Henri II was one of France's most distinguished nobles. He was a legitimate prince with major claim to the throne of France. He served as the governor of both Picardy and Normandy. Henri II like many other French nobles sought to reduce the power and influence of Habsburg family. Therefore, he was as one of the main antagonist of the Holy Roman Empire, and was determined to weaken the Holy

²⁶ "The Thirty Years' War and Its Aftermath," Arts and Humanities Through the Eras. Ed. Edward Bleiberg, Vol. 5, (Detroit: Gale, 2005) Gale Virtual Reference Library.



²⁴ Thomas Munck, "The Thirty Years' War in German Lands," *Seventeenth-century Europe: State, Conflict, and the Social Order in Europe,* 1598-1700, (Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 2005) 1. ²⁵ Ibid.

Roman Emperor's influence within Europe ²⁷. The Holy Roman Emperor was considered to be the most powerful individual in all of Europe, therefore limiting his power would subsequently result in the weakening of the Empire as a whole.

The right to co-determination and sovereignty had often been very hot topics in the Holy Roman Empire. For many years' protestant estates, diets and electorates sought to obtain these rights, but the emperor would often refuse such demands, because they would have decrease his overall influence. Though now that the Empire has been caught up with such a costly war, perhaps the emperor would be more willing to satisfy such demands to ensure the longevity of his empire.

Abel Servien

Abel was a well-established French diplomat who served the French State. He was renowned to be exceptionally gifted at negotiating peace treaties. Prior to the Peace of Westphalia, he negotiated boundary deputes between France and Spain, the peace treaty of the War of the Mantuan Succession, the Treaty of Cherasco and the Treaties with Duke of Savoy. Abel was chosen as a representative of France by the Chief Minister of the King of France. His primary motives were to establish a set of peace treaties that would empower France in the long run. He wanted to obtain all of France's territorial demands, because they seemed to be the only means of rationalizing the French intervention, and the cost of the War.

Furthermore, in order to empower France, he had to find ways to weaken all states and groups that would oppose the state's power and influence. Thus they strongly advocated for the right to sovereignty and alliance because it would allow to support dissatisfied estates and electoral. Through this approach they sought to disempower the Holy Roman Empire, who at the time, was one of Frances greatest rivals.

28

Hanseatic League

Gerhard Coccejus

Coccejus was one of the councilor of Bremen . He was chosen to be one of the envoys present at the Peace of Westphalia. Within these peace negotiations, he represented the Hanseatic League, a confederation of merchant cities and trade guilds. His main objective during the conference was to ensure the security of Hanseatic League's diplomatic and economic interests. Prior to the turn of the 17^{th} century the league had significant influence in European affairs, though their power and influence was beginning to dissolve due to internal conflicts. Thus as the representative of the league, Coccejus took a neutral approach to the conflict, often siding with states or empire which offered the best economic and political opportunities 29 .

Given the Hanseatic leagues somewhat neutral stance towards the war, they often took a bipartisan approach to the question of what rights out to be granted to an estate or diet. Although they would prefer for estates to have the right to co-determination, the right to sovereignty and the right to alliances, they would not oppose states against such demands, especially those who supported them economically and or militarily.

²⁹ Benedict, Shaplin, *The emergence of the Hanseatic League* (University of Stockholm Press, 2008). 12, 102-109.



²⁷ C.N., Trueman, "France and The Thirty Years War" (The History Learning Site, 2015) 19 Jul 2016 lbid.

Holy Roman Empire:

Count Maximilian von Trautmansdorff

Count Maximilian, was a well-known Austrian politician, who served under the orders of Emperor Ferdinand II and Emperor Ferdinand III. During the time of the Peace of Westphalia he was the acting Prime Minister of the Holy Roman Empire. As one of the representatives of the Holy Roman Empire he sought to maintain the power and influence of the emperor. At the conference his main objectives were to further strengthen ties between Spain and the Holy Roman Empire, and to dissolve the influence of France.

In addition, he was determined to establish peace because he understood that the war had led to significant social, political and economic problems within the Empire. He opted to ensure the powers of the emperor, and as result was opposed to any demands towards measures which sought to alter the emperor's authority. Though this being said, he believed the territorial demands made by Sweden and France were negotiable ³⁰.

Isaak Volmar

Volmar who was known as the Baron of the Vineyards, was also an imperial envoy at the Peace of Westphalia, sent by Emperor Ferdinand III. During the Thirty Years' War he acted as the Chancellor of Alsace. As Chancellor of Alsace he grew a distaste towards the French Empire and their influence within Europe. He was known as one of the main rivals of Cardinal Richelieu, who was rumored to be manipulating the French King. As the representative of the Holy Roman Empire his goal was to maintain the Empire's boundaries, especially the region of Alsace and the Swiss territories. Unlike his counterpart he did not believe in the peace process, and instead was determined to achieve his goals through force³¹.

Isaak like many other nobles of the Empire believed that no compromise should be made towards the demands of other states. They believe that any sign of compromise was a sign of weakness, and was thus strongly opposed to any possible negotiations on territorial changes or changes to the power of the emperor. Instead he advocated for returning to pre-war conditions.

Principality of Kalenberg:

Jakob Lampadius

Lampadius was considered one of the ablest constitutional lawyers of his time, and was well respected by the Protestant League. He acquired outstanding experience as a diplomat in his roles as the assessor at the Imperial Court in Speyer. During the Thirty Years' War he acted as the representative and advisor to both Duke George of Brunswick-Kalanberg and the Chancellor of Venice. During the Peace of Westphalia, he was considered to be the main spokesman for other protestant states and electorates. He sought to achieve the right to co-determination for protestant states. Furthermore, he attempted to insure the rights of protestants throughout Europe, through advocating for the right from arbitrary arrest, on the basis of religious beliefs. Since the Protestant

 $^{^{30}}$ Ronald G. Asch, The Thirty Years War: The Holy Roman Empire and Europe, 1618-48 (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1997), 97





League and the Principality of Kalenberg received the majority of their support from France, Lampadius also sought to secure this alliance ³².

Republic of the Seven United Netherlands (Dutch republic):

Willem Ripperda

Ripperda was the Lord of Hengelo, Boekelo, Boxbergen, Rijsenburg and Solmsburg. He was a descendant of the Ripperda family, a great noble house of the Dutch Republic. He served as a military commander in the continuation of the Dutch Revolt of 1621. In 1630 he was appointed as the Prince of Overijssel by the States General of Netherlands. During the Peace of Westphalia, his main objective was to have the Republic of Netherlands recognized as a legitimate state, with the right to sovereignty. Ripperda was also determined to have the Republic of Netherlands recognized by both Spain and Netherlands, for this would ensure their right to sovereignty and would offer them some form of security against possible aggressors in the future ³³.

Adriaan Pauw

Pauw was a successful merchant from Amsterdam. By 1620 he had acuminate a considerable amount of wealth allowing him to purchase the town of Heemstede, and was known as the Lord of Heemstede. Later in political career he became the mayor of Amsterdam, and in 1631 was appointed the Grand Pensionary of the Republic of Netherlands. This was the most significant position within the entire Republic for it allowed Pauw to exercise a significant amount of power. Being such a successful merchant Pauw was very strongly concerned with the economic conditions that would unfold after the war. He wished to establish the Dutch Republic as an ally and economic partner of Spain, because he believed that both states could prosper from such an arrangement. Furthermore, he believed that an economic alliance with Spain would ensure both the legitimacy and protection of the Dutch Republic. However such an alliance would be hard to establish because many Spaniards refused to recognize the Dutch Republic as a legitimate and independent state ³⁴.

Spanish Empire:

Gaspar de Bracamonte y Guzmán

A Spanish diplomat and statesman. King Philip IV of Spain had sent Bracamote to ensure the protection of Spanish interests. Throughout the duration of the war, the Spanish Empire lost a considerable amount of territory in Europe. They were considered to be spread too thin, as they also faced resistance within their colonies in South and North America. Bracamote was thus responsible in trying to limit the territories and power of the newly established Dutch Republic. In order to do so Bracamote sought to isolate the Dutch Republic both economically and politically. It was a common belief in Spain that these territories were a God-given right of the Spanish King. Thus through isolation Bracamote wanted to weaken the Dutch Republic, in order to make them more vulnerable to a future invasion ³⁵.

Bernardino de Rebolledo



³² Steven, Shubert, *The Electoral College of the Holy Roman Empire* (Mashingo Press, 1985), 57-64.

³³ The Dutch Revolt (Historepida.com, 2010), July 27th 2016

³⁴ lbid.

³⁵ lbid.

Bernardino was a Spanish diplomat, a soldier, and a poet. He came from a prominent noble house of Spain, who had close ties with the Habsburg family. Given the close family ties, it is not surprising to understand that he was fiercely loyal towards them. During the Thirty Years' War, he was a Chief of a Spanish army division. As one of the Spanish representatives at the peace negotiations, he sought to ensure the power of the Habsburg dynasty within central Europe. Since the Protestant League was one of the most prominent adversaries of the Habsburg dynasty, who were viewed as malefactors of the word of God, Rebolledo was determined to disenfranchise their cause and wanted to take away all privileges and rights that they had received in the past. He also believed in weakening all anti-Habsburg states, to ensure a long-term peace ³⁶.

Swiss Confederacy:

Johann Rudolf Wettstein

A well-known figure in Swiss history, Johann is best known for his role as the Swiss diplomat at the Peace of Westphalia. Interestingly, he was not invited to the Peace talks but rather forcefully intruded in order to obtain the political goals of the Swiss Confederacy. At the conference he wanted to establish the sovereignty and security of the Swiss Confederacy. Many at the time believed that the Holy Roman Empire was a constant threat to the Swiss Confederacy, so long as they refused to view them as a legitimate state. Thus Wettstein wanted to legitimize Swiss Independence by relying on their alliances, whom had significantly more political and economic power. During the war the confederacy had formed a strong alliance with France, and thus wanted to further strengthen this alliance. In order to do so they too fought for the demands of the French Kingdom ³⁷.

Swedish Kingdom:

Johan Axelsson Oxenstierna

The Oxenstierna's were one of Sweden's most powerful noble houses. As a result of his family's reputation Johan had received various political titles. In 1635 he served under his brother-in-law in the Thirty Years War. He was sent to Osnabrück as Swedish representative. Johan was considered to be the executor of his father's actions, who was the High Chancellor of Sweden at the time. He was mainly concerned with establishing Sweden as the predominant power in the Baltic region, through obtaining key territories and reducing the influence of the Holy Roman Empire. Johan believed that through obtaining the demanded territories, Sweden would be able to establish itself as the major economic and political power of the European continent.

In addition to the territorial demands Johan, wanted all protestant estates and electorates to obtain the right to alliances and the right to self-determination. Like many other leaders, the Swedish Kingdom sought to use religion as a political tool to obtain their political agendas. Thus by supporting the demands of protestants, they could gradually expand their influence ³⁸.

Johan Adler Salvius

Salvius was a the Chancellor of the Swedish Queen, Christina and a baron of Örneholm, a position he had held since 1624. During the Thirty Years' War he served as an advisor to Gustav Adolphus,

³⁸ Theodore A., Dodge, *Gustavus Adolphus: A History of the Art of War*, (Houghton Mifflin, 1895) 34.



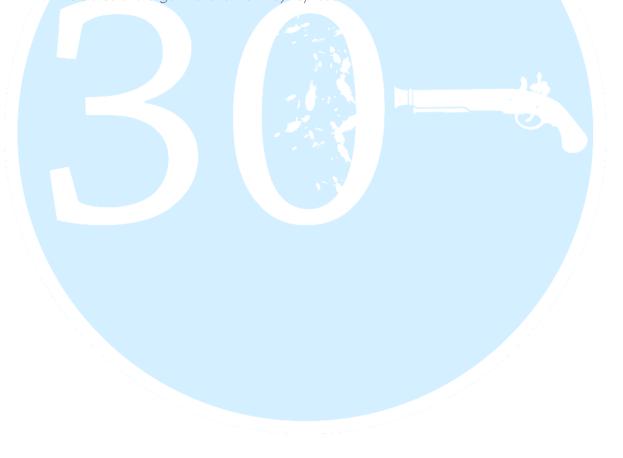
³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Ronald G. Asch, The Thirty Years War: The Holy Roman Empire and Europe, 1618-48 (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1997), 125.

King of Sweden. He was involved in the Peace of Lübeck. From 1930 to 1934 he served as the General War Commissioner of Lower Saxony. Contrary to his counterpart, Slavius was aiming to achieve peace at any cost, just as he had been instructed by Queen Christina. Although he would like to have obtained all the territorial demands, he was more concerned with economic and political impacts of the War. The length and devastation of the War had made the Adolphus family very unpopular, thus Salvius was determined to obtain the most effective and long-lasting peace agreement.

The territorial demands of the state came second to more fundamental demands such as the right to codetermination, right to alliances and right to territorial sovereignty, because these demands ensured peace and prosperity in the long-run ³⁹

* Please note that these character biographies provide sufficient knowledge on each delegates character. Delegates may wish to further research their characters, however, this is not required. Instead delegates are tasked with researching the political agenda and stance of the states and organizations that they represent.





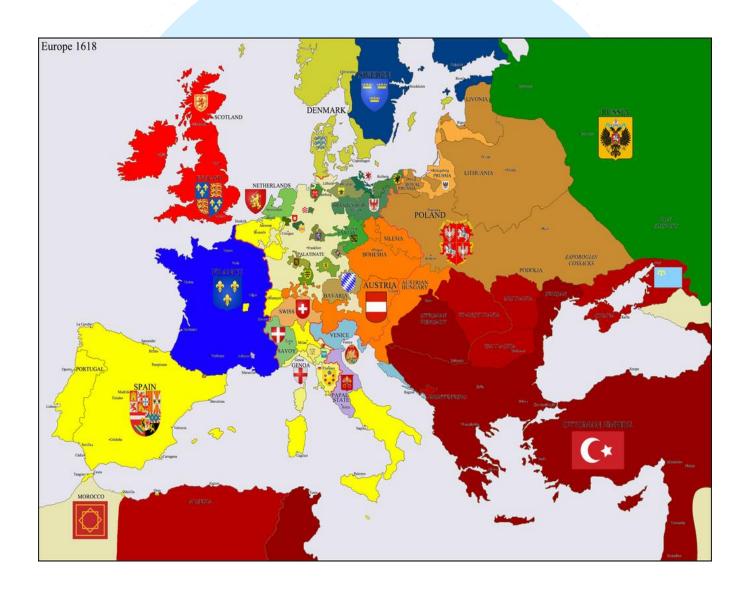


Committee Maps

Map#1: Map of Europe in 1618

Source: Hillfighter, "Map of Europe in 1618,"

http://img15.deviantart.net/cd68/i/2010/357/0/b/europe_1618_by_hillfighter-d33r3ps.png





Work Cited

Chris Trueman, "Thirty Years' War." http://www.historylearningsite.co.uk/30YW_western_europe.htm

Durant, Will. The Reformation; A history of European civilization from Wyclif to Calvin: 1300 - 1564. The Story of Civilization, Part VI. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1957.

E. Reich, editor. Excerpts from the text of the Peace of Augsburg. http://pages.uoregon.edu/sshoemak/323/texts/augsburg.htm

Hans Sturmberger, "Ferdinand II," Encyclopædia Britannica, accessed June 16, 2016, http://www.britannica.com/biography/Ferdinand-II-Holy-Roman-emperor.

Henry Kamen, "The Economic and Social Consequences of the Thirty Years' War," Past and Present 39 (1968): 44

Jennifer Meagher, "The Holy Roman Empire and the Habsburgs, 1400-1700," The Metropolitan Museum of Art, last modified October 2002, http://www.metmuseum.org/toah/hd/habs/hd habs.htm.

J.P. Sommerville, "The Bohemian Crisis," History Department of University of Wisconsin-Madison, accessed June 21, 2016, https://faculty.history.wisc.edu/ sommerville/351/351-042.htm.

Joachim Whaley, Germany and the Holy Roman Empire: Volume 1: Maximilian I to the Peace of Westphalia 1493-1648 (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2012), 255.

Parker, Geoffrey, ed. The Thirty Year's War. London: Routledge, 1997. Print.

Peter H. Wilson. "The Causes of the Thirty Years' War," English Historical Review. http://ehr.oxfordjournals.org/content/CXXIII/502/554.abstract

Ronald G. Asch, The Thirty Years War: The Holy Roman Empire and Europe, 1618-48 (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1997), 112.

