

JCC

Study Guide

The Great Northern War

TROYMUN VIII

28-30 November 2025

ÇANAKKALE TROY MODEL UNITED NATIONS



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Letter from the Secretary General

Highly Esteemed Delegates, First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude for your interest and enthusiasm regarding our conference. My name is Yaren Keçili, and I have the honour of serving as your secretary-general for the 8th edition of the Troy Model United Nations Conference this year. I embrace this role with immense appreciation. Similar to previous years, we have dedicated our efforts to creating a range of engaging and diverse committees for your benefit. We take great pride in the work we have prepared for you and sincerely hope that you will find it beneficial as well. Both the academic and operations teams have been working very hard to serve you to the best of their abilities and give you an unforgettable experience. I wish to show my gratitude to the chair board and Nuri Öztunç, who is going to serve as your Under-Secretary-General. All my teammates made great efforts in the process leading up to the conference. Hence, they need all the praise for their hard work. I trust that all our delegates will engage in enlightening discussions throughout the three days they are with us, cultivate creative solutions to global challenges, be at the forefront of diplomacy and academia, and enjoy the experience in the process. Once again, I would like to welcome you all to both the conference and the committee. Buckle up and get ready because we have prepared an incredible ride for you. Yours Sincerely, Yaren

Keçili, Secretary-General of Troy Model United Nations 2025

Letter from the Under Secretary General

Hi guys,

I proudly present to you the most exciting and the hardest committee of TroyMUN'25 – don't listen to others. Get ready for the time of your life with the Great Northern War. We worked very hard to make this committee available for you guys. When we adjourn this committee, we are sure that we will see smiles of happiness, excitement, and being proud of hard work.

If there are any crisis first-timers among you, crisis committees are very different from the classic General Assembly committees. You will feel as if you're in a role-playing game. Commanding soldiers, doing real diplomacy; you will have the opportunity to truly change the course of the future of the committee.

Let's see what the future holds for us.

If you have any prior questions, I'm available at the email address down below.

→ nr.oztnc@gmail.com ←

Nuri Öztunç

Letter from the Head of Crisis

Fellow Delegates,

All of you should be very honoured to be in this committee. Because this committee is the most enjoyable and educational of them all. When I was about to attend my first crisis committee, I was very anxious and didn't know what to do. But it went as easily as discussing with people. There is no difference between discussions and this committee other than formal stuff. This year's discussion topic is the Great Northern War. We thought it would be a magnificent topic to work on. Also special thanks to our secretary general, Yaren Keçili; under secretary general, Nuri Öztunç; and the crisis team, who also contributed to this study guide.

As you're reading this guide, you should ask yourself what preparations you should take before TroyMUN'25 and why. First of all, this guide doesn't include all the things you should know. You have to pursue the topic from top to bottom before you come. Also, you could be thinking, 'Why would I waste my precious energy to study for this easy topic?' and you would be so so wrong because there is always more to learn which you could use to empower all your despicable and devious plans. While working hard, remember to always try to have fun and don't frown. :3

Poyraz Karaman

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What is a JCC and how does it work?

A Joint Crisis Committee usually comprises two groups of delegates/representatives in separate rooms, debating the same, perpetual crisis.

Typically these factions have opposing positions in the crisis and either try to dominate the other side or seek common ground. As a rule, there are no boundaries to a faction's course of action, besides having to remain realistic.

The crisis is presented to the delegates, who can react to it in the form of directives, short one-clause resolutions. These directives influence the outplay of the scenario. Directives will be further explained in the rules of procedure, but here is an example:

“Public Directive: US Blockade of Cuba

The US hereby decides that the 3rd carrier strike group shall blockade any shipping bound for Cuba, by all means necessary.

- US Secretary of Defense”

If this directive is submitted, the crisis will change accordingly and will develop.

Your chairs will act like a delegate whenever it's necessary. More about it in the workshop.

Crisis Updates:

Throughout a crisis session there will be multiple spontaneous crisis updates given by the crisis team. These include the latest developments of the crisis at hand, as well as the results and repercussions of submitted directives.

As an example:

“Crisis Update No. X October 30th 1962

The reconnaissance plane (sent out in the previous directive) has spotted a soviet submarine near the coast of Florida.

Public opinion of JFK is at an all-time low, due to inaction in the face of the crisis...”

Events:

The scenario's outplay is also affected by random events, such as natural disasters, leaks, other countries' actions, and so on...

Intelligence:

Having more knowledge than the opposing faction is key in facing the crisis. E.g. The reconnaissance planes' findings (from the example above) are not known to the opposing faction (they don't know their submarine has been spotted). Directives can involve intelligence actions, e.g. spy operations, but are at risk of detection.

Procedure of debate: The debate in this JCC will be held in the following two ways most of the time:

1. **Unmoderated Caucus:** Unmoderated caucuses in JCC will function identically to those found in conventional Model UN committees: they will serve as informal periods of debate where delegates can physically move across the committee room to approach fellow delegates in colloquial conversation.

2. **Semi-Moderated Caucus:** Semi-moderated caucuses in JCC will function identically to those found in conventional Model UN committees: they will serve as debate periods when the delegates cannot physically move across the committee room but rise to talk without interrupting other delegates.

3. **Freeze Time:** These directive breaks are short recesses in which the crisis team will be given the opportunity to confer and process directives. While directives are being processed by the staff, delegates are encouraged to engage in colloquial debate without leaving their respective seats in the committee room and not writing more directives until the freeze time is over.

Directives

This JCC involves two types of directives:

1. Private Directives:

- A. A private directive can be issued by any delegate and involves actions that are to be taken by assets or institutions under his jurisdiction. E.g. The Prime Minister of Italy may issue a private directive to his intelligence agency to observe/infiltrate a specific place or institution, but he cannot issue a private directive commanding UN Peacekeepers, as those are not under his jurisdiction.
- B. A private directive can be issued without informing other members of the faction.
- C. The outcome of a private directive will be decided by the crisis team and the submitter will be given notice individually.

2. Public Directives:

- A. A public directive can be issued by any delegate and involves actions that are to be taken by any assets or institutions under the entire block's jurisdiction. E.g. The Sec. The General of the USSR may issue a public directive to move troops of the Warsaw Pact from place A to place B.

B. Some public directives have to be submitted, proposed to the committee in a speech, and voted on and passed by a simple majority of all members of the faction. Others do not necessarily need a proposal nor voting but all public directives will be examined by the chairboard. Without an approval from the chairboard, a public directive can not be sent.

C. The outcome of a public directive will be decided by the crisis team and the entire faction will be given notice through the next crisis update.

Where to go now?

While the study guide provides much of the knowledge you need to move forward in the committee, we strongly advise you to conduct further research on your roles and delve deeper into the historical contexts in order to fully participate in your committee. It will be worthwhile, we assure you—obviously, to dominate the opposing side!

We will brief you on the process and the subject during the workshop that kicks off the conference. Keep in mind that having prior knowledge will set you apart from other delegates so research more about this topic and read our guide. Also, information in this guide contains events that occur after the committee's start date.

The Swedish Empire

The Swedish Empire's Situation Before the Great Northern War

In 1700, the Swedish Empire was one of the most powerful states in Europe. It controlled large areas around the Baltic Sea, including Finland, Estonia, and parts of northern Germany. With a strong army and navy, Sweden was often called the “Master of the Baltic”.

However, the empire faced serious challenges. Its economy relied mostly on agriculture, and its population was small. Long wars were expensive, and heavy taxes put pressure on the people. Neighbouring countries like Denmark-Norway, Poland-Saxony, and Russia were unhappy with Sweden's dominance. When the young and inexperienced Charles XII became king, they saw an opportunity to strike. Their attack in 1700 began the Great Northern War, which would eventually bring an end to Sweden's position as a major European power.

The Reason Why the Swedish Empire Got in the War

In 1700, several countries decided to go to war against Sweden because they wanted to break its power in the Baltic region. For many years, Sweden had controlled important lands and trade routes around the Baltic Sea, which made other countries feel threatened.

Denmark-Norway wanted to take back lost territory and stop Swedish influence in Scandinavia. Poland-Saxony, led by King Augustus II, wanted to regain Livonia, a region Sweden had taken earlier. Russia, under Tsar Peter the Great, wanted access to the Baltic Sea to build a strong navy and open trade with Europe.

These three countries saw a chance to attack when Sweden's young king, Charles XII, came to the throne. They believed he would not be able to defend the empire. So in 1700,

Denmark, Poland-Saxony, and Russia formed an alliance and launched a surprise attack. This was the start of the Great Northern War, a long conflict aimed at ending Sweden's power in Northern Europe.

Breakthrough of the Great Northern War

The Poltava war. This battle marked a major turning point in the war and began the collapse of Swedish power.

Before Poltava, King Charles XII had led a bold invasion into Russia, hoping to defeat Tsar Peter the Great with the help of Cossacks. However, the campaign faced serious problems. The Swedish army was far from home, had limited supplies, and suffered through a very harsh winter in 1708–1709. Many soldiers died from cold, hunger, and disease.

When the Swedish army finally reached Poltava in Ukraine, it was much weaker than before. On June 28, 1709, the Russian army, now modern and well-trained thanks to Peter's reforms, defeated the Swedes in a large and decisive battle. Over 10,000 Swedish soldiers were killed, wounded, or captured, and Charles XII was forced to flee to the Ottoman Empire.

After Poltava, Sweden could no longer fight effectively. It lost the military advantage and was pushed back on many fronts. The defeat at Poltava showed that Sweden's era as a great power was ending and that Russia was rising as the new dominant force in northern Europe.

Situations of Denmark and Norway in the War

During the Great Northern War (1700–1721), Denmark and Norway were part of the alliance against Sweden. In the beginning, Denmark wanted to take back old lands that Sweden had taken before. These lands were in southern Sweden, like Skåne and other areas near Denmark.

Later, Denmark and Norway joined the war again with Russia and Poland. Their navy was strong. They fought battles at sea against the Swedish navy. Norway also defended its land from Swedish attacks.

The navy of Denmark-Norway was very strong. They fought many battles on the sea against the Swedish navy. Norway also played an important role. It defended its own land when Sweden tried to attack.

One of the most important things Denmark-Norway did was to support Russia and Poland with ships and soldiers. Their actions made Sweden lose power step by step.

At the end of the war in 1721, Sweden lost its status as a great empire. Denmark and Norway became safer in the north, and their position in Europe was stronger than before.

The Kingdom of Prussia

The Prussians were still a secondary power at the time, but their participation in the Great Northern War transformed their country into a significant regional power. The Duchy of Prussia originated in 1525 from the former State of the Teutonic Order: in that year the knights became Lutheran Protestants and completely secularised their state. Formally, Prussia was a vassal state of Poland. The Duchy was ruled by the Hohenzollern family, whose members already controlled the Margraviate of Brandenburg (a German state centred on Berlin). In 1701 Frederick I Hohenzollern, grandfather of Frederick the Great, elevated Brandenburg-Prussia from duchy to kingdom thanks to his alliances with the Holy Roman Empire and Poland. The military reforms that were made during the Great Northern War transformed the Prussian Army into one of the best in Europe, capable of fighting in the Baltic area as well as in the War of Spanish Succession.

Prussia at War

Prussia entered the Great Northern War in March 1715; prior to this, much of the Prussian army had been involved in various theatres of the War of Spanish Succession. Although their direct involvement dates to March 1715; there had been an uneasy peace between Sweden and Prussia since the capture of Stettin in September 1713 by the Russians. Menshikov, one of the Russian commanders, had succeeded in capturing this Swedish fortress. It was then handed over to the Prussians, understandably causing many questions in Stockholm. There then followed an uneasy period in Prusso-Swedish relations before war broke out, following the conclusion of the War of Spanish Succession.

Prussia's main aim during the war was to clear Swedish forces from their remaining strongholds in Germany. The Prussians were part of the Allied force which besieged Stralsund between July 1715 and its surrender in December 1715 and also Wismar between March and April 1716. During the siege of Stralsund an Allied force, including Prussian troops, invaded the island of Rügen. This was vital to the Swedish war effort, as it was the only supply route to besieged Stralsund. This invasion led to the Battle of Stresow, in which the Swedes tried unsuccessfully to halt the Allied occupation of Rügen.

Wismar was the last Swedish possession in Germany. With its fall Prussia's role in the Great Northern War was over to all intents. Although it took until January 1720 before a formal peace treaty, giving Prussia control of Stettin, was signed between Sweden and Prussia.

Prussian Foreign Affairs

Holy Roman Empire

Despite being an electorate, Brandenburg had its own military and diplomatic forces and was just as devoted to the emperor until 1701.

Sweden

Sweden had competitive relations with Prussia because it controlled the Baltic Sea and had territories in Pomerania.

The Free State of Saxony and the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth

Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth in the Great Northern War:

The Great Northern War appears to be a struggle between Russia, Denmark-Norway, and Saxony. But the Polish-Lithuanian union is also involved. One of the most important reasons

for this was that Augustus II, Elector of Saxony, was also King of Poland. Saxony's participation in the war against Sweden also drew the Commonwealth into the picture.

When the war began in 1700, the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth was already politically weak. Augustus II wanted to use the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth to strengthen his own dynasty, which provoked reactions both within his country and abroad.

In 1701, King Charles XII of Sweden declared war on Poland.

Sweden, collaborating with internal dissidents, proclaimed Stanislaw Leszczynski as king. The Commonwealth was therefore divided into two kingdoms, one ruled by Augustus II, the other by Leszczynski.

This period had officially become a combination of civil war and foreign occupation. With Charles' declaration of war in 1701 and his rapid advance, Augustus II came under strong pressure. With the Treaty of Altranstad in 1706, Augustus was forced to abdicate the Polish throne. Leszczynski became king with Swedish support.

Sweden suffered a heavy defeat at the Battle of Poltava in 1709. As a result, Leszczynski's power collapsed, and Augustus II returned to the Battle of Poltava. But the Commonwealth was greatly weakened by the devastation of the war, constant foreign intervention, and civil

war.

As a result

The Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth did not become a winner or a loser at the end of the war. But the Commonwealth was politically worn down. The Swedish invasion and return of Augustus, along with the Russian support, actually caused the Commonwealth to become more dependent on Russia.

All these events played a role in the reconstruction of the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth from collapse.

Saxony Before the War

In the early 1700s Saxony was an important regional power in Central Europe. The ruler of Saxony was Frederick Augustus II, who was also king of the Polish and Lithuanian Commonwealth and was strong. Augustus wanted to strengthen the elective monarchy in Poland in favour of his own dynasty and increase his power in Poland. For this reason, he made plans involving strong foreign policy and military moves. During this period Russia and Denmark, rising in the Baltic Region, were also seeking a balance against Sweden's dominance; the atmosphere of alliance and competition in Europe was tense.

Why Saxony entered the war

Augustus II wanted the Polish kingdom to become a strong centre, more loyal to his dynasty; he thought that taking action against Sweden would push back rival houses and secure his throne in Poland.

Between 1699 and 1700 Augustus formed a coalition with Russia and Denmark against Sweden. The coalition's goal was to break Sweden's dominance in the Baltic and alter the regional balance.

This meant that increasing the political and military prestige of Saxony aligned with Augustus's personal ambitions. With the aid of his Saxon throne, he was empowered with two kingdoms. So with the same ambitions, Saxony joined the war with the Polish side. With its average army, Saxony was almost a powerful opponent against Sweden even though it relied on other kingdoms.

As the war waged on, the Saxon army fell behind. The Saxon army was no match for the Swedish army and its discipline. Constant fighting and skirmishes in Poland with Polish heirs to the throne drained Saxon resources dry. With no income and only loss, Saxon people were paying high taxes and weren't fond of the war. Although Saxony wasn't the main stage in the war and was one of the richest principalities in Germany, its economy got tired with all these military spendings.

Saxony at war

In 1699 Augustus II formed a secret alliance with Denmark and Russia. The main purpose of the alliance is to break Sweden's dominance in the Baltic and consolidate his position on the Polish throne. Augustus had a particular eye on Livonia, which was under Swedish control. If he included it in the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth, his kingdom would appear stronger.

In 1700 Saxony and Polish troops attempted to encircle Riga Castle. The encirclement was poorly planned, and the Swedish defences were too strong, leading to the failure of the encirclement. This was the first major hit of the war, with this Saxon and Polish reputation

shaken from the start. In the same year, King Charles XII of Sweden defeated Denmark and quickly turned the tide of the war in his favour.

In 1704 Charles XII made Polish campaigns, which led to the collapse of Augustus' authority in Poland. After this Sweden supported its own candidate in Poland, and Saxony faced military and political difficulties during this period. After 2 years, in 1706 Charles XII occupied Saxony, as a result of which Augustus II was forced to make heavy concessions with the Peace of Altranstad, which included clauses such as breaking the alliance with Russia, renouncing some rights in Poland, and recognising Sweden's candidate in Poland.

This was a major diplomatic and military defeat for Saxony.

In 1709 Sweden's great defeat in Russia (Poltava) completely changed the regional balance. Russia became stronger and Augustus II returned to the Polish throne with the Russian support. The effect of some of the abdications Augustus II had made at Altranstadt diminished.

The Military And Social Impact Of The War In Saxony:

The 1706 invasion by the Swedish armies and the prolonged continuation of the war inflicted heavy damage on Saxon cities, trade and villages.

The Saxon army failed to achieve significant success against Sweden throughout the war; Augustus' prestige was damaged in both Poland and Saxony.

Saxony After The War

After Poltava, with Russian support, Augustus II reconsolidated his power in Poland.

However, Poland's internal structure was weakened and its power diminished, and in the following years, Poland became a declining power in Europe.

The result of the war was not territorial gain or large profits for Saxony, but the weakening of Sweden's Baltic empire and the rise of Russia as a regional power. Saxony suffered economic hardship due to the devastating effects of the war and remained a powerful force. Augustus's Polish policy left the country open to further foreign intervention.

Poland's and Saxony's Relations With Other States

Russia: Initially, they formed an alliance against Sweden as a common enemy. Relations with Russia changed over the course of the war; after Poltava, Russia restored Augustus to power, and their relationship with Russia went through a cycle of both conflicting and balancing alliances.

Denmark and Norway: Initially, they were one of the other members of the anti-Swedish coalition; alliances existed due to common interests.

Sweden: Direct enemy. Sweden's rapid military successes under Charles XII directly targeted Saxony and Augustus; the 1706 invasion is the most striking example.

Holy Roman Empire: Saxony was a pre-eminent state within the Holy Roman Empire; regional diplomacy and imperial politics also influenced relations. Furthermore, regional actions by German actors such as Prussia/Brandenburg influenced Saxony's position.

The Tsardom of Russia

Before the war

The Thirty Years War was underway. During the ongoing conflict, each side began to need the help of its allies. Among these allies, one would act differently, superiorly, and more powerfully than the others, virtually destroying the German armies in the region it was fighting in. The name of this nation was the Empire of Sweden.

The Alliance

Against this frightening advance of Sweden, a man with critical foresight appeared: Tsar Peter I of Russia. Also known as Peter the Great, this man's goal was to overthrow the Swedish Empire, which was growing and expanding threateningly in Europe, before it could grow even larger. He knew that the way to achieve this was through alliances. Like that, Russia formed the Northern Alliance, which included Prussia, Poland, and Denmark-Norway. Successfully fighting against Sweden, it brought an end to the glorious days of the Swedish Empire.

Heading to the Southwest

During the Great Northern War (1700–1721), Russia wanted to have access to warm seas. At that time, Russia only had ports in the north, but these ports were often frozen in winter, so trade and travel were difficult. Peter the Great, the ruler of Russia, decided to fight Sweden because Sweden controlled the important lands near the Baltic Sea. For many years, Russia and Sweden fought in big battles. At first, Sweden was very strong, but later Russia became stronger. Finally, Russia won and took land on the Baltic coast. This was very important because it gave Russia a way to the sea that did not freeze in winter. With this new access, Russia could trade more, build a stronger navy, and become a more powerful country in Europe. The victory in the Great Northern War changed Russia's future and made it one of the big powers in Europe.

After the Great Northern War, Russia became stronger and more of an important country in Europe. Sweden, which was once very powerful, lost many lands, and its influence became smaller. Russia won new lands near the Baltic Sea, and this gave them better trade routes and access to Europe. Peter the Great used this victory to modernise Russia. He built a new capital city, St Petersburg, which became the "window to Europe". From there, Russia could connect with other European countries through trade and culture. Russia also built a stronger army and navy, which made the country more secure. Because of these changes, Russia became one of the most powerful empires in Europe after the war.

Approaches of the Other Kingdoms

Sweden: The events that took place at the table as a result of the negativities experienced in the agreements signed by Sweden, which established relations with Russia through intermediaries, led to Russia's involvement in this war in the early 18th century.

Prussia: Prussia, a member of the alliance which is performed by Russia, provided support and aid to Russia throughout the war. As the party that emerged from the war with the greatest advantage, Prussia maintained its ties with Russia.

Ottoman Empire: In the first period of the 18th century, the Ottoman Empire was already at war with Russia. Russia wants to change the war situation from the Ottoman Empire to Sweden. So, they signed a treaty with the Ottoman Empire and finished the current war they were in.

Russia's Conquests in the War

During the Great Northern War, Russia won many important lands from Sweden. First, Russia took Ingria, a small land close to the Baltic Sea. This was very important because it gave Russia a way to reach the sea. Later, Russia also got Estonia. With Estonia, Russia became stronger in the Baltic area.

Russia also took Livonia, another important region. Livonia helped Russia have more control over trade and movement near the sea. In addition, Russia gained part of Karelia. These new lands gave Russia more power and more space to grow towards Finland.

The most important result was that Russia finally had access to the Baltic Sea. This allowed Russia to build new cities, like Saint Petersburg, and to create a navy. Because of these lands, Russia became stronger in Europe, both in trade and in battle after the war.

The Duchy of Schleswig-Holstein-Gottorp

Before the War

In 1544, the Oldenburg dynasty formed the Duchy of Schleswig-Holstein-Gottorp as part of their rule over Denmark and the Holy Roman Empire. Its land was divided, with the Gottorp dukes ruling over certain areas of Schleswig and Holstein and the Danish king over others. This unusual setup created constant political stress. The Dukes of Gottorp, although being too little to stand on their own, had to make frequent attempts to keep their lands independent of Denmark.

To protect themselves, the dukes formed an alliance with Sweden, Denmark's Baltic competitor, and granted it a foothold in northern Germany. Marriages connected to Gottorp, Sweden, and later Russia, increasing the duchy's prominence in European affairs.

Why Gottorp Entered the War

Gottorp's decision in the Great Northern War was clear. With strong ties to Sweden, the dukes were unable to stand alone, and an alliance was required to maintain their independence from Denmark, which sought complete control over Schleswig. Gottorp became a valued partner by providing Sweden with a strategic position close to Danish territory, relying more on Swedish power to defend itself. For the duchy, entering the war was a question of survival; therefore, Sweden's achievements and failures determined its fate.

Gottorp at War

The Duchy's most important involvement in the battle revolved around its fortifications at Tönning. In 1700, Denmark besieged Tönning, but Sweden swiftly stepped in to help Gottorp. The result was the Travendal Peace Treaty, in which Denmark agreed to withdraw and even recognised Gottorp's rights. However, the situation shifted rapidly as Sweden's prospects deteriorated. In 1713-1714, a united Danish, Russian and Saxon force laid siege to Tönning, without the aid of Sweden. As a result, the stronghold fell, leaving Gottorp powerless.

The loss of Tönning ruined Gottorp's ability to defend itself. Without Sweden, the duchy had no army, and Denmark gradually gained control. The Treaty of Frederiksborg in 1720 placed Schleswig under Danish control. Leaving Gottorp with only a piece of Holstein and limited freedom.

Military and Social Impact of the War

The long conflict imposed a significant burden on the duchy's inhabitants. Armies marched across its territory, fortifications were besieged, and villages were raided and destroyed. Because the duchy was small, it lacked a significant standing force of its own; therefore, it relied heavily on Sweden. When Sweden weakened, the duchy was left vulnerable.

For everyday people, this meant higher taxes, property losses, and trade disruptions. The dukes' status eroded as they were unable to safeguard their people or maintain their autonomy. However, the dynasty did not vanish completely, as it gained fresh influence abroad through marriage and dynastic links.

Gottorp after the War

After 1720, Gottorp no longer had an independent position in northern European politics. Schleswig was integrated into Denmark, while Holstein remained technically under the Gottorp dukes but was increasingly influenced by Denmark and the empire. The dynasty's true strength stemmed from its marriages rather than the territory itself.

This reached its height in 1762, when Charles Peter Ulrich of Holstein-Gottorp became Tsar Peter III of Russia. For a brief moment, the small duchy's ruling family sat on the Russian throne. Peter even considered using Russian power to recover Schleswig, but his reign was cut short by his overthrow. Finally, in 1773, the Treaty of Tsarskoye Selo ended the issue:

Gottorp gave up its claims in Schleswig-Holstein in exchange for new territories elsewhere, such as Oldenburg. This marked the final end of the duchy's independent role.

Gottorp's Relations with Other Powers

Denmark: Has always been the principal competitor, attempting to annex both Schleswig and Holstein. Denmark acquired this gradually, starting with control of Schleswig after 1720.

Sweden: Gottorp's main ally in the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries. Sweden defended the duchy, but Gottorp's fate changed when Sweden lost power in the Great Northern War.

Russia: Became important after 1762, when a Gottorp duke became Tsar Peter III. Although Peter was deposed, this hereditary connection gave Russia sway over Gottorp's colony in 1773.

The Holy Roman Empire: Holstein was officially part of the Empire, but imperial power was weak; therefore, the Empire had little influence on the duchy's survival.

The Duchy of Hannover-Calenberg, the Duchy of Lunenburg-Celle and Britain

At the outbreak of the Great Northern War, Hanover did not exist: there were, instead, the Duchy of Hanover-Calenberg and the Duchy of Lunenburg-Celle (ruled by two related noble families). In 1705 the two small states were united to form the single Duchy of Hanover, which soon became a significant minor power among the principalities of the Holy Roman Empire. Due to the military support given to the Empire on various occasions, Hanover was transformed into an electorate in 1708; in 1714 the ruler of Hanover, George Louis, became King of Great Britain after the death of Queen Anne and thus started the personal union between Hanover and Britain. The struggle was critical in the Great Northern War, as one kingdom disintegrated and another rose to imperial status. Hanover and Britain did not join in direct battle, but they closely monitored the war, knowing that its conclusion would transform Northern Europe. During the war, Hanover claimed various territories in northern Germany that were previously under Swedish authority. These were largely tiny German principalities and cities in areas such as Bremen-Verden and northern Holstein, which Sweden had controlled since the Thirty Years' War. These acquisitions were part of Hanover's intention to increase its local power while Sweden was busy.

In 1714, Hanover settled a critical dynastic dilemma by electing George I as its monarch, establishing a personal union with the Kingdom of Britain. Although the merger did not result in vast new holdings for Hanover, it did boost its position in Europe. The alliance with Britain helped maintain Hanover's existing territories and increased its influence in German and Baltic politics. Hanover, with the support of Britain's formidable fleet, could also help

restrict Swedish naval operations in the Baltic and North Seas, diminishing Sweden's ability to project power and jeopardising its remaining assets.

Though Hanover and Britain did not commit forces into the conflict, their combined influence, via naval might, territorial claims, and astute diplomacy, enabled them to change the strategic balance in Northern Europe. The personal union meant that Hanover's territorial ambitions were now inextricably linked to Britain's worldwide reach, offering both countries a long-term advantage in European politics and commerce. Over time, this alliance strengthened Hanover's security, increased Britain's influence on the continent, and aided the fall of Swedish power in the region.

The Ottoman Empire

While the Great Northern War continued, the Ottoman Empire stayed neutral for a long time, waiting for the best opportunity. In 1709, King Charles XII fled to the Ottoman Empire, recognising their power. If he had stayed for a bit longer, he would have been assimilated.

With Charles XII's encouragement, the Ottoman Empire joined the war. The Ottoman Empire, who wanted to take their lost land from the Russians, with the Prut Agreement, took Azak Castle. This war gave the Ottoman Empire their power back on the Black Sea again. However, Karl's long stay in Ottoman lands created a great financial burden, for which reason he was given the nickname "Ironhead Karl". This nickname stems from his stubbornness.

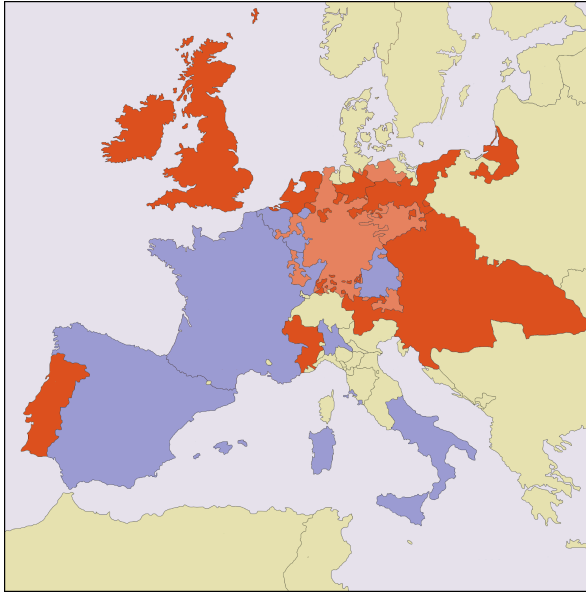
With his return to Sweden in 1714, the indirect role of the Ottoman Empire in the Great Northern War ended.

Prut Agreement

In the year 1710, the Ottoman Empire was ruled by Ahmed III. And Tsarist Russia was ruled by 'Crazy Petro'. Also Switzerland was ruled by Charles the Great. Charles' army was defeated in the Poltava War and he fled to the Ottoman Empire's lands. Meanwhile, Russia's interference in the interiors of Poland and its provocation of the lords of Wallachia and Moldavia against the Ottomans were disturbing the Ottoman Empire. On account of this, they declared war on Russia and pushed their army to the Prut River. This position was in a place with a swamp on one side and a cliff on the other. So Russia had no other option than signing the agreement, which was called the Prut Agreement. These were some of the terms of the agreement:

- 1- The Castle of Azov would be returned to the Ottomans.
- 2- The Black Sea would once again become an Ottoman lake.
- 3- The Russians would not interfere in the internal affairs of Poland.
- 4- The Russians would not maintain a permanent ambassador in Istanbul.
- 5- Charles of Sweden would be allowed to return to his country freely.

The War of the Spanish Succession



One year after the Great Northern War started, another crisis has hit Europe. In the Spanish Empire controlled by a Habsburg king, there were no kids to claim the throne. After Habsburg King Charles II of Spain had died, the throne was left to Duke of Anjou, Philip, grandson of King Louis XIV of France. Who was from the House of Bourbon. In the eyes of the Habsburgs, this was a catastrophe. Even

though Spain was not the brightest empire in Europe, it had the strength to change the balance of power. In conclusion, even though Philip was the heir, the Habsburgs wanted to remain on the Spanish throne. Thus began the war called the War of the Spanish Succession.

Some say this was the first world war in modern times.

The King of France, Louis XIV, and the King of England, William III, tried to divide the country, but it got rejected by the Spanish side. Instead, Charles chose Louis XIV's grandson, V. Philip, as his heir. This situation led to war between the Grand Alliance (Habsburg Empire, Dutch Republic, England, and Habsburg Spain) and France.

At first France had the advantage, but after 1706 they started struggling to defend. Even though it was hard, the Bourbon victories in 1710 had guaranteed Philip's place on the throne. Philip was admitted to be the king of Spain in exchange for agreeing to leave France permanently and accepting some major border changes.

Also, British policy had changed because of the sudden death of the Holy Roman Emperor Joseph. He was chosen to be an heir by his brother, the Archduke Charles.

A victory for Austria and Charles would upset the European balance of power just like if France had another victory. Ignoring its former allies, the government decided to negotiate with France for a separate peace. By the Treaty of Utrecht (which was signed in 1713), Britain gained Gibraltar, territory in North America and the Mediterranean. France also accepted and recognised the Protestant succession in Britain. Philip V was guaranteed to be King of Spain, but he was removed from the French line of succession, herewith averting a union of France and Spain. The Austrians gained most of the Spanish territories that took part in Italy and the Netherlands. Above all, France's dominance over Europe was over.

The Battle of Narva

Background

In the 17th century, Russia had less advanced technology than the rest of Europe; this was also reflected in the armed forces, but despite these losses, Peter the Great of Russia wants to get an adequate opening to the Baltic by conquering parts of Sweden's Baltic provinces that Russia had lost during the Time of Troubles. The important thing is most state armies at the time were poorly trained and consisted of small mercenary units, but Sweden had a professional army; it was one of the biggest armies in Northern Europe.

Peter the Great would radically modernise Russia in later years, but the army he travelled with in 1700 was still inadequate. He decided to form 31 new regiments; at the same time, in the spring of 1700, a revision was made in the officer corps, and most officers were sent into

retirement. This resulted in a catastrophic shortage of command personnel. The vacant military cadres were filled with young Moscow nobles who had neither command experience nor experience of service in the infantry nor regular military training. Non-commissioned officers were not veteran soldiers; they were chosen among the not experienced soldiers.

Prelude

Russia formed a military alliance with King Frederick IV of Denmark-Norway and King Augustus of Poland-Lithuania to wage war on Sweden and attacked Sweden three times from different directions. Russia was awaiting a peace treaty with the Ottoman Empire to shift its struggle from south to north.

In November Russian troops attempted to capture Narva City in Estonia by laying siege to it.

Before the war

The Swedish army was commanded by Charles XII and was helped by Lieutenant-General Carl Gustav Rehnskiöld and General of the Cavalry Otto Vellingk.

Charles Eugene de Croy and Peter are commanding the Russian forces.

The Russian army near Narva was divided into three large units under the command of Avtonom Golovin, Tubetskoy, and Weide.

Swedish artillery was commanded by Johan Siöblad; he was the experienced Master General of the Ordnance.

Russian artillery was commanded by Prince Alexander of Imereti.

War:

Preparations

Charles XII approached the village of Lagenä to make a final check for his army on the afternoon of 29 November 1700. He was not sure if Narva was still holding; he asked Swedes to fire a recognition shot and received a response from the fortress. This way the Russian siege was informed of the enemy's arrival.

On 30 November 1700 Charles XII deployed his 10,500 men against the Russian army of 34,000 or 40,000, almost four times the size of Charles XII's army.

The Swedish approached near the Russian army at 10 a.m. and started to make preparations for the attack.

De Croy decided to spread the army across four miles between two lines of ramparts. The spaces between the ramparts were uneven, and there were too many barracks between them, restricting the movement of the troops.

Goldenhof Hill. It was a hill surrounded by sharp stakes and barracks and located in the centre of the Russian positions.

Charles XII divided his infantry into two and directed them to the north and south of Goldenhof Hill; this allowed him to control both sides.

The war

In the afternoon, Swedes completed their preparation, and they started to move around 2 p.m.

Swedes inflicted some damage on Russian defences.

At 2 p.m. it got colder, and the wind changed and became more powerful; a snowstorm started, and it directly blew into the eyes of Russians.

Swedes thought about stopping at first, but they took advantage of the opportunity. Swedes attacked with two attack groups. Quickly approached the Russian side and gave a volley. Russians easily fell off, but at first the Russians vigorously resisted and gave heavy fire and killed many fine fellows. Then Swedes broke into the fortifications, and that huge massacre started.

Swedes are into a plan. Swedes moved both to the north and south sides along the fortification line. They weakened Russian defences and attacked the inexperienced regiments and shattered them one by one. Panic and chaos started in the Russian army. With this panic in the Russian army, the army started to kill their own foreign officers. Croy hurried to surrender with his staff. Russian troops were rushed into Kamperholm Bridge near the Narva River; too many troops caused the collapse of Kamperholm Bridge. Some of the troops tried to swim, but they died of drowning and freezing in the cold water of the Narva River. Now the Russian troops were stuck.

On the north side of the Russians, Preobrazhensky and Semyonovsky protected the battle order. They built square-arranged barricades of waggons and stubbornly held on. Some of the running soldiers of the Russian army joined them. Karl tried to attack with the army, but they were repulsed, and a horse under Carl was killed. Most of the Russian commanders, including generals including Trubetskoy and Golovin, joined this group.

The right side of the Russian forces quickly surrendered. The left side of the Russian forces, under General Weide, capitulated later and was forced to hand over the weapons.

All the artillery and wagon trains also fell into the hands of Swedes.

Swedes and Russians repaired the Kamberholm Bridge. The most right-wing Russian commanders were now in Swedish hands. After Charles XII violated the treaty to keep them as prisoners.

Losses:

Sweden lost 667 men, and 1247 soldiers were wounded.

Russia lost 8000 or 9000 men that got killed or drowned and 20,000 surrendered.

700 men were captured with 177 artillery pieces, including 145 cannons and 171 standards/banners. Totally, the loss is bigger than 18,000.

The Battle of Poltava

The Battle of Poltava is a significant event that occurred on the date of June 27. The war that probably changed the tides of the war, this war. It was fought north and west of Poltava, west of the Vorskla River. In the failed attempt of the Swedish invasion of Russia, Sweden had already lost their logistics, their supply, and most importantly, their manpower. Also what they thought to be their allies, Cossacks, were so much less than said. The battle was difficult to win with such insufficient aid. Although they lacked manpower and logistics, they started their counter-siege. Charles planned to charge past the Russian line of redoubts without stopping to subdue them. The Russian counterattack, with 40,000 troops, killed or captured the entire Swedish army, except for Charles and 1,500 followers, who escaped south into Ottoman territory.



The Nystad Agreement

The Nystad Agreement In the Great Northern War By the time the war started to fade away, they acknowledged the power of what had been given to Russia and they needed to sign this agreement or get lost from history itself. That ultimately resulted in the Peace of Nystad on August 30, under the terms of which Sweden acquiesced to Russian conquests on the eastern coast of the Baltic Sea. Thereafter Russia was the dominant power in the Baltic region, while Sweden rapidly sank to second-rate status... After much back and forth between Russia and

Sweden and with other countries like Britain and Prussia getting involved, the Treaty of Nystadt was finally signed on August 30, 1721. Russia gave up Finland, agreed to pay a large amount of money for Livonia, gave the Swedes the right to buy duty-free grain in specific regions, and released all Swedish hostages. In return, Sweden gave Estonia, Livonia, Ingria and the Vyborg District to Russia. Sweden lost its status in Europe and lost its dominance in the Baltic, and Russia ascended! Tsar I. Petro was named as “Peter the Great” and Russia was considered a superpower in Europe; the balance of power in Europe changed, and the Baltic

Sea started to turn into a “Russian Lake”.

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