



PIONEERS OF ESPIONAGE:

PROFILES OF SOME OF THE FIRST SPYMASTERS

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Introduction

The field of intelligence studies, as an academic discipline, has served as a conduit through which the calibration of foreign policy, the history of war, the history of diplomacy, the development and decline of empire, and the restructuring of the international system in general have been subjected to new methods of inquiry and analysis. Furthermore, the field of intelligence studies is intimately related to business and economic policy (business intelligence being an integral part of intelligence), and it provides useful examples and lessons for the organization and management of any human community.

Finally, intelligence analysis is inextricably linked to policy analysis. Policy analysis underpins and informs policy making, even if there is a lengthy lag between policy analysis and its gradual absorption into political debate. Once established as common sense, a text of policy analysis becomes incredibly powerful, because it delineates not only what is the object of knowledge but also what it is sensible to talk about or suggest. If one thinks and acts outside the framework of the dominant text of policy analysis, he/she risks more than simply the judgment that his/her recommendations are wrong; his/her entire moral attitude may be ridiculed or seen as dangerous just because his/her theoretical assumptions are deemed unrealistic. Therefore, defining common sense and what is «reality» and «realistic» is the ultimate act of political power. Policy analysis does not simply explain or predict, it tells us what possibilities exist for human action and intervention; it defines both our explanatory possibilities and our moral and practical horizons.

R-Techno Ltd, having created its own databases and training programs regarding intelligence studies in general and history of espionage in particular, offers high value-added services to its corporate and political, individual and institutional clients, both in terms of transferring know-how and solving specific problems. In the aforementioned context, this essay provides a brief overview of the work of the following spymasters (and their close associates):

- Sun Tzu,
- Alexander the Great,
- Sir Francis Walsingham,
- Christopher Marlowe,
- Daniel Defoe,
- Cardinal Richelieu,
- Benjamin Franklin.

Sun Tzu

The Chinese general, military strategist, and philosopher Sun Tzu (sixth century B.C.) is widely acknowledged as the instigator of the first fully operational espionage network. His book entitled Ping Fa («The Principles of War») is the earliest known textbook on the art of general warfare. It remains required reading in many military academies. It has exerted significant influence on the Chinese communist leader Mao Zedong during the Long March and the Japanese armed forces prior to Pearl Harbor.

Sun Tzu was born in Ch'i state, on the mouth of the Yellow River, but he spent most of his life in the service of Ho Lu, the king of the neighboring state of Wu. Under Sun Tzu's generalship, Ho Lu's troops occupied the city of Ying, the capital of the Ch'u state to the West, and they ranged far to the North, defeating the feudal princedoms of Ch'i and Chin.

According to Sun Tzu, in order to defend the state against others and to wage war economically, it is necessary to employ a permanent espionage service spying on neighbors and enemies alike. Thus, Sun Tzu argued that espionage should be regarded as honorable, and agents should be granted access to their political and military leaders at all times. In particular, he instituted a rigid hierarchy of spies, including local spies, internal spies, converted spies, and «condemned spies.»



Sun Tzu argued that, «if you know the enemy and know yourself, you need not fear the result of a hundred battles»; and he advised as follows: «Let your plans be dark and impenetrable as night, and, when you move, fall like a thunderbolt.» Moreover, Sun Tzu emphasizes subtlety by arguing as follows: «Be extremely subtle even to the point of formlessness. Be extremely mysterious even to the point of soundlessness.»

Captured agents should be treated with benevolence, «tempted with bribes, led away, and comfortably housed.» Sun Tzu realized that, if such persons could be turned, they would be in a position to report on their previous masters' strengths and weaknesses. In particular, their knowledge of which officials might most easily be manipulated and bribed would prove to be of singular importance to local and internal spies sent to exploit them.

However, «condemned spies» were a less fortunate kind of spies (something like expendable hooks and unaware disinformation agents). Unknown to them, they should be fed completely false information by Sun Tzu's agents, and they should be sent into the enemy territory, and, if necessary, compromised. Hence, when they were captured and

tortured, the information that they were able to divulge was wholly incorrect, misleading the enemy. When the enemy learned of his/her mistake, the spy was put to death, but by then it was often too late, while Ho Lu had gained an advantage. Sun Tzu argued that «the whole secret lies in confusing the enemy, so that he cannot fathom our real intent.»

Alexander The Great

Under the tutelage of the Athenian philosopher and scientist Aristotle, Alexander the Great (fourth century B.C.), King of Macedonia, became the first Greek ruler to utilize intelligence as an organic part of policy-making in general.

Alexander the Great fused espionage and cultural diplomacy into a shrewd and effective instrument of government. In his book *On the Fortune or the Virtue of Alexander*, I, 329a–d, Plutarch writes that Alexander the Great believed and propagated the myth that he came as a heaven-sent governor to all and as a mediator for the whole world, and, therefore, those whom he could not persuade to unite with him, he conquered by force of arms, but he bade all his subjects consider as their fatherland the whole inhabited earth, as their polity his camp, as akin to them all virtuous men, and as foreigners only the wicked. Thus, Alexander the Great created a multicultural-multiethnic polity. Regarding Alexander the Great's attitude towards Asia, Plutarch (ibid, I, 330c–e) emphasizes that Alexander did not overrun Asia like a robber, but Alexander's goal was to render all upon earth subject to one law of reason and one form of government.



Instead of building up an empire merely by establishing regimes based on physical-spatial unity, Alexander the Great was founding new cities that were centers of the Greek «paideia.» In his seminal book *Paideia*, Jaeger explains that «paideia» is a word that we translate as education, but which, according to ancient Greeks, means not only the rearing and education of children («pais» is the simple Greek for child), but also culture and civilization, and, generally, the spiritual accomplishments of an age or people (Werner Jaeger, *Paideia: The Ideals of Greek Culture*, translated by Gilbert Highet, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1945). It was rendered in Latin as «humanitas.» As Jaeger put it in the much quoted Introduction of his book *Paideia*, whereas other systems of «paideia» were centered on gods, kings, and/or spirits, the Greek system of «paideia» was the first cultural proposal that was centered on humanity. Hence, according to Jaeger, humans must see, in the traditional heroes Pindar glorified, an idealization of themselves.

At the apex of his imperial career, Alexander the Great declared the brotherhood of all humans, thus uniting historical space with historical time. He was the first global leader that transcended national differences, and he anticipated the Apostle Paul's universalism

by forging a spiritual unity between the Greeks and the barbarians. Alexander the Great wanted to conquer the barbarians primarily by penetrating and conquering their minds.

In general, geopolitical preponderance can yield important benefits, but, if one conquers space without conquering the hearts and minds of the people who live in that space, even the most ingenious geopolitical calculations eventually lead to failure. For instance, in the fifth century A.D., Attila the Hun (died 453) created the Hunic Empire, which stretched from the Ural River to the Rhine River and from the Danube River to the Baltic Sea. The Hunic Empire was relatively disorganized and uncultured, even compared to the Germanic tribes, and Roman historians, such as Priscus, Procopius of Caesarea, Jordanes, and Marcellinus Comes, describe Attila the Hun as a destroyer rather than a builder of civilizations. Because Attila the Hun was unable to achieve the spiritual unification of his empire, and because his European subjects were always seeing him as a barbarian ruler, the Hunic Empire was dissolved almost immediately after Attila the Hun's death. In 454, the Huns were defeated at the Battle of Nedao, and soon afterwards they disappeared from European history.

In the present essay, I use the terms «culture» and «civilization» as follows: The means by which a historical actor (society/nation) attempts to improve the terms of one's adaptation to reality and the outcome of the previous attempt constitute «civilization.» Thus, civilization consists of institutions and technology. On the other hand, «culture» is the result of a historical actor's reflection on one's life. In other words, culture is a reflective attitude towards institutions and technology, and it expresses a historical actor's attempt to transcend institutions through myth. By the term «myth,» I mean neither an arbitrary imaginary creation nor a tale. A myth is a spiritual system through which experienced reality is translated into a symbolic language, and, thus, it becomes tradition. In addition, due to its symbols, a myth enables all members of the same culture to share common experiences and interpret certain things in the same way, exactly because they participate in the same symbolic universe. In other words, myth is the core of culture.

The primary purpose of civilization is the achievement of rational control through technological construction, whereas the primary purpose of culture is the expression of the intentionality of consciousness through spiritual creation. However, civilization and culture are neither opposite to each other nor in conflict with each other. Even though civilization primarily corresponds to technological construction while culture primarily corresponds to spiritual creation (art, philosophy, and religion), culture is integrated into civilization and is the spiritual underpinning of civilization, and civilization safeguards the integration of culture into history.

In every historical segment, the structure of the established myth corresponds, or it should correspond, to the structure of the established system of institutions. Every major change in the realms of institutions and technology must be combined with and underpinned by a change in the realm of myth; or else, there will be a serious conflict between civilization and culture. By systematically combining espionage with cultural diplomacy, Alexander the Great's intelligence policy covered every aspect of social life.

Furthermore, Alexander the Great devised a simple but highly effective system of covert ciphers by using a system of identical staves and scrolls. The scroll containing the hidden

message was secreted in an overtly straightforward report, but it was wound spirally around the scytale (i.e., a baton, or cylinder) in such a way that the secret message could be deciphered from the characters that appeared in a straight line along the scytale (specifically, the recipient reads the message by using a rod of the same diameter on which the strip of parchment is wrapped).



Finally, it is worth pointing out that Alexander the Great instituted a primitive form of «Cabinet Noir,» that is, internal monitoring, when he instigated postal censorship into his armed forces. Thus, he could timely dismiss disruptive elements from their posts and maintain morale, even under adverse conditions.

Sir Francis Walsingham

Sir Francis Walsingham (1530–90) is the acknowledged creator of the first viable secret service in England. His father, William Walsingham, was a successful and well-connected London lawyer, and his mother, Joyce Denny, was a daughter of the courtier Sir Edmund Denny of Cheshunt in Hertfordshire and a sister of the courtier Sir Anthony Denny, the principal Gentleman of the Privy Chamber to King Henry VIII. Notice that King Henry VIII initiated the English Reformation, separating the Church of England from papal authority.

Sir Francis Walsingham was a forthright Protestant, he matriculated at King's College, Cambridge, in 1548 with many other Protestants, and, in 1552, he enrolled at Gray's Inn, one of the qualifying bodies for English lawyers. However, he was forced to flee to Continental Europe when the Roman Catholic Mary Tudor ascended the English throne in 1553. He continued his studies in law at the universities of Basel and Padua.

Queen Mary I died in 1558, and she was succeeded by her Protestant half-sister Queen Elizabeth I. From the Roman Catholic point of view, Elizabeth, the daughter of King Henry VIII of England and Anne Boleyn (the second wife of Henry VIII), was a bastard, so it was sure that she would rule as a Protestant. Indeed, Elizabeth forcibly restored her father's Anglican or Episcopal Church. Thus, Walsingham felt it safe to return to England. Through the support of one of his former exiles, Francis Russell, 2nd Earl of Bedford, he was elected to Elizabeth's first parliament as the member for Bossiney, Cornwall, in 1559.

The experience that Sir Francis Walsingham had gained in foreign countries brought him to the notice of Secretary of State Lord Burghley (William Cecil, 1st Baron Burghley), who recruited him in order to work as a British spy in Europe. Using a private agent network that he had built up inside the French Court, Walsingham was able to report on several Jesuit-inspired intrigues against Queen Elizabeth I.

Elizabeth's policy pioneered a synthesis between the rising capitalism and the traditional nobility. Her economic policies had strong elements of dirigisme and mercantilism. The numerous industrial monopolies that she promoted gave rise to new areas of production in the country. William Cecil, whom she created 1st Baron of Burghley and Lord

Treasurer, developed the merchant marine and the navy. Additionally, there were taxes to support those unable to work, and a detailed regulation of jobs and working conditions. Many of these successful measures were coherent with the capitalist elite's desire to build up England as the new world empire and as a counterweight to the immense power of the more conservative and more traditional Spain. Elizabeth's anti-Catholic and anti-Spanish policies fulfilled the basic imperatives of the rising bourgeoisie and, generally, of the British capitalism.

In 1569, Walsingham was recalled to assume the appointment of chief of the secret service. But, within a year, he was returned to France, promoted to English Ambassador and given direct control over all agents working in that country. When Lord Burghley became Lord High Treasurer in 1573, Walsingham was recalled once again, this time to succeed his mentor as Secretary of State.

Queen Elizabeth I was a grateful but parsimonious employer, demanding concrete results for as small a financial outlay as possible. Thus, Walsingham was forced to subsidize the English secret service to such a degree that he virtually bankrupted himself, but he continued to provide Queen Elizabeth I with so complete a system of protection that none of the numerous plots to assassinate her came near to fruition.



As the chief of the English secret service, Walsingham was very cautious and vigilant. He regarded all English envoys abroad with suspicion until their loyalty was absolutely proven. When Sir Edward Stafford was made Ambassador in Paris in 1583, he quickly started being bribed by the Spanish government in return for his services as a spy. Having realized that there was a problem but being unable to prove it, Walsingham sent a trusted agent called Rogers to keep an eye on Stafford in Paris. Rogers's reports were damning, but Stafford was allowed to remain at liberty. Walsingham believed that, if Stafford had the trust of the Spaniards, they would believe any piece of information with which he provided them, and, thus, Walsingham began to ensure that Ambassador Stafford became the recipient of some highly plausible, though equally inaccurate, disinformation. It is highly likely that Stafford ever realized that he was being used as a double agent. In fact, he was never brought to trial, and, ultimately, he returned to England with his reputation intact.

In 1587, Walsingham was convinced, partly from intelligence supplied by Stafford, that King Philip II of Spain was amassing a vast armada of ships for an invasion of England. In the spring, he drew up a «Plot for Intelligence out of Spain,» in which he meticulously set out his plan: to intercept correspondence between the French Ambassador and Spain; to have agents at Nantes, Rouen, Le Havre, and Dieppe; to set up an intelligence network in Cracow to monitor the Vatican attitudes towards Spain; to arrange intelligence-gathering facilities in Brussels, Leyden, Denmark, and the Spanish Court, and to arrange

for coast watchers to travel from port to port in Spain assessing the overall readiness of the fleet.

Walsingham relied for much of his information on intelligence gathered by Anthony Standen, a highly controversial and reckless agent whom he sent to Spain. In 1586, Standen, through a spy that he recruited, obtained copies of the reports from the Grand Admiral of the Armada, the Marquis of Santa Cruz, giving precise details of the number of ships available, their sea state, crews, and armed forces. From these reports, Walsingham deduced that the fleet could not sail until 1587. Thus, the English secret service put pressure on King Philip's bankers in Genoa to delay loans to Spain, so that funding for the Armada was effectively controlled by the English secret service.

At the same time, acting on disclosures of where various units of the Spanish fleet were stationed, Sir Francis Drake, an English explorer involved in piracy and illicit slave trading, was dispatched to prey on Spanish ships, «singeing the King of Spain's bread.» The phrase «singeing the King of Spain's bread» is the derisive name given to a series of attacks by Sir Francis Drake against the Spaniards in the spring and the summer of 1587, beginning in April with a raid of Cádiz. This was an attack on the Spanish naval forces assembling in the Bay of Cádiz (in Spain); much of the Spanish fleet was destroyed and looted by Sir Francis Drake's piracy operation. Afterwards, Drake continued his reign of terror by harassing the Portuguese coastline. Moreover, a Spanish treasure ship, returning from West Indies, was captured by Drake. In 1588, Drake was appointed Vice Admiral of the English Navy, under Lord Howard of Effingham. Drake's government-sanctioned piracy operations indicate that the manipulation of forces of organized crime (such as pirates) and the use of methods of organized crime (such as piracy) may form an integral part of particular intelligence operations.

Spanish counterintelligence was also at work. In January 1588, Spain's spy Sir Edward Stafford, the British Ambassador in Paris, sent a dispatch to Queen Elizabeth I saying that the Spanish Armada had been disbanded. But, due to Walsingham's intelligence network, Queen Elizabeth I was getting a constant stream of intelligence indicating that Spain was still planning to launch a mighty fleet.

Anthony Standen was aware that the Armada could be delayed but not defeated by subterfuge, and, therefore, he arranged for a series of watchers to monitor its eventual progress along the French coastline. As soon as the Spanish fleet was sighted, dispatches were sent to England and specifically to Walsingham, allowing Grand Admiral Lord Howard of Effingham to establish the precise size, disposition, strengths, and weaknesses of the Spanish forces. Thus, England defeated the Spanish Armada, and, in 1589, Queen Elizabeth I ordered Sir Francis Drake to seek out and destroy any remaining ships of the Armada and help Portuguese rebels in Lisbon fight against the Spanish rule. Lord Howard of Effingham, who, based on Walsingham's intelligence network, saved England from invasion by Spain, commissioned the Italian writer and calligraphist Petruccio Ubaldini (who had previously served as a mercenary soldier for King Henry VIII of England) to write a chronicle of the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

Walsingham's skillful management of the English secret service and Standen's field work gave Queen Elizabeth I and her strategists knowledge of crucial importance, and this

knowledge enabled England to thwart Spain's invasion plans. The defeat of the Spanish Armada ended the anti-Protestant crusade of King Philip II of Spain, weakened the political power of the Pope of Rome, and invigorated the liberal bourgeoisie and the English capitalism. Moreover, the English victory over the Spanish Armada launched a British Navy that would eventually establish Great Britain as the leading «sea-power state» until the beginning of the twentieth century.



On the left: Ruins of Scadbury Hall, seat of the Walsingham family, in Chislehurst, in Kent, England.

Christopher Marlowe

Christopher Marlowe (1564–93), also known as Kit Marlowe, was a considerable English playwright, poet, and translator of the Elizabethan era (the epoch in the Tudor period of the history of England during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I). Moreover, he was an accomplished spy.

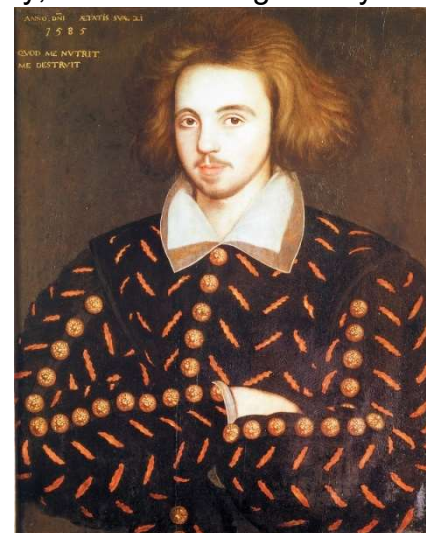
During his studies at the University of Cambridge, Marlowe was «talent spotted» by John Dee. John Dee was an English mathematician, astronomer, and occultist, the court astronomer and astrologer for, and adviser to, Queen Elizabeth I, and an asset of the English secret service. Finally, Christopher Marlowe was recruited by Sir Francis Walsingham, head of the English secret service.

In 1587, the Duc de Guise, who was the founder and head of the Catholic League in France, began a long-term attempt to rescue his niece, Mary Queen of Scots, from the clutches of Queen Elizabeth I (the purpose of the Catholic League was to prevent King Henry of Navarre, head of the Huguenot movement (that is, the French Protestants), from succeeding to the French throne). The Duc de Guise planned to offer hospitality to English students with pro-Catholic tendencies at the Jesuit stronghold in Rheims. His intention was to involve them in plots against the Tudor dynasty. When Francis Walsingham became aware of the fact that Father Robert Parsons, a well-known Jesuit campaigner, had succeeded in planting a Catholic agent in Cambridge, he decided to implement a

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counterintelligence operation by using this route to infiltrate a double agent into Father Robert Parsons's seminary. From such a double agent, Walsingham would obtain detailed information of the conspiracies being plotted there, which he anticipated that they would be intensified after the impending execution of Mary Queen of Scots.

The person chosen by Walsingham to play the role of double agent in the aforementioned operation was Christopher Marlowe. Indeed, Marlowe suddenly left the University of Cambridge in February 1587, and, on his return, in July, he was arraigned by the University for being absent without leave and for having gone to the Jesuit seminary at Rheims. In that seminary, Marlowe had formulated such extremely critical positions against the Protestant establishment in England that he had been accepted into the groups planning to create a Catholic resistance movement in England. However, the academic authorities of the University of Cambridge did not know that Marlowe had dallied only in order to spy for Walsingham. Indeed, Marlowe learned the names of the principal players in the aforementioned Catholic-Jesuit intrigue and returned with the information to the Secretary of State, namely, Francis Walsingham, on whose secret and direct orders all charges against Marlowe were dropped, and he was allowed to continue his studies at the University of Cambridge.



Gradually, for some obscure reason, Marlowe fell from grace. In May 1593, he was arrested at the house of Thomas Walsingham, a cousin of the Secretary of State, but he was released on bail. However, he was ordered to answer charges that carried very serious penalties. Ten days later, Marlowe died in a drunken brawl in a tavern in Deptford. Historians have argued that Marlowe's death was an accident or a political assassination designed to protect senior members of Queen Elizabeth's government, while some have even conjectured that he may have staged his murder to enable him to escape his political enemies. On 1 July 2001, the authoritative British newspaper The Observer published an article by Amelia Hill, reviewing Meirion James Trow's scholarly book *Who Killed Kit Marlowe?: A Contract to Murder in Elizabethan England* (The History Press, 2001). In that article, Amelia Hill summarizes M. J. Trow's conclusions as follows:

Spy, counter-spy, atheist, homosexual and government critic, Marlowe was feted for his plays, including *Tamburlaine*, *The Jew of Malta*, *Edward II* and *Dr Faustus* . . . The truth, Trow maintains, was discovered in a document found among the Harleian manuscripts in the British Museum, indicating that members of the Queen's Privy Council, the highest court in the land, were atheists - a heresy in Elizabethan law that was punished with execution. Trow believes Marlowe discovered the truth about four Council members; William Cecil, Baron Burghley; his son Robert Cecil; Lord Henry Howard and Baron Henry Carey Hunsdon. «Marlowe had evidence against them of their heretical and blasphemous views,» Trow said. «Exactly how he found out we cannot know, but as the winter of 1592-93 turned into spring Marlowe was becoming ever more outrageous.» In January 1593 *Edward II* was performed, slipping through the censor's nets despite a general acknowledgement that Marlowe had used the play to hint at his knowledge. «The play's *Edward II* is clearly used to symbolise Elizabeth while Burghley and the Cecil clan are

represented by Gaveston,» said Trow. «Could there be a clearer denunciation of the Machiavellians who ran Elizabethan England?» Trow said: «Marlowe was a maverick, a rebel, a whistle-blower. In the paranoia of the Elizabethan police state, great men bent the law to their own ends. Many suffered as a result; Marlowe was only the most famous of them.» (online: <https://www.theguardian.com/uk/2001/jul/01/books.humanities>)

Daniel Defoe

Daniel Defoe (1660–1731) was a prominent English writer, journalist, pamphleteer, and spy. He is most famous for his novels Robinson Crusoe and Moll Flanders, and he has been seen as one of the earliest pioneers of the English novel. Moreover, he was a pioneer of business and economic journalism.

Defoe wrote many political tracts, was often in trouble with the authorities, and he spent a period in prison for seditious libel, but he also worked in the secret services of Queen Anne of Great Britain. His strong mental abilities, his thoroughness, and his capacity for tireless observation brought Defoe to the attention of Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford, who engineered his release from prison under license. Indeed, Defoe proved an excellent servant to Harley.



After the death of Queen Anne of Great Britain, in 1714, King George I of Great Britain (George Louis; German: Georg Ludwig) ascended the British throne as the first monarch of the House of Hanover (a German royal dynasty that has ruled the Duchy of Brunswick-Lüneburg). Even though more than fifty Roman Catholics bore closer blood relationships to Anne, the Act of Settlement, passed by the Parliament of England in 1701, prohibited Roman Catholics from inheriting the British throne, and George was Anne's closest living Protestant relative. The Hanoverians came to power in difficult circumstances. The Jacobites attempted to depose George and replace him with Anne's Roman Catholic half-brother, James Francis Edward Stuart, who was the son of the deposed King James II of England and VII of Scotland, but their attempts failed (after the Glorious Revolution of 1688, James II of England and VII of Scotland lived in exile in France, guest of his cousin King Louis XIV of France). Moreover, soon after George I ascend the British throne, the Whigs won an overwhelming victory against the Tories in the general election. The Whigs supported the Hanoverians and a system of constitutional monarchy reflecting the interests of the rising bourgeoisie, and they were the implacable enemies of the exiled Stuarts. Defoe was also distinguished for the services that he offered to King George I as a spy.

As he moved deep into the complex world of espionage, Defoe seemingly lost all political conviction and became cynical, cheerfully betraying those who trusted and befriended him. He became particularly adept at winning the sympathy of covert Jacobites, often

even taking advantage of their hospitality in order to spy on them and monitor their private conversations even more easily.

As Jacobite efforts to restore the Stuart dynasty to the British throne intensified, King George I sent Defoe on a tour of the country. Travelling incognito, sometimes as «Alexander Goldsmith» and sometimes as «Claude Guilot,» he continued to dismantle groups of potential Jacobite resistance and to organize pro-Hanoverian agent networks answerable directly to him. Alongside his spying tours, Defoe found time to write the book *Tour through England and Wales*.

Cardinal (De) Richelieu

Cardinal Richelieu (Armand Jean du Plessis, Duke of Richelieu, 1585–1642), a politician first and churchman second, gave France its first formally and rigorously instituted system of espionage.

Armand Jean du Plessis was born in Paris. His father, François du Plessis, seigneur de Richelieu, was given command of the Maréchaussée, a precursor of the police by King Henry IV of France in 1578 (Henry IV of the House of Bourbon was King of Navarre, as Henry III, from 1572 and King of France from 1589 to 1610). The Maréchaussée was charged with maintaining order and justice regarding serious crimes at the French Court and throughout the kingdom. Armand Jean du Plessis's mother, Susanne de La Porte, was the daughter of a famous jurist. When Armand Jean du Plessis was five years old, his father died of fever in the French Wars of Religion. King Henry IV of France had rewarded Armand Jean du Plessis's father for his participation in the Wars of Religion by granting his family the Bishopric of Luçon.



Armand Jean du Plessis received a remarkable philosophical, theological, and military education, and, in 1605, he was consecrated Bishop of Luçon. Under the patronage of the Queen Mother, Marie de Medici (the second wife of King Henry IV of France), he was appointed a Minister of State seven years later, but he was driven from office shortly after the assassination of King Henry IV of France (Henry IV was assassinated by François Ravallac, a Catholic zealot). Marie de Medici was Regent of the Kingdom of France between 1610 and 1617, during the minority of her son Louis XIII of France (King Louis XIII of France was the eldest son of King Henry IV and Marie de Medici, and he reigned from 1610 to 1643). Her mandate as regent legally expired in 1614, when her son reached the age of majority, but she refused to

resign and continued as regent until she was removed by a coup in 1617. Her trusted adviser Concino Concini, Marquis d'Ancre, exercised strong influence on her, and he treated Louis XIII with contempt. However, ultimately, Marie de Medici ended up being banished from the country by her son, and she died in the city of Cologne in the Holy Roman Empire.

Armand Jean du Plessis was appointed Cardinal in 1622, and, in 1624, he was recalled to State office by King Louis XIII of France. He was confirmed in the post of chief minister in 1629, and he was awarded the Dukedom of Richelieu in 1631; hence, he is best known as Cardinal Richelieu. From then to his death, Cardinal Richelieu virtually ruled France, masterminding the French intelligence service, and creating the powerful Cabinet Noir.

The Cabinet Noir (a secret police organization) was designed to intercept and analyze correspondence within the French Court and between the lesser nobility, thus preserving the sometimes tenuous security of the throne of King Louis XIII of France. Moreover, Cardinal Richelieu used his secret police to whittle away and ultimately destroy the power of the great nobles. In particular, the constant attempts, first, of Monsieur Gaston Duke of Orléans (the eldest surviving brother of King Louis XIII of France) and, later, of the Marquis de Cinq-Mars (a favorite of King Louis XIII of France) to usurp the throne were discovered and eventually countered by the Cabinet Noir.

Cardinal Richelieu created an intelligence agency of gigantic proportions with tentacles in every part of France and in every country in which France had an interest. To a large extent, the operation of the Cabinet Noir was paternalistic for the entire political system of the country. In particular, Cardinal Richelieu was keen to smother domestic disorder within the nobility, which might lead to a scandal at Court, and to suppress acts of patent treason. He died in 1642, but the influence of the Cabinet Noir lived on for a further 150 years, until destroyed by the French Revolution, which gave rise to its own intelligence machines.

In order to understand the ethos and the policy of Cardinal Richelieu, we must bear in mind that, in medieval Europe, the Monarchy was ultimately imposed on the Church, and, in modern Europe, the executive branch of government was ultimately imposed on the legislative one. In the context of modernity, the fading of the myth of divine sovereignty and the replacement of the myth of divine sovereignty by the myth of popular sovereignty gave rise to the modern idea of the nation-state. This event caused a new change in the idea of sovereignty. As a result of the institution of the modern nation-state, popular sovereignty mingled with national sovereignty. From this perspective, the legitimacy of the State's commands derives from the fact that the State has become the trustee of the nation, and the benevolent character of the State is evaluated with regard to the interests of the corresponding nation. The interests and, generally, the purposes of the modern nation are determined by a privileged minority, which has a monopoly of knowledge and understanding regarding the determination of the national interest because of the fact that it holds the seat of State power. Cardinal Richelieu was fully harmonized and in line with the aforementioned historical reality and way of thinking. Thus, being a statesman first and a man of the Church second, he implemented a policy aimed at making France great through the absolute power of its monarchy. In this, Cardinal Richelieu and Hanoverian England followed different methods: Richelieu's policy as chief minister was to make France great through absolute monarchy, in the context of which the French monarch embodies the personalization of State power; whereas, under the Hanoverians, the policy

of the English intelligence apparatus was to make England great through a system of constitutional monarchy, representing and serving a viable and pragmatic compromise between the English monarch, the nobility, and the bourgeois-capitalist elite, ultimately making England the cradle of a system of reigning liberal oligarchy.

In order to secure and strengthen the power of the French monarch, Cardinal Richelieu introduced an internal policy of religious tolerance and wrested control of foreign policy from the Habsburgs. Thus, he managed to frustrate the aspirations of Monsieur Gaston Duke of Orléans and the Marquis de Cinq-Mars, both of whom had conspired to take the French throne.

As already mentioned, Cardinal Richelieu employed a widespread system of espionage throughout France to ensure that he was kept fully aware of the thoughts and the deeds of both the Church and the nobility. In this, he was brilliantly served by his confidant and chief operational officer, the Capuchin father François Leclerc du Tremblay, who was the effective director of the system of espionage that had been created by Cardinal Richelieu. Superficially a mild and gentle person, François Leclerc du Tremblay possessed a mind so subtle and intriguing that it earned him the title «*éminence grise*» («grey eminence»), in recognition of his great ability to operate secretly or unofficially in the service of his master.

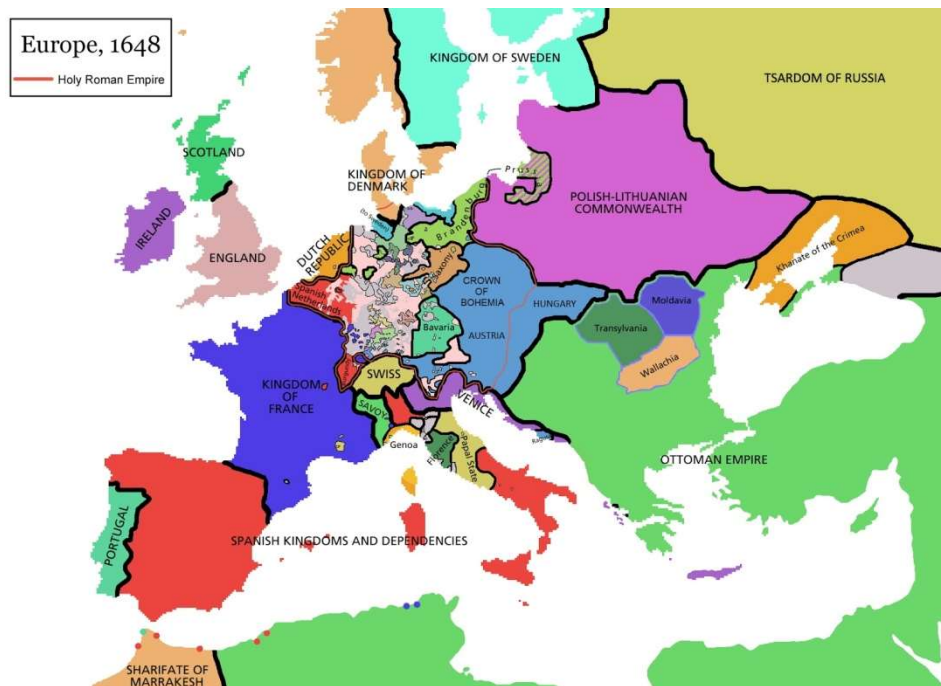
At the height of his power, endorsing Realpolitik, Cardinal Richelieu forged an alliance with the Protestant King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, who is credited for the rise of Sweden as a great European power. The alliance between Cardinal Richelieu and King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden weakened the position of the German princes to such an extent that it enabled France to seize Alsace. Moreover, Cardinal Richelieu weakened the power of Spain by encouraging and manipulating risings in Portugal and Catalonia, and he contrived the downfall and eventual murder of the Bohemian military leader Albrecht Wenzel Eusebius von Wallenstein, who was the supreme commander of the armies of the Imperial Army of the Holy Roman Emperor Ferdinand II (Ferdinand II was the Holy Roman Emperor from 1619 until his death in 1637). Moreover, von Wallenstein was a major figure of the Thirty Years' War (1618–48).

During the sixteenth century, the Reformation had been dividing the Holy Roman Empire (of the German nation), and, although Lutheranism had been officially recognized in 1555, the many Calvinist rulers and their citizens were not officially recognized. Hence, the resulting tensions caused Protestant and Catholic German states to form alliances. Moreover, foreign powers had vested interest in these developments in the Holy Roman Empire. France was encircled by Spanish and Austrian Habsburgs and sought to weaken them. Spain sought to retake its Dutch provinces and maintain military access along the Spanish road. The Protestant Scandinavian countries sought to expand their influence in northern Germany. The aforementioned political and geostrategic rivalries were the main causes of the Thirty Years' War, but the immediate cause of that war can be found in Bohemia (a member-state of the Holy Roman Empire), where an infighting war broke out between Catholics and Protestants for control of the country in 1618. After 1635, the Holy Roman Empire became the geopolitical theater of competition between two geopolitical coalitions: one geopolitical coalition consisted of Catholic Bourbon France and Protestant Sweden, while the other geopolitical coalition consisted of the Catholic Emperor

Ferdinand III of the Holy Roman Empire and Catholic Habsburg Spain (Ferdinand III was the Holy Roman Emperor from 1637 until his death in 1657). In 1635, the Protestant and the Catholic member-states of the Holy Roman Empire agreed to make peace. But France, under Cardinal Richelieu, feared the authority given to the Habsburgs over the empire member-states; member-states could now no longer make foreign alliances, and an imperial army was to be created. Hence, Catholic France formed an alliance with Protestant Sweden and joined in this new political war. Sweden occupied northern Germany and moved as far South as Prague, and France took Alsace and Flanders. Meanwhile, France also helped to start separatist rebellions in Spanish Catalonia in 1640. In this context, the Catholic Habsburgs managed to gain the support of their old rival Denmark, because Protestant Denmark sought to contain Protestant Sweden. France and Sweden continued to be supported by Protestant states, such as the Dutch provinces and Prussia. It was not until the death of Cardinal Richelieu, the chief minister of France, in 1648, that peace was able to be achieved. The Peace of Westphalia in 1648 ended the Thirty Years' War, establishing the idea of territorial integrity, and, along with the move from mercenary to professional armies, it consolidated the institution of modern nation-states. Furthermore, the Peace of Westphalia greatly upset the balance of power within Europe, since Sweden and Prussia emerged as new great powers, Bourbon France expanded its borders East and became the dominant land force in Europe, the Swiss had their independence guaranteed, Spain was forced to recognize Dutch independence, lost more land to France, and faced rebellions in Portugal, and the Holy Roman Empire was forced to officially recognize Calvinism and grant Calvinist states more freedom.



Above: Europe in 1618.

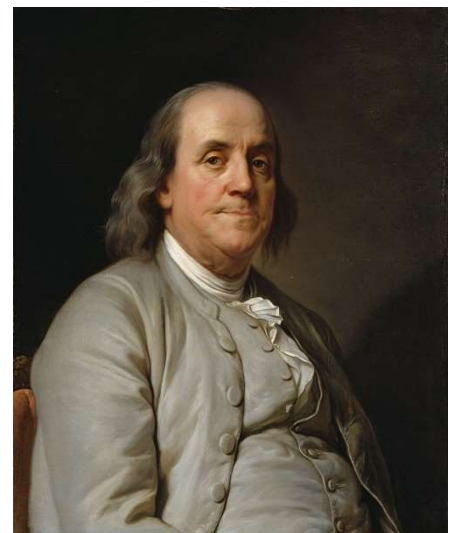


Above: Europe after the Peace of Westphalia, 1648.

Benjamin Franklin

Benjamin Franklin (1706–90) was one of the drafters and signers of the United States Declaration of Independence (4 July 1776) and the first United States Postmaster General. Superficially, he was sober in thought and deed, a rigorous polymath, and a diplomat of unquestioned integrity. But, privately, he was a British double agent with very eccentric tastes.

First of all, he joined the infamous Hell-Fire Club, where he met several British dignitaries, including the British Prime Minister John Stuart, 3rd Earl of Bute (a favorite of King George III of Great Britain), and the future British Chancellor of the Exchequer Sir Francis Dashwood, with whom he later corresponded secretly. In particular, Sir Francis Dashwood served as the Chancellor of the Exchequer between 1762–63 (when the Prime Minister was John Stuart, 3rd Earl of Bute), and he was Member of Parliament for Romney from 1741 to 1761 and for Weymouth and Melcombe Regis from 1761 to 1763.



Hell-Fire Club was a name for several exclusive clubs for high-society rakes established in England and Ireland during the eighteenth century. The most notorious club associated with this name was established in England by Sir Francis Dashwood. The official name of Dashwood's Hell-Fire Club was the Order of the Friars of St. Francis of Wycombe, and its motto was «Fais ce que tu voudras» («Do what

thou wilt»), indicating a way of life inspired by François Rabelais's fictional abbey of Thélème, which later also inspired the influential British occultist and spy Aleister Crowley. In general, those clubs served as the meeting places of members of the elites who wanted to indulge in what were socially perceived as immoral acts. Both at that time and later, such clubs provide the opportunity for spies to manipulate target persons through the manipulation of the central nervous system (e.g., through psychotropic drugs and heavy drinking and eating) and through the manipulation of the reproductive instinct (through various sexual practices, including sexual magic and paraphilias). Some of the members of Dashwood's Hell-Fire Club, or Order of the Friars of St. Francis of Wycombe, who were involved in British politics and intelligence were John Wilkes (a British radical journalist and politician), the Chevalier D'Eon de Beaumont (a French diplomat and spy, who joined English Freemasonry, enjoyed dressing like a woman, and, much to the delight of his British hosts, disclosed French government secrets), John Montagu, 4th Earl of Sandwich (who held various military and political offices, including Postmaster General, First Lord of Admiralty, and Secretary of State for the Northern Department), Thomas Potter (who sat in the House of Commons between 1747 and 1759), Paul Whitehead (who was a British satirist, spent a number of years in Fleet Prison, became a secretary of Dashwood's Hell-Fire Club, and, was appointed, though Sir Francis Dashwood, to a Deputy Treasurership of the Chamber), and Robert Vansittart (an English jurist, antiquarian, and notorious rake).

An occasional participant of Dashwood's Hell-Fire Club, or Order of the Friars of St. Francis of Wycombe, was Benjamin Franklin, especially during 1758, when he spent a long period of time in England. Moreover, during the period that he was serving as the United States Ambassador to France (1779–85), Benjamin Franklin allowed his friend and chief assistant Edward Bancroft to organize a British secret service cell within the U.S. Embassy in Paris. In fact, Edward Bancroft was a Massachusetts-born physician and chemist, spying for both the United States of America and Great Britain while serving as secretary to the U.S. Embassy in Paris during the American Revolution (see: Eric Evans Rafalko, *American Revolution to World War II*, U.S. National Counterintelligence Center, online: <https://irp.fas.org/ops/ci/docs/ci1/ch1c.htm>; George D. K. McCormick, *A History of the British Secret Service*, London: Frederick Muller, 1969, reprinted in paperback, London: Grafton, 1991; Richard Deacon, «Famous British Historian Claims Benjamin Franklin Was a British Spy,» *Argosy*, July 1970, online: <https://msuweb.montclair.edu/~furg/fc/deacononfranklin.html>). Thus, the information that Benjamin Franklin received from Washington, together with a great deal of intelligence passed by French authorities, found their way to London. While relations between Great Britain and its rebellious American colonies were deteriorating, Benjamin Franklin passed on information to London regarding the sailing dates and cargoes of ships bound for Washington's army.

Benjamin Franklin was aiming to maintain access to both camps. He knew that King George III of Great Britain would generously reward anyone who contributed to keeping the American colonies under British control, but, simultaneously, he should be prepared for the possibility that the American Revolution might fully succeed and, thus, lead to the complete independence of the American colonies from Great Britain. Thus, he also developed a network of counter-surveillance and manipulation that served the purposes of the American Revolution against the British. However, at the time of the peace negotiations, John Quincy Adams, who was a leader of the American Revolution and later

became the second President of the United States of America (1797–1801), expressed considerable doubt as to Benjamin Franklin's loyalty.