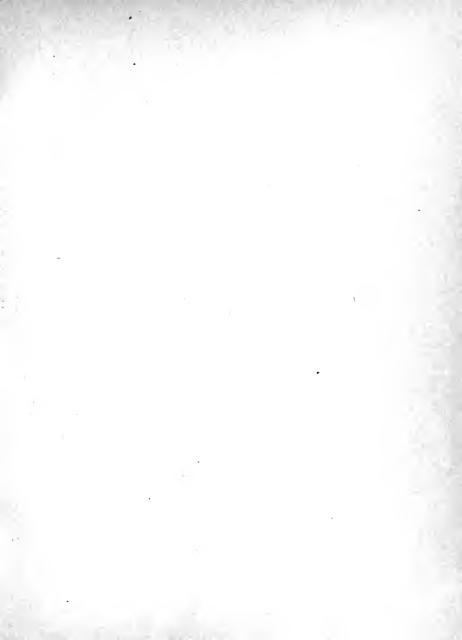
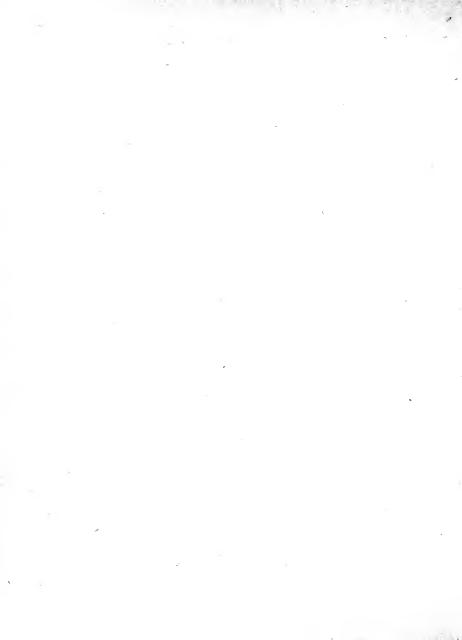




Digitized by the Internet Archive in 2008 with funding from Microsoft Corporation







BY THE SAME AUTHOR. •

- A HISTORY OF THE FRENCH REVOLU-TION. Vol. I., 1789-91; Vol. II., 1791-93 (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons).
- THE PRINCIPAL SPEECHES OF THE STATESMEN AND ORATORS OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION, 1789-1795. Edited with Introduction, Notes and Indices. 2 Vols. (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: The Macmillan Company).
- EUROPEAN HISTORY, 1789-1815 (Periods of European History Series; New York: The Macmillan Company).
- HISTORY OF PORTUGAL (Story of the Nations Series; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons).
- ALBUQUERQUE AND THE EARLY PÔR-TUGUESE SETTLEMENTS IN INDIA (Rulers of India Series. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: The Macmillan Company).

SYLLABUS

OF A

Course of Eighty-Seven Lectures

on

Modern European History

(1600-1890)

BV

H. MORSE STEPHENS

Professor of Modern European History in Cornell University



NEW YORK
THE MACMILLAN COMPANY
1903

D 209

COPYRIGHT, 1899 By H. Morse Stephens

Set up, electrotyped and printed October, 1899 Reprinted August, 1903



PRESS OF THE NEW ERA PRINTING COMPANY. LANCASTER, PA.

PREFACE.

This volume is the second, revised and enlarged edition, of a syllabus of lectures on modern European history, which has been used in Cornell University during the past five years. It is published in book form at the request of former pupils and of other teachers of history in colleges and universities.

The problem of teaching history is complicated with regard to modern European history by certain special considerations. Whatever may be said for or against the lecture method as opposed to the holding of recitations on a text-book, either with classes of young students or in such subjects as English or American history, in which the subject-matter is more easily made intelligible, there can be no doubt of the expediency of the lecture method in teaching modern European history to classes in colleges and universities. The complexity of the subject, the impossibility, arising from this very complexity, of providing an adequate text-book, the strangeness of the proper names, and the confusion of the historical perspective, owing to the absence of any particular centralizing institution or motive, contribute to make teaching through lectures the accepted method of instruction in modern European history. The best that can be done is, in each successive lecture, to fix the attention of the class upon some of the changing phases of the subject, and to indicate where and how fuller information can be obtained.

This may be done by lecturing upon topics already studied by the class in an approved text-book, which is also brought into the lecture room, but there are certain special advantages in the use of a syllabus. The practical assistance in the taking of notes may be counted as the chief of these advantages. It is hardly practicable for listeners to a lecture to use the actual pages of the text-book as a guide in taking notes. There is an inevitable difficulty in apprehending and inserting the additional matter introduced by the lecturer in his treatment of the subject. The literary form of the text-book and the diffusion of matter over a number of pages also distract attention from the words of the lecturer. There is next to be noted the question of dates. Unless the

more important dates to be given in the lecture are conspicuously written upon the blackboard or previously extracted from the pages of the text-book, it is almost impossible for the members of the class to get them correctly, however often they may be repeated. Still more difficult is it to take down correctly in notes proper names of unusual difficulty in foreign languages. The pronunciation seldom indicates the right spelling, and when in the course of a lecture French, German, Italian, Polish and Russian proper names all have to be mentioned, it is too much to expect that they can be correctly heard or rendered.

A syllabus containing the skeleton of a lecture, and giving the bare facts in the order in which they are to be treated, with the dates and proper names to be mentioned, is of positive value before, during, and after the lecture hour. In the first place, it is possible for the students, by looking through the syllabus of the lecture they are about to attend, to note the arrangement of the subject and to get a general idea of the manner in which it is to be handled. During the lecture hour, they have before them the skeleton of the facts which it is the teacher's business to develop and illustrate. They can take their notes either upon pages interleaved in the syllabus itself, or in a note-book with references to the corresponding pages and paragraphs. They are not distracted by the effort to catch dates correctly, or to spell unfamiliar words in foreign languages. After the lecture it is possible to review their knowledge of the subject with the certainty that they have correctly before them all the main facts, which have been narrated and made the subject of comment.

It is not, of course, to be asserted that the use of a syllabus necessarily dispenses with the use of a text-book. On the contrary, it presupposes either the use of a textbook or a considerable amount of supplementary reading. It is advisable for the lecturer, when entering upon a new topic to review briefly the secondary and primary authorities dealing with it, and it is hoped that the bibliographies affixed to each lecture in the present Syllabus may be of use in this respect. Every teacher of history has his own preferences with regard to text-books, and some may choose, like the compiler of this Syllabus, to refer his students directly to brief secondary authorities rather than to any one particular text-book. It need hardly be added that during the lecture

hour the syllabus should always be supplemented by a good historical atlas, such as Putzger's *Historischer Schul-Atlas*, and that large wall maps, such as MacCoun's, are indispensable for purposes of illustration. It is always well to prefix to a course of lectures on modern European history a general sketch of the historical geography of Europe.

Some points with regard to the Syllabus now published need special explanation.

First, the number of lectures has been decided by the consideration that eighty-seven lectures allow for three lectures a week for twentynine weeks, which is as much time as can be given during the college year to a single introductory course in modern European history. Where a greater number of lectures can be given or a longer period than one year it is possible to devote more than an hour to a single lecture topic. Where the number of lectures proves too great, the difficulty may be met by beginning the course at some date later than 1600, such as 1648 or 1715, or by stopping at some earlier date, such as 1815 or 1848. A course of lectures may also be given upon any one of the three centuries. Differences of opinion with regard to proportion and to perspective in modern European history necessarily exist. The arrangement adopted would need too long a defense to be entered upon in a brief preface, but it may be stated that it has stood the test of five years' experience. Other teachers might prefer to begin earlier or later, or might prefer to devote more time to the period of the French Revolution and of Napoleon, but the conditions in Cornell University make it expedient to begin this course with the Seventeenth Century; while the compiler gives, in alternate years, special advanced courses on the period of the French Revolution and on the Napoleonic Era. The syllabuses of certain lectures, as for instance those upon the War of the Austrian Succession and upon the Seven Years' War, are excessively long, and need more than one hour's discourse, but the advantage of comprehending each topic as a whole has seemed to outweigh the disadvantage of the exceeding length of an occasional syllabus. It will be noted that the length of the syllabuses increases as they progress; this is partly due to the greater complexity of the later period, owing to the larger number of important political factors, and partly due to the fact that students as they get accustomed to the subject and to the use of the Syllabus can handle a greater quantity of material. A knowledge of English and American history is presupposed and therefore events in the internal history of England and the United States are not touched upon.

It will be observed that the side of modern European history treated in this Syllabus is the political. The primary object is the study of the international relations of the different states of Europe from the beginning of the Seventeenth Century to the present time. The internal development of each state is only touched upon or summarized at intervals. as when a new principle of national government comes into existence and works its way through Europe, such as that expressed in the system and ideas of the monarchy of Louis XIV., and of the enlightened despotism, and in the movement for popular government which followed the French Revolution. No attempt is made in these lectures to deal with the history of European civilization or "Kulturgeschichte," although political history, when adequately treated, affords many opportunities for dwelling upon the general history of human progress. It has been found of advantage, however, to pause occasionally in the political narrative, in order to touch in the briefest possible manner upon the history of literature, philosophy, art and science. Six lectures in three groups are interpolated upon these subjects at appropriate dates. The syllabuses of these six lectures are on a different plan from those on political history, and are intended to bring out the great contemporary movements of thought and art, through the names of the leading masters, rather than to attempt an exhaustive treatment. It is important to know in what period of European political history Molière wrote, or Rembrandt painted, or Beethoven composed his symphonies, even if it is not possible to dwell upon their achievements in their own special lines of work.

Since one of the chief uses of a syllabus of lectures on modern European history is to keep before the students' eyes the dates of important facts, not so much to impress them upon the memory as to make clear the chronological sequence of events, the greatest care has been used to give correct dates; but it is inevitable that in such a mass of dates as is contained in this Syllabus, mistakes must have been committed, or passed over in the process of printing. In every case the Gregorian date

is given and this causes an apparent discrepancy with the dates given in many primary and secondary authorities. It is devoutly to be wished that modern historians would always convert dates in the history of Protestant countries, until they adopted the "new style", and of Russia and other countries under the Greek Church, into the Gregorian dates. It may be noted here that, although the Gregorian calendar was accepted in all Roman Catholic countries and in the provinces of Holland and Zealand by 1587, it was not adopted in the Protestant states of the Empire, the remainder of the Protestant Netherlands, and Denmark until 1700, in the Protestant cantons of Switzerland until 1701, in Great Britain until 1752, and in Sweden until 1753, and that it has not yet been adopted in Russia, Greece and the Balkan States.

This Syllabus contains not only a mass of dates, but also, as has been already explained, a mass of proper names, and a few words must be said as to the system of spelling adopted. With regard to the names of individuals, the Anglicized forms of Christian names have been used wherever possible. Thus, Charles, Henry and John have been used in the place of their French, German, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Swedish and Danish equivalents. An apparent exception is made in case of Louis, which is now so far accepted in English as to have superseded the older spelling of Lewis. With regard to surnames, the spelling of the country of origin has been adopted, except in such cases as that of Mazarin, in which it would be pedantic to continue the original spelling of Mazarini. A far greater problem is presented by the spelling of names in Russian and other Slavonic languages. It has been thought better to adopt the Anglicized forms of such Christian names as Peter. Alexander and Nicholas; but Ivan, Feodor and Vasili, in accordance with the best modern usage, have been retained in spite of the temptation to change them into John, Theodore and Basil, Slavonic surnames have been transliterated directly into English upon the principles already adopted in the author's Europe, 1789-1815, and more fully explained in Mr. J. B. Landfield's article in the American Historical Review, vol. 2, pp. 766-768. This is the only rational method of spelling Slavonic proper names, since neither the French nor the German transliterations indicate the correct pronunciation in English. Muhammadan names are spelled according to the Hunterian standard, which has been adopted by the British Government of India.

With regard to the spelling of names of places, the rule adopted has been to use the English spelling wherever an English spelling has been established. No one will contest the correctness of using Florence, Lyons and Vienna for Firenze, Lyon and Wien, nor the adoption of an English usage wherever it can be found, as in the case of Strasburg. Basle and Ratisbon. Where the name of the place has both a French and a German form, as in the Rhenish provinces, it has been thought better to retain the French form of spelling, since Cologne for Köln, Trèves for Trier, Mayence for Mainz, Munich for München, Nimeguen for Nymwegen, and some others are not only the French forms, but have also been practically adopted into English. It would be absurd to speak of the Treaty of Aachen, when the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle is the recognized designation in every English document and book. For all places of minor importance, except Blenheim, the local spelling has been retained. A new departure has been made in rejecting the forms Roumania and Rumania, which are based upon French and German spellings, and using the correct form Romania.

The appended tables of rulers and ministers have been found of practical value in teaching, by the opportunity afforded of seeing at a glance the names of contemporary rulers. The number of genealogical appendices might have been greatly increased, but the three given explain the three most confusing genealogical puzzles of modern European history.

It is most essential, if the study of modern European history is to be of greater value than to provide a mere skeleton knowledge, that every student should be required during his undergraduate course to work out particular problems for himself and to familiarize himself with some field of historical literature. It has been the custom in Cornell University, during the past five years, to demand each term of every student an essay, which shall not be a mere paraphrase of hastily read books, but an exercise in using historical materials. Out of the need for providing authorities for these essay subjects arose the compilation of the bibliographies subjoined to the syllabus of each lecture. These bibliographies do not pretend to be complete, and they necessarily show, by their greater fullness on some subjects than on others, the bias of the compiler's own studies. An honest attempt has been made, however, to give the names of books generally recognized as secondary authori-

ties, with a list of the chief primary authorities, and occasionally reference is made to some small book in English for a brief summary. Most of these bibliographies mention only books, which should be in every good college library, and it is hoped that they may be serviceable on this account to teachers of history, who desire to know to what books to refer their students. Much assistance has been derived in revising the bibliographies for the second edition of this Syllabus from the excellent bibliographies contained in Lavisse and Rambaud's *Histoire générale*. A list of some of the most useful historical bibliographies, collections of primary authorities, general histories, and other works of a general character, is appended to this preface.

It remains to be said that the first edition of this Syllabus has been used for the past five years in Cornell University with a class consisting chiefly of juniors, who have already had courses in Mediaeval and English history, and that it has been found to give a fair basis on which to found more detailed courses for seniors, as well as to afford some preliminary training, both in historical perspective and in the use of historical materials. The thanks of the compiler are especially due, and are hereby given, to Mr. G. M. Dutcher, A.B., of Cornell University, to whose painstaking care this revised edition owes its superior accuracy over its predecessor.

H. MORSE STEPHENS.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N. Y. July, 1899.

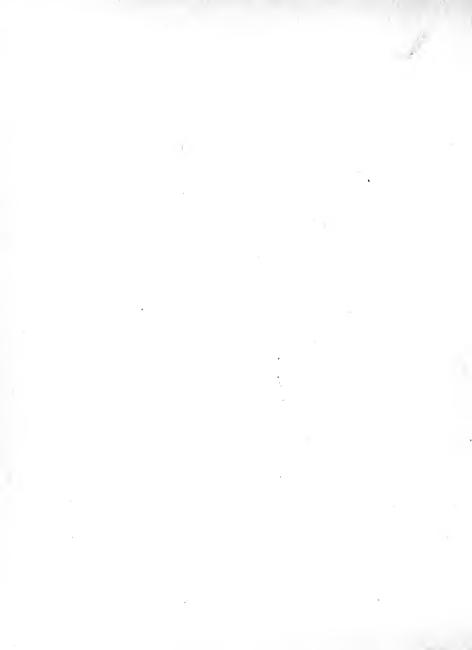


TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Pa	ge.
Gen	eral Bibliography,	xv
	LECTURES.	
ı.	Introductory: Europe in 1600,	1
2.	The Policy of Henry IV. of France,	2
3.	The Thirty Years' War: To the Death of Gustavus Adolphus and	
	of Wallenstein,	4
4.	The Policy of Richelieu,	7
5.	The Thirty Years' War: From 1634 to 1648,	9
6.	The Treaties of Westphalia,	II
7.	The Fronde, and the Treaty of the Pyrenees,	14
8.	Europe in the Middle of the 17th Century: 1. France,	17
9.	Europe in the Middle of the 17th Century: 2. The Empire, the	
	House of Austria, and the German Princes,	19
IO.	Europe in the Middle of the 17th Century: 3. The Netherlands, .	22
II.	Europe in the Middle of the 17th Century: 4. Sweden and Denmark,	25
12.	Europe in the Middle of the 17th Century: 5. Russia and Poland,	2S
13.	Europe in the Middle of the 17th Century: 6. The Ottoman Turks,	30
14.	Europe in the Middle of the 17th Century: 7. Italy,	33
15.	Europe in the Middle of the 17th Century: 8. Spain and Portugal,	36
16.	France under Louis XIV. and Colbert: To the Revocation of the	5.
	Edict of Nantes, 1685,	38
17.	The Foreign Policy of Louis XIV.: To the Treaties of Nimeguen,	50
•	1678,	41
18.	Frederick William, the Great Elector,	45
19.	The Foreign Policy of Louis XIV.: To the Treaties of Ryswick,	40
	1697,	47
20.	The Siege of Vienna by the Turks, 1683: Poland under John So-	7,
	bieski,	51
21.	Russia under Peter the Great,	54
22.	Charles XII. of Sweden,	56
23.	The Spanish Succession,	59
24.	The War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-14,	61
25.	The Treaties of Utrecht,	65
26.	Germany to 1715	67

27.	The Southern Countries of Europe to 1715,	73
28.	The Papacy in the 17th Century: The Jesuits and the Jansenists, .	76
29.	The Last Years of the Reign of Louis XIV.,	79
30.	Literature and Philosophy in the 17th Century,	82
31.	Art and Science in the 17th Century,	84
32.	The Regency of Orleans, and the Schemes of Alberoni,	86
33.	The End of the Northern War,	89
34.	The Policy of the Emperor Charles VI.,	91
35.	The War of the Polish Succession,	93
36.	Frederick William I. of Prussia, and the Tsaritsa Anne of	70
	Russia,	96
37.	The War of the Austrian Succession,	99
38.	The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and the Austro-French Alliance, .	105
39.	The Seven Years' War,	108
40.	France under Louis XV.,	112
41.	The Suppression of the Jesuits,	115
42.	The First Partition of Poland,	118
43.	The War of American Independence,	122
44.	France under Louis XVI.,	124
45.	Prussia under Frederick the Great,	127
46.	Russia under Catherine the Great,	131
47.	The Emperor Joseph II.,	135
48.	The Northern Countries of Europe to 1789,	139
49.	The Southern Countries of Europe to 1789,	144
50.	Germany to 1789,	149
51.	The Enlightened Despots,	153
52.	Literature and Philosophy in the 18th Century,	156
53.	Art and Science in the 18th Century,	158
54.	The French Revolution,	162
55.	The Belgian Revolution, and the Policy of the Emperor Leopold II.,	165
56.	The War of the French Republic against Europe	169
57.	The Second and Third Partitions of Poland,	173
58.	The Treaties of Basle,	176
59.	The French Directory, and the First Victories of Bonaparte,	179
60.	The Second Coalition against the French Republic,	184
61.	The Treaties of Lunéville and of Amiens,	187
62.	The Consulate in France, and the Re-constitution of Germany, .	190
63.	The Power of Napoleon at its Height,	193
64.	Europe during the Ascendency of Napoleon,	197
65.	The Overthrow of the Power of Napoleon,	201
66.	The Congress of Vienna,	205
67.	The Holy Alliance.	

	Table of Contents.	XIII
68.	The Eastern Question: The Independence of Greece,	213
69.	The Revolution of 1830 in France,	217
70.	The Belgian Insurrection,	220
71.	Insurrection and Civil War in Spain and Portugal,	223
72.	Europe during the Reign of Louis Philippe,	226
73.	The Revolution of 1848 in France,	231
74.	The Revolution of 1848 in Italy,	235
75.	The Revolution of 1848 in Austria,	239
76.	The Revolution of 1848 in Germany,	244
77.	Europe after the Revolutions of 1848,	247
78.	Literature and Philosophy from 1789 to 1848,	251
79.	Art and Science from 1789 to 1848,	254
80.	The Eastern Question: The Crimean War,	257
81.	The Union of Italy,	261
82.	The Overthrow of Austria,	265
83.	The Re-constitution of Germany and Austria,	269
84.	The Franco-German War,	274
85.	Europe after the Franco-German War: The Dreikaiserbund,	278
86.	The Eastern Question: The Russo-Turkish War, 1877-78,	282
87.	Europe to 1890: The Triple Alliance,	286
	APPENDIX.	
I.		293
II.	The Rulers of Europe from 1600 to 1899: The Lesser Powers, .	300
III.	The Rulers of Europe from 1600 to 1899: Italy,	305
IV.		310
v.	The Rulers of Independent and Semi-independent States formed	
	from the Turkish Empire during the 19th Century,	315
VI.	Genealogical Table representing the Relationship of the Claim-	
	ants to the Spanish Succession (1700),	317
VII.	Genealogical Table representing the Succession to the Russian	
	Throne in the 18th Century,	318
JIII.	Genealogical Table representing the Claimants to the Austrian	
	Succession (1740) and the Children of Maria Theresa,	319



General Bibliography.

Bibliographies.

Langlois: Manuel de bibliographie historique. Monod: Bibliographie de l'histoire de France. Franklin: Les sources de l'histoire de France.

Dahlmann-Waitz: Quellenkunde der deutschen Geschichte. (ed. Steindorff.)

Pirenne: Bibliographie de l'histoire de Belgique.

Historische Gesellschaft zu Berlin: Jahresberichte der Geschichtswissenschaft. (Since 1878.)

Atlases.

Putzger: Historischer Schul-Atlas.

Poole: Historical Atlas of Modern Europe. (Clarendon Press.—In course of publication.)

Schrader: Atlas de géographie historique.

Droysen: Allgemeiner historischer Hand-Atlas.

Spruner-Menke: Hand-Atlas für die Geschichte des Mittelalters und der neueren Zeit.

Chronologies.

Bond: Handy-Book of Rules and Tables for Verifying Dates.

Ploetz: Epitome of Universal History. (ed. Tillinghast, to 1883.)

Hassall: Handbook of European History, 476-1871.

Ghillany: Europäische Chronik von 1492 bis Ende April, 1877. L'art de vérifier les dates des faits historiques. (To 1827.)

Belviglieri: Tavole sincrone e genealogiche di storia italiana dal 300 al 1870.

Genealogies.

Lorenz: Genealogisches Handbuch der europäischen Staatengeschichte.

Grote: Stammtafeln.

George: Genealogical Tables illustrative of Modern History.

Almanach de Gotha. (Since 1764.)

Historical Dictionaries.

Haydn: Dictionary of Dates.

Harper's Book of Facts. (Ed. Lewis. American edition of Haydn.)

Herbst: Encyklopädie der neueren Geschichte. Lalanne: Dictionnaire historique de la France.

Biographical Dictionaries.

Thomas: Universal Pronouncing Dictionary of Biography and Mythology (1886).

Œttinger: Moniteur des dates. (1869, with supplements to 1882.)

Michaud: Biographie universelle. (1854-65.)

Hoefer: Nouvelle biographie générale. (1857-66.)

Vapereau: Dictionnaire universel des contemporains. (Sixth edition, 1892.) Stephen and Lee: Dictionary of National Biography. (1885—In progress.) Liliencron and Wegele: Allgemeine deutsche Biographie. (1877—In progress.) Wurzbach: Biographisches Lexicon des Kaiserthums Œsterreich. (1856–91.)

Van der Aa: Biographisch Woordenboek der Nederlanden. (1852-78.)

General Histories.

Hassall: Periods of European History. (To 1815—final volume to appear.)

Lavisse and Rambaud: Histoire générale du ive siècle à nos jours. (To 1871—final volume to appear.)

Collections of Histories.

(Putnams'): The Story of the Nations.

Oncken: Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen.

Heeren, Ukert, Giesebrecht and Lamprecht: Geschichte der europäischen Staaten.

General Histories of Countries.

Martin: Histoire de France. (To 1789.)

Sismondi: Histoire des Français. (To 1789.)

Michelet: Histoire de France. (To 1789.)

Dareste: Histoire de France. (To 1848.)

Lafuente: Historia general de España. (To 1789.)

Canovas del Castillo: Historia general de España escrita por individuos de numero de la Real Academia de la Historia.

Botta: Storia d'Italia. (To 1789.)

Cantú: Histoire des Italiens. (Tr. Lacombe, to 1856.)

Daru: Histoire de la république de Venise. (To 1798.)

Müller, Gloutz-Blozheim and Hottinger: Histoire de la confédération suisse; traduite de l'allemand et continuée par Monard et Vulliemin. (To 1815.)

Finlay: History of Greece. (To 1864.),

Hammer: Histoire de l'empire ottoman. (Tr. Hellert, to 1774.)

Sayous: Histoire générale des Hongrois. (To 1815.)

Xénopol: Histoire des Roumains de la Dacie Trajane. (To 1859.)

Rambaud: History of Russia. (Tr. Lang, to 1891.)

Léger: History of Austro-Hungary. (Tr. Hill, to 1889.)

Krones: Handbuch der Geschichte Æsterreichs. (To 1870.)

Allen: Histoire de Danemark. (Tr. Beauvois, to 1866.)

Blok: History of the People of the Netherlands. (Tr. Bierstadt and Putnam. In progress.)

Juste: Histoire de Belgique. (To 1865.)

Historical Geographies.

Freeman: Historical Geography of Europe. (To 1879.)

Himly: Histoire de la formation territoriale des états de l'Europe centrale.

(Second Ed., to 1890.)

Hertslet: Map of Europe by Treaty, 1814-1891.

Collections of Memoirs.

Petitot and Monmerqué: Collection complète des mémoires relatifs à l'histoire de France depuis l'avénement de Henri IV. jusqu'à la paix de Paris, conclue en 1763.

Michaud and Poujoulat: Nouvelle collection des mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de France depuis le XIII° siècle jusqu'à la fin du XVIII° siècle.

Collections of Treaties and Diplomatic Correspondence.

Dumont and Rousset de Missy: Corps universel diplomatique du droit des gens contenant un recueil des traitéz. (To 1737.)

Wenck: Codex juris gentium recentissimi. (1735-1772.)

Martens: Recueil de traités etc., depuis 1761 jusqu'à present. (Continued by others, with slight changes of title, to the present day.)

Martens: Recueil des traités et conventions conclus par la Russie avec les puissances étrangères.

Sorel: Recueil des instructions données aux ambassadeurs et ministres de France depuis les traités de Westphalie jusqu'à la Révolution française.

National Collections of Documents.

France: Collection de documents inédits sur l'histoire de France. (Since 1835.)

Spain: Coleccion de documentos inéditos para la historia de España. (Since 1842.)

Netherlands: Werken uitgegeven door het Historisch Genootschap, gevestigd te Utrecht. (Since 1846.)

Austro-Hungary: Fontes Rerum Austriacarum. Æsterreichische Geschichts-Quellen. (Since 1855.)

Russia: Russkoe Istoricheskoe Obshchestvo: Sbornik. (Since 1867).

Prussia: Publicationen aus den k. preussischen Staatsarchiven. (Since 1878.)

Publications of Academies.

Académie des sciences morales et politiques: Mémoires. (Since 1798.) Comptes rendus des séances et travaux. (Since 1840.)

Die königliche bayerische Akademie der Wissenschaften zu München: Gelehrte Anzeigen. (1835-1860.) Sitzungsberichte. (Since 1860.)

Die königliche preussische Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin: Bericht über die zur Bekanntmachung geeigneten Verhandlungen. (1836–1855.) Monatsberichte. (1856–1881.) Sitzungsberichte. (Since 1882.)

Die kaiserliche Akademie der Wissenschaften (Vienna): Sitzungsberichte. (Since 1848.) Denkschriften. (Since 1850.) Archiv für Kunde österreichischer Geschichts-Quellen. (1848-1865.) Archiv für österreichische Geschichte. (Since 1865.)

Königlich Sächsischen Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften zu Leipzig: Berichte. (Since 1849.) Abhandlungen. (Since 1850.)

Historical Reviews.

Historische Zeitschrift. (Since 1859.) Revue des questions historiques. (Since 1866.) Revue historique. (Since 1876.) English Historical Review. (Since 1886.) American Historical Review. (Since 1895.)

LECTURES

ON

MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY.

LECTURE 1.

INTRODUCTORY:

EUROPE IN 1600.

The first half of the 17th century was marked by the same characteristics as the last half of the 16th, but traces of the modern European system, which existed after the Treaties of Westphalia and of the Pyrenees, were to be seen in the policy pursued by Henry IV. of France and Cardinal Richelieu.

The period covered by the 16th and first half of the 17th century was a period of transition from the ferment caused by the Reformation, the discovery of the New World and of the direct sea route to Asia, the invention of printing, etc., to the more settled conditions of internal government and international relations, which lasted from the Treaties of Westphalia to the French Revolution.

The characteristic features of this transition period were the Wars of Religion.

Causes of the Wars of Religion: the earnestness imparted by the Reformation supplemented by the work of the Counter-Reformation; so that war on behalf of religion, and persecution came to be considered religious duties; religious intolerance among earnest men matched by the unscrupulous conduct of politicians.

During the Wars of Religion the sense of National Unity began to be felt, binding peoples by their countries rather than by their faiths: in this way the Wars of Religion helped to modify the results of feudalism. Different effects of the Wars of Religion in different countries, e. g., (1) in the Netherlands, (2) in France, (3) in Germany.

Tendency toward strong government and standing armies to avert the horrors of religious and civil wars; France being the first country to obey this tendency became, during the first half of the 17th century, the most important nation in Europe.

Where the national spirit developed, countries became strong in spite of religious internal differences, e. g., France, England, the United Provinces.

Relative position of the powers of Europe toward each other in 1600. The condition of Germany: unsatisfactory settlement made of the religious question by the Peace of Augsburg (1555); the pretensions and actual strength of the Holy Roman Empire; the electors, and the princes of the Empire; certainty of further religious war in Germany.

The Papacy: its increased spiritual strength after the Council of Trent (1545-1563), due to the Counter-Reformation and the work of the Jesuits.

In the year 1600, although religious war impended in Germany owing to German conditions, it was practically at its close elsewhere, for Henry IV. had just issued the Edict of Nantes, Philip II. of Spain was just dead, and Elizabeth of England was at the very end of her reign.

LECTURE 2.

THE POLICY OF HENRY IV. OF FRANCE.

The character and early career of Henry IV. (b. 1553). His part in the Wars of Religion in France.

On the death of Henry III. (1589), Henry of Bourbon, who had been King of Navarre since 1572, claimed the throne of France as next male heir; his struggles as Huguenot leader against the Catholics.

He adopted the Catholic religion (1593), and thus became a national king.

The issue of the Edict of Nantes (13 April, 1598), and the pacification of the Huguenots: terms of the Edict.

Conclusion of the war with Philip II. of Spain by the Treaty of Vervins (2 May, 1598): terms of the treaty.

The internal policy of Henry IV. as worked out by the Duc de Sully (b. 1560, d. 1641).

- i. His absolutism in government; justified by the turbulence and want of patriotism of the nobles: execution of Biron (31 July, 1602).
- ii. His administrative reforms.
- iii. His judicial reforms: seats in the Parlements made hereditary.
- iv. His financial reforms: the new taxation.
 - v. His advancement of the material prosperity of his people:
 - a. by encouraging agriculture: Olivier de Serres.
 - b. by undertaking public works.
 - c. by establishing manufactures.
 - d. by reviving commerce.
- vi. His interest in trans-Atlantic exploration and emigration: foundation of Annapolis (1604), of Quebec (1608).

The foreign policy of Henry IV.: the "Grand Design": the question of its authenticity.

Assassination of Henry IV. at Paris by François Ravaillac (14 May, 1610): its effect on France and on Europe.

Authorities: The most recent small book in English on the life of Henry IV. is a biography by Willert. The best secondary authorities are Poirson, Histoire du règne de Henri IV., 4 vols.; Guadet, Henri IV. sa vie et ses écrits; Perrens, Les mariages espagnols sous le règne de Henri IV. et la régence de Marie de Medicis, and L'Église et l'État en France sous le règne de Henri IV. et la régence de Marie de Medicis; Zeller, Henri IV. et Marie de Medicis; Lacombe, Henri IV. et sa politique; Philippson, Heinrich IV. und Philipp III.; Anquez, Henri IV. et l'Allemagne, d'après les mémoires et la correspondance de Jacques Bongars; Rott, Henry IV., les Suisses et la Haute-Italie; Kermaingant, L'ambassade de France en Angleterre sous Henri IV.; Puyol, Edm. Richer: étude sur la renovation du gallicanisme au commencement du XVII. ième siècle, 2 vols.; Read, Henri IV. et le ministre Daniel Chamier; Henrard, Henri IV. et la princesse de Condé; and Féret, Henri IV. et l'Église; sec also the essays on "La France sous Henri IV." in Hanotaux, Études Historiques sur le XVIIe et le XVIIe siècle, and on

"Ravaillac et ses complices" in Loiseleur, Questions historiques du XVII. siècle, as well as Vol. 1, chap. 6 of Les Finances françaises, by the Baron de Nervo. Short excerpts from the primary authorities are to be found in three volumes in the series edited by Zeller, Henri IV. et Sully, Henri IV. et Biron, and La Fin de Henri IV. The chief primary authorities are the various collections of the letters of Henry IV., including the Lettres missives, ed. Berger de Xivrey and Guadet, 9 vols., in the Documents inédits, the Lettres intimes, a selection ed. Dussieux, and the Correspondance avec Maurice le Savant, ed. De Rommel; Benoit, Histoire de l'Édit de Nantes, 5 vols.; the first three volumes of M. Ritter, Briefe und Acten zur Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Krieges; the Mémoires of Villeroy; the contemporary histories of Mathieu, Agrippa d'Aubigné and De Thou; the Mémoires-journaux of L'Estoile; the Chronologie novenaire and Chronologie septenaire of Palma Cayet; the Négociations of Jeannin; the Journal of Bassompierre; and above all, the Économies royales, or Mémoires, of Sully, with the recent criticisms by Pfister in the Revue Historique, vols. 54, 55, 56.

LECTURE 3.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR: TO THE DEATH OF GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS AND OF WALLENSTEIN.

The approach of renewed religious war in Germany: changes in German conditions since the Peace of Augsburg (1555); political effect of the Reformation; secularization of ecclesiastical states.

The spread of Calvinism: the Ecclesiastical Reservation; the Counter-Reformation.

Forewarnings of the war: (1) the case of the Elector of Cologne (1584); (2) the case of the city of Aix-la-Chapelle (1589); (3) the case of the town of Donauwörth (1607).

Formation of the Protestant Union (1608), and of the Cathoile League (1609).

The Emperor and his political position in Germany: the three lay electors—the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Duke of Saxony, and the Elector Palatine; the three ecclesiastical electors—the Archbishops of Mayence, Cologne, and Trèves; the Duke of Bavaria.

The Emperor as head of the House of Hapsburg: his position in

Bohemia, in Austria, and in Hungary; the Emperors Rudolph II. (1576-1612), and Matthias (1612-1619).

The disputed succession to Juliers-Cleves (1609): interference of Henry IV. of France and the Dutch.

The outbreak of the Thirty Years' War: the "throwing from the windows" at Prague (23 May, 1618); accession of Ferdinand II., and election of Frederick V., Elector Palatine, who had married Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England, as King of Bohemia (1619); the battle of the White Mountain (8 Nov., 1620), and occupation of the Rhenish or Lower Palatinate by Spanish troops (Apr., 1621); the Duke of Bavaria made an Elector (1623), and granted the Upper Palatinate; triumph of the Catholic League; Tilly (b. 1559), in command of the army of the League, defeated the Margrave of Baden at Wimpfen (6 May, 1622), and Christian of Brunswick at Höchst (20 July, 1622) and at Stadtlohn (6 Aug., 1623).

Intervention of Christian IV., King of Denmark, in aid of the Protestants (1625): Wallenstein (b. 1583), in command of the Emperor's army, defeated Mansfeld at Dessau (25 Apr., 1626); death of Christian of Brunswick (9 June); Tilly defeated the Danes at Lutter (27 Aug.); death of Mansfeld (29 Nov.); the siege of Stralsund (1628); Christian IV. made peace at Lübeck (22 May, 1629).

Height of the Catholic success: the Emperor Ferdinand II. issued the Edict of Restitution (6 March, 1629); Diet of Ratisbon (1630); dismissal of Wallenstein.

Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, induced to come to the rescue of Protestantism: his conquest of Pomerania (1630); the sack of Magdeburg by Tilly (20 May, 1631); the Electors of Brandenburg and Saxony forced to join Gustavus Adolphus; the battle of Breitenfeld or Leipzig (17 Sept., 1631); the policy of Gustavus; his march to the Rhine; defeat of Tilly at the Lech (15 Apr., 1632); death of Tilly (20 Apr.); the conquest of Bavaria and the capture of Munich by Gustavus; Wallenstein recalled; Gustavus Adolphus killed at the battle of Lützen (16 Nov., 1632).

The character of Gustavus Adolphus; his military genius; the Swedish nation and army; his political schemes; the startling changes caused by his intervention in the Thirty Years' War, and by his death.

Assassination of Wallenstein (25 Feb., 1634); his character and political aims.

End of the earnest period of the Thirty Years' War.

Authorities: Of small books in English, Gardiner, The Thirty Years' War, and Fletcher, Life of Gustavus Adolphus, may be recommended. In French, Charvériat, Histoire de la guerre de Trente ans, 2 vols., is readable, and in German, Winter, Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Krieges. The best secondary histories for the early part of the war are, Gindely, Geschichte des dreissigiährigen Krieges, 5 vols., of which a popular and abridged edition has been translated into English by Ten Brook, and Klopp, Der dreissigjährige Krieg bis zum Tode Gustav Adolfs, 3 vols.; Schiller, Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Krieges, is still read as a German classic: among more special books should be noted Huber, Geschichte Esterreichs, vol. v.; Gindely, Rudolf II. und seine Zeit (1608-1612), 2 vols.: Stieve. Der Ursprung des dreissigjährigen Krieges; Ritter, Geschichte der Deutschen Union (1598-1612); Hurter, Geschichte Kaiser Ferdinands II., 4 vols., being vols. viii. to xi. of his Geschichte Kaiser Ferdinands II. und seiner Eltern; Markham, The Fighting Veres; Opel, Der Niedersächsich-Dänische Krieg; Droysen, Gustav Adolf; Gfrörer, Gustav Adolf, König von Schweden, und seine Zeit, 3 vols.; Harte, History of Gustavus Adolphus, 2 vols.; Vincent Chapman, History of Gustavus Adolphus and of the Thirty Years' War, 2 vols.; Dodge, Gustavus Adolphus; Bühring, Venedig, Gustav Adolf und Rohan; K. A. Müller, Kürfurst Johann Georg der Erste: Ranke, Geschichte Wallensteins; Gindely, Waldstein während seines ersten Generalats, 2 vols.; Förster, Wallenstein als Feldherr und Landesfürst: Von Janko, Wallenstein: Hurter, Zur Geschichte Wallensteins, and Wallensteins vier letzten Lebensjahre: Gädeke, Wallensteins Verhandlungen mit den Schweden und Sachsen (1631-1634); Hildebrandt, Wallenstein und seine Verbindungen mit den Schweden; Hallwich, Wallenstein's Ende, and Gestalten aus Wallensteins Lager; Klopp, Tilly, and Villermont, Tilly, and Ernest de Mansfeldt. Among primary authorities consult Abelin, Theatrum Europæum, 2 vols., and Arma Suecica, 4 vols.; J. L. Gottfried, Fortgesetze historische Chronick; Lotichius, Rerum Germanicarum sub Matthia, Ferdinandis II. et III. imperatoribus gestarum libri 55; Khevenhüller, Annales Ferdinandei, 12 vols; Brachelius, Historia sui temporis; Riccius, De bellis Germanicis libri x.; Gualdo Priorato, Historia delle guerre di Ferdinando II., e Ferdinando III., imperatori, e del rè Filippo IV. di Spagna contra Gostava Adolfo, rè di Svetia, e Luigi XIII., rè di Francia (1630-1640); Konung Gustaf II. Adolfs Skrifter, ed. Styffe; Irmer, Die Verhandlungen Schwedens und seiner Verbündeten mit Wallenstein und dem Kaiser, 3 vols.; Förster's and other collections of Wallenstein's Letters; M. Ritter, Briefe und Acten zur Geschichte des dreissigjährigen Krieges in den Zeiten des vorwaltenden Einflusses der Wittelsbacher, 5 vols., and Gardiner, Letters and other Documents illustrating the relations between England and Germany at the commencement of the Thirty Years' War (Camden Society, 1865).

LECTURE 4.

THE POLICY OF RICHELIEU.

The government of France from the death of Henry IV. (1610) to the ministry of Richelieu (1624) a period of court intrigues, of weakness of the central authority, and of vacillating foreign policy.

The Regency of Marie de Medicis in the name of her son, Louis XIII. (1610–1617): her favorites; the one event of importance the Spanish marriages, Louis XIII. marrying Anne of Austria, daughter of Philip III. of Spain, and Philip, the heir to the Spanish throne, marrying Elizabeth, sister of Louis XIII. (1612); murder of Concini, Maréchal d'Ancre (24 April, 1617).

The States-General held in 1614: what it was, what it might have done, and how it failed.

The government of the favorite, the Duc de Luynes (1617–1621): the escape of Marie de Medicis from Blois (1619); the struggle between mother and son; attack commenced on the political power of the Huguenots; capture of St. Jean d'Angély (1621); Peace of Montpellier (1623).

Richelieu (b. 5 Sept., 1585; Bishop of Luçon, 16 Apr., 1607; Cardinal, 5 Sept., 1622) appointed chief minister of France (19 Apr., 1624); his early career; his character; his political aims.

Richelieu's policy:

i. To make the crown of France all-powerful by overcoming the nobility: first conspiracy of Gaston, Duke of Orleans, the King's brother (1626); the edict against duelling, and execution of Montmorency-Boutteville (1627); the "Day of Dupes" (11 Nov., 1630); imprisonment and exile of Marie de Medicis; intrigues of the exiles, including Gaston of Orleans, with Lorraine and Spain; invasion of Gaston of Orleans; execution of Montmorency (30 Oct., 1632); part played by the queen, Anne of Austria; her relations with the Duke of Buckingham; birth of the Dauphin (5 Sept., 1638); the conspiracy of Cinq-Mars; his execution (12 Sept., 1642).

- ii. To unite the force of France by destroying the political power of the Huguenots: the rights possessed by the Huguenots under the Edict of Nantes; their unpatriotic spirit a remnant of the ideas of the 16th century; the civil war of 1625–26; the siege of La Rochelle (1627–28); help sent to the Huguenots by England; the surrender of La Rochelle (28 Oct., 1628); the Peace of Alais (28 June, 1629), granting the Huguenots religious liberty, but destroying their political independence.
- iii. To overthrow the power of the House of Hapsburg: Richelieu's adoption of part of the "Grand Design"; his endeavors to assist the Protestant princes, and to cut the communication between the Hapsburgs of Austria and of Spain; marriage of Charles I., of England, with Henrietta Maria (1 May, 1625); the first war in Italy (1624–26); the Valtelline restored to the Grisons; the second war in Italy (1628–30) against Spain, the Empire and Savoy; Richelieu in the field; Pignerol captured (22 March, 1630), and his candidate recognized as Duke of Mantua by the Treaty of Cherasco (6 April, 1631); Richelieu's support of the Protestant Netherlands; Richelieu and the German Protestants; Père Joseph at the Diet of Ratisbon (1630); Gustavus Adolphus induced to enter Germany; his relations with Sweden; intervention of France in the Thirty Years' War (1635).

Death of Richelieu (4 Dec., 1642), followed by that of Louis XIII. (14 May, 1643): the relations between them; effect of Richelieu's policy on the French monarchy and on the position of France in Europe.

Authorities: The best small book in English is Lodge, Richelieu, and reference may be made to Bridges, France under Richelieu and Colbert. Among secondary works, founded on documents, consult Perkins. France under Richelieu and Mazarin; Perrens works cited under Lecture 2; Zeller, La minorité de Louis XIII.; Louis XIII., Marie de Medicis, chef du conseil; Le Connétable de Luynes; Richelieu et les ministres de Louis XIII.; Puyol, Louis XIII. et le Béarn; Bazin, Histoire de France sous Louis XIII.; Picot, Histoire des États Généraux, vols. 4, 5; Georges d'Avenel, Richelieu et la monarchie absolue, 4 vols.; Topin, Louis XIII. et Richelieu; Houssaye, Le Cardinal de Bérulle et le Cardinal de Richelieu; Basserie, La conjuration de Cinq-Mars; La Garde, Le Duc

de Rohan et les Protestants sous Louis XIII.; Laugel, Henry de Rohan; the Vicomte de Meaux, La Réforme et la politique française en Europe, 2 vols.; Fagniez, Le Père Joseph et Richelieu 2 vols.; and above all the first two volumes (all yet published), containing the latest account of Richelieu's early years, of Hanotaux, Histoire du Cardinal de Richelieu. Among seventeenth century histories reference should be made to Aubery, Mémoires pour l'histoire du Cardinal-Duc de Richelieu, 5 vols. The great primary authority is the collection of Lettres, instructions diplomatiques et papiers d'État of Richelieu, edited by Georges d'Avenel, 8 vols., in the Documents inédits; with his Maximes d'État in the same collection, his Mémoires, and his Mémoire, écrit de sa main, l'année 1607 ou 1610, alors qu'il méditait de paraître à la cour, ed. Baschet. See also the Mémoires of Rohan, Omer Talon, Montglat, Brienne, Mathieu Molé, Madame de Motteville, D'Estrées and Fonlenay-Mareuil, the Correspondance of Cardinal de Sourdis, and the Mercure François.

LECTURE 5.

THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR: FROM 1634 TO 1648.

With the death of Gustavus Adolphus and of Wallenstein the war ceased to be a war for religion and assumed a more political aspect; the ruin of Germany; national and personal ambitions; the mercenary troops and military adventurers.

Wallenstein's army brought directly under the Emperor: position of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar (b. 1604); the Swedish armies and the policy of Chancellor Oxenstiern (b. 1583, d. 1654).

The battle of Nördlingen (5 and 6 Sept., 1634): defeat of the Swedes under Bernard and Horn; its important results; victorious position of the Emperor and the Catholics; the Elector of Saxony made peace with the Emperor at Prague (30 May, 1635); the plans of Oxenstiern; if the Swedes could have been pacified and the French had not intervened, the Thirty Years' War might have ended.

The intervention of Richelieu: occupation of Lorraine; Alsace granted to France by the German Protestant princes for active aid (Nov., 1634); purchase of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar and his army (25 Oct., 1635); Richelieu's alliance with Oxenstiern (Apr., 1635);

his treaty with the Dutch, after the death of Isabella, for the division of the Catholic Netherlands (8 Feb., 1635); his negotiations with the Swiss and the Dukes of Savoy, Mantua, and Parma; effect of Richelieu's intervention the prolongation of the war.

France invaded by the Spaniards on the northeast and by the Imperialists on the east (1636); the Swedish general, Baner, forced back to the Baltic; closer alliance made between Richelieu and Oxenstiern; the Saxons and the Imperialists defeated by Baner (b. 1595) at Wittstock (4 Oct., 1636).

Ferdinand III. elected Emperor (22 Dec., 1636); death of Ferdinand II. (15 Feb., 1637).

The last years of Richelieu's foreign policy: the successes of Bernard of Saxe-Weimar on the Rhine; his ambitions; capture of Breisach (17 Dec., 1638); death of Bernard (18 July, 1639); invasion of France by the Spaniards (1640); battle of Chemnitz (14 April, 1639) and death of Baner (20 May, 1641); Richelieu's attempt to divert Spain from German affairs by causing an insurrection in Catalonia (1640) and by encouraging the revolution in Portugal (1640).

The first negotiations for a general peace (1640-41); accession of Frederick William as Elector of Brandenburg (1640); his declaration of neutrality (1642).

The progress of the war after the death of Richelieu: rise into prominence of Condé (b. 1621, d. 1686), Turenne (b. 1611, d. 1675), Torstenson (b. 1603, d. 1651), and Wrangel (b. 1613, d. 1676); Spain unable to assist the Emperor without further subsidies; destruction of the Imperial and Saxon army by Torstenson at Breitenfeld (2 Nov., 1642); outbreak of war between Denmark and Sweden (1643), ended by the Treaty of Brömsebro (1645); Condé's defeat of the Spaniards at Rocroi (19 May, 1643); reorganization of Bernard's army by Turenne.

Congresses for the consideration of terms of peace meet at Osnabrück and Münster.

The battles of Freiburg (3-5 Aug., 1644), where Turenne and Condé defeated Mercy, and of Jankau (6 March, 1645), where Torstenson destroyed an Imperialist army; truce made by the Elector of Saxony with the Swedes (31 Aug., 1645); the battles of Marienthal (5 May, 1645), where Mercy defeated Turenne, and of Allersheim (3 Aug., 1645),

in which Mercy was killed; the invasion of Bavaria: the Elector Maximilian forced to make a truce at Ulm (15 March, 1647); Turenne and Wrangel defeated the Bavarians and Imperalists at Zusmarshausen (17 May, 1648); Condé's defeat of the Spaniards at Lens (10 Aug., 1648); the Castle of Prague seized by the Swedes under Königsmark (26 July, 1648).

The Thirty Years' War concluded by the Treaties of Westphalia (24 October, 1648): peace made by the Emperor with France and Sweden, but Spain remained at war with France.

Authorities: Gardiner, The Thirty Years' War, is the best small book in English; Gindely should be replaced among secondary authorities by Barthold, Geschichte des grossen deutschen Krieges vom Tode Gustav Adolfs ab, mit besondere Rücksicht auf Frankreich, 2 vols.; Droysen, Bernhard von Weimar, 2 vols.; Sugenheim, Frankreich's Einfluss auf und Beziehungen zu Deutschland, vol. i.: Koch, Geschichte des deutschen Reichs unter der Regierung Ferdinands III., 2 vols; Des Roberts, Campagnes de Charles IV., duc de Lorraine (1634-1636); Heilmann, Die Feldzüge den Bayern in 1643, 1644 und 1645; Dudik, Die Schweden in Böhmen und Mähren (1640-1650); Biedermann, Deutschlands trübste Zeit, oder Der dreissigjährige Krieg in seine Folgen für den deutsche Culturleben; the Duc d'Aumâle, Histoire des princes de la maison de Condé, vols. 5, 6. The primary authorities as for Lecture 3, with the addition of Georges d' Avenel, Richelieu's Letters, cited for Lecture 4; Szilágyi, Actes et Documents pour servir à l'histoire de l'alliance de Rakoczy avec les Français et les Suédois : Bougeant, Histoire du Traité de Westphalie, 6 vols., and Axel Oxenstierna's Skriften och Brefvexling, 6 vols., and omitting Gardiner, Letters, Styffe, Irmer and Wallenstein.

LECTURE 6.

THE TREATIES OF WESTPHALIA.

The history of the Treaties of Westphalia: a congress for peace resolved upon in 1641; suggested by the Elector of Mayence in 1639; approved by the Imperial Diet at Ratisbon (1640-41); suggestion that two congresses, in one of which the Emperor should deal with the Swedes. Dutch and Protestant princes, and in the other with France,

should be held to arrange terms of peace, at Lübeck and Cologne; at the wish of the Swedes Osnabrück and Münster chosen instead; by a resolution of the Imperial Diet, with the assent of the Emperor, the German princes and free cities allowed to be represented at the congresses.

Meeting of the congresses (1644): Cardinal Chigi, Papal Nuncio, and Contarini, Venetian ambassador, were present as mediators; Trautmannsdorf, Nassau and Volmar, Lamberg and Crane were present for the Emperor; Longueville, D'Avaux, Groullart and Abel Servien for France; John Oxenstiern and Salvius for Sweden; Peñaranda, the Archbishop of Cambrai, Saavedra and Brun for Spain; and Adrian de Pauw, with seven others, for the United Provinces; delays about precedence; the envoys of France and Sweden presented their demands (June, 1645); effect of the military operations on the negotiations; the part played by the Elector of Bavaria; the Treaties of Westphalia signed at Münster (24 October, 1648).

Chief points of the Treaties of Westphalia:

A. With regard to non-German states:

- i. France received the Three Bishoprics (Metz, Toul and Verdun) occupied in 1552, Alsace, except Strasburg and reserving the rights of the Empire, Breisach and the right to garrison Philipsburg, and Pignerol; the Duke of Lorraine not to be aided by the Emperor and left to make a separate treaty with France.
- ii. Sweden received Western Pomerania with the island of Rügen, Stettin, Wismar, the archbishopric of Bremen and the bishopric of Verden, with representation in the Diet of the Empire.
- iii. The Swiss cantons were recognized as independent of the Empire.
- iv. The Protestant Netherlands, which had been recognized as independent of Spain by Philip IV. (30 Jan., 1648), were declared independent of the Empire, and received certain districts in Brabant and Luxemburg.

B. With regard to German states:

i. Brandenburg received, in compensation for Western Pomerania, the archbishopric of Magdeburg, and the bishoprics of Hal-

berstadt, Cammin and Minden. [The succession to Cleves-Juliers was settled in 1666 by Brandenburg receiving Cleves, the Mark and Ravensberg, and Neuburg receiving Juliers and Berg.]

- ii. Saxony retained Lusatia and part of Magdeburg.
- iii. Mecklenburg received, in compensation for Wismar, the bishoprics of Schwerin and Ratzeburg.
- iv. Hesse-Cassel received the abbey of Hirschfeld.
 - v. Bavaria received the Upper Palatinate and retained the electorate conferred in 1623.
- vi. Charles Louis, eldest son of the expelled Elector Palatine, received the Lower or Rhenish Palatinate, and a new electorate was created for him.
- C. With regard to the religious question:
 - i. The terms of the Peace of Augsburg were confirmed, fixing the date for ecclesiastical property at 1 Jan., 1624.
 - ii. The Ecclesiastical Reservation was acknowledged by the Protestants.
 - iii. Calvinism was recognized as well as Lutheranism.
- D. With regard to the Empire (effect of the book "Hippolithus a Lapide"):
 - *i*. Territorial supremacy, including the right of making alliances, granted to the States of the Empire.
 - ii. Powers of the Imperial Diet (Reichstag) defined.
 - iii. Concurrent jurisdiction of the Imperial Chamber (Reichskammergericht) and Aulic Council (Reichshofrath) acknowledged.
- E. General amnesty declared, and the Peace of Westphalia made a fundamental law of the Empire.

Effect of the Treaties of Westphalia on Germany: the practical disintegration of the Holy Roman Empire.

Effect of the Treaties of Westphalia on Europe: commencement of a new era, in which political succeeded religious distinctions.

Authorities: All secondary histories of the Thirty Years' War devote their concluding chapters to the Treaties of Westphalia, but see also Kerviler, Abel Servien; Odhner, Die Politik Schwedens im Westphälischen Friedenscongress;

J. S. Pütter, Geist des Westphälischen Friedes, and his Historical Development of the Political Constitution of the Germanic Empire, vol. ii. The primary authorities are, for the terms of the treaties, J. G. von Meiern, Acta Pacis Westphalicae oder Westphälische Friedeshandlungen und Geschichte, 6 vols.; and, for the history of the negotiations, Bougeant, Histoire du Traité de Westphalie, useful as being founded on D'Avaux, Mémoires; Contarini, Relazione del congresso di Munster; Ogier, Journal du Congrès de Munster (1643-47); and the Correspondencia diplomatica de los plenipotenciarios Españoles en el congreso de Munster, 1643-1648 (vols. 82-84 of the Colleccion de documentos ineditos).

LECTURE 7.

THE FRONDE AND THE TREATY OF THE PYRENEES.

Richelieu on his deathbed (1642) named Mazarin his successor; six months later the child, Louis XIV. (b. 5 Sept., 1838), succeeded to the throne of France; the Parlement of Paris declared Anne of Austria, the queen-mother, Regent; she gave both power and affection to Mazarin; character and previous career of Mazarin (Giulio Mazarini, b. 1602; entered the French service and became cardinal, 1639).

Mazarin followed accurately Richelieu's foreign policy; during his administration Condé and Turenne won their first victories and the Treaties of Westphalia were signed.

What France gained by the Treaties of Westphalia: a foothold on the Rhine by the annexation of Alsace, which also enabled her to surround the independent Duchy of Lorraine and the Spanish province of Franche-Comté.

Spain refused to make peace with France at Münster owing to the outbreak of the civil war known as the "Fronde."

The nature of the Fronde: "playing at civil war"; its fruitlessness and intrigues; the "importants"; the Mazarinades.

The Fronde, first phase (1648-49): part played by the Parlement of Paris and the Parisians; arrest of Broussel (26 Aug., 1648); the "barricades"; Condé and the Court; Condé and Mazarin; the Peace of Rueil (11 March, 1649); flight of the Court from Paris; second phase

(1650-51): arrest of Condé (18 Jan., 1650); France invaded by Turenne with a Spanish army; the battle of Rethel (15 Dec., 1650); union of the "princely" and the "parliamentary" Frondes; the Cardinal de Retz (b. 1614, d. 1679); Mazarin in voluntary exile (6 Feb. 1651); third phase (1651-52): Condé's insurrection in the south; return of Mazarin (Dec., 1651); the royal party joined by Turenne; battle of the Faubourg Saint-Antoine (2 July, 1652); Mazarin again in exile (19 Aug., 1652); fourth phase (1652-53); the king and the queenmother once more in Paris (21 Oct., 1652); Condé welcomed by the Spaniards; De Retz imprisoned; Gaston of Orleans exiled to Blois; final return of Mazarin (2 Feb., 1653); end of the Fronde.

Mazarin's foreign policy: the war with Spain pursued with vigor; Turenne commanding the French and Condé the Spanish army; Mazarin's alliance with Cromwell (3 March, 1657); the battle of the Dunes (14 June, 1658); capture of Dunkirk and advance on Brussels; formation of the League of the Rhine (14 Aug., 1658); the new Emperor, Leopold I. (elected 1657), bound by the terms of his capitulation not to send help to Spain.

Negotiations for peace with Spain: Mazarin's hands freed by the death of Cromwell (3 Sept., 1658).

The Treaty of the Pyrenees signed by Mazarin and Don Luis de Haro in the Isle of Pheasants (7 Nov., 1659).

Its terms: (1) France received Roussillon, Artois, and parts of Flanders, Hainault and Luxemburg.

- (2) Spain abandoned all claims to Alsace.
- (3) Charles IV., Duke of Lorraine, was to cede the Barrois and certain towns to France, but to recover Lorraine, in which all the fortresses were to be dismantled; (Charles IV. did not accept these conditions, and by a later treaty (28 Feb., 1661) received back the Barrois as a fief of France, ceded the towns mentioned in the Treaty of Pyrenees and others to France, and agreed to dismantle Nancy).
 - (4) The Prince de Condé was to be forgiven and reinstated.
 - (5) France abandoned the King of Portugal.
- (6) Louis XIV. was to marry Maria Theresa, elder daughter of Philip IV., King of Spain: she was to renounce forever, for herself and her descendants, all rights of succession to the throne of Spain, on payment of a dowry of 500,000 crowns.

Importance of the Treaty of the Pyrenees as the supplement to the Treaties of Westphalia.

Marriage of Louis XIV. to the Infanta (9 June, 1660).

Death of Mazarin (9 March, 1661); success of his foreign policy; his internal policy; neglect of the finances; destruction of feudal castles in France.

Life and work of Saint Vincent de Paul (1576-1660).

Authorities: The best secondary histories, founded on documents, for the administration of Mazarin are Chéruel, Histoire de la France pendant la minorité de Louis XIV., 4 vols., and Histoire de la France sous le ministère de Mazarin. 3 vols.: Perkins, France under Richelieu and Mazarin; Comte de Cosnac, Mazarin et Colbert; Bazin, Histoire de France sous le ministère du Cardinal Mazarin: Gaillardin, Histoire du règne de Louis XIV., vols. 1, 2; Comte de Sainte-Aulaire, Histoire de la Fronde, 2 vols.; Duc d'Aumâle, Histoire des Princes de Condé. vols. 5, 6, 7; Victor Cousin, La jeunesse de Mazarin, Madame de Longueville, 2 vols.. Madame de Sablé, Madame de Chevreuse and Madame de Hautefort; Curnier, Le Cardinal de Retz et son temps; Chantelauze, Louis XIV, et Marie Mancini. Le Cardinal de Retz et l'affaire du chapeau, and Saint Vincent de Paul et les Gondi: Perey, Louis XIV, et Marie Mancini: Chérot, La première jeunesse de Louis XIV.; Renée, Les nièces de Mazarin; Valfrey, Hugues de Lionne; Vast, Les grands traités du règne de Louis XIV. ; Barante, Vie de Mathieu Molé ; Feillet, La Misère au temps de la Fronde; Loth, Saint Vincent de Paul et sa mission sociale; Emmanuel de Broglie, Saint Vincent de Paul; Bourelly, Cromwell et Mazarin, and Le maréchal de Fabert; and Tessier, Le Chevalier de Jant et les relations de la France avec le Portugal au temps de Mazarin. Several volumes have been published on the local history of the Fronde, among which may be noted Saint-Marc, Bordeaux sous la Fronde, Debidour, La Fronde angevine, Audiat, La Fronde en Saintonge, and Salomon, La Fronde en Bretagne. The chief primary authority is the collection, ed. by Chéruel, of the Lettres du Cardinal Mazarin pendant son ministère, 8 vols., in the Documents inédits; and use may be made of Turenne, Correspondance inédite avec Le Tellier et Louvois, ed. Barthélemy; Estrades, Ambassades et négotiations en Italie, en Angleterre, et en Hollande depuis 1637 jusqu'en 1662; Moreau, Choix de Mazarinades, 2 vols.; the Journal of Olivier Lefèvre d'Ormesson; and the Lettres of Gui Patin: for the period of the Fronde there are many interesting personal memoirs, to be used with caution, among which may be noted the Mémoires of Madame de Motteville, Omer Talon, Gourville, Mademoiselle de Montpensier, Montglat, Brienne, Guy Joly, Mathieu Molé, Fontenay-Mareuil, La Rochefoucauld, and above all, those of Cardinal de Retz, with the addition of the Historiettes of Tallemant des Réaux, and Loret, La Muze Historique, ed. Ravenel and La Pelouze.

LECTURE 8.

EUROPE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

I. FRANCE.

Importance of the study of the history of France in the 17th century rests on the fact that, during the Age of Louis XIV., its institutions were copied all over Europe, while its foreign policy was the keynote of political history; it was France which led the way to strong central government at home, supported by standing armies, and the adoption of foreign alliances independent of religious considerations.

Government of France as moulded by Richelieu and Mazarin for the use of Louis XIV.

- i. The Monarchy: growth of its powers; its strength; the Court.
- ii. The Nobility: blows dealt by Richelieu; tendency to become a caste; distinction between grande and petite noblesse; survival of privilege.
- iii. The Church in France: its struggle with the Huguenots; contrast between Gallican and Ultramontane ideas.
- iv. The Central Administration: its strengthening, the great aim of the French monarchy; creation of the "intendants."
- v. Local Administration: distinction between pays d'élection and pays d'États; the provincial Estates; the cities and towns; privileges of the municipalities; the "Bourgeoisie."
- vi. The Judicial Administration: the Parlement of Paris having jurisdiction, and being court of appeals in criminal matters, over half of France; the seven provincial Parlements of Bordeaux, Dijon, Rennes, Rouen, Toulouse, Aix and Grenoble; Louis XIII. created two at Pau (1620) and at Metz (1633), and Louis XIV. two more at Tournai (1668), moved to Douai (1713), and at Besançon (1676); the "Noblesse de la Robe"; the strength of the bar; the pays du droit coutumier and the pays du droit écrit.

- vii. The Financial Administration: the farmers-general; the taille, the gabelle, the aides, the douanes.
- viii. Manufactures and Commerce: Lyons, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Dieppe and Le Hâvre; the guilds; the ouvriers.
 - ix. Agriculture: the seigneur, the farmer and the peasant; grande culture and petite culture; "copyhold" tenure and its relics of feudalism; "noble land."
 - x. The condition of the poor: hospitals; charity.
- xi. Material condition: roads and canals; public works.
- xii. Intellectual condition: education; colleges and village schools; the Académie Française (1635); provincial academies; the press, pamphlets and newspapers; foundation of the *Gazette* by Renaudot (1631).
- xiii. The army and navy: their organization; their control concentrated in the hands of the monarchy.

Position of France in Europe in the middle of the 17th century.

- i. Geographical conditions: additions made by Richelieu and Mazarin; desire for a defensible frontier; boundaries of language and race disregarded; Alsace; independence of Lorraine; Franche-Comté subject to Spain and Avignon to the Pope.
- Growth of political tradition: the Foreign Office; the diplomatists.

Extra-European expansion of France.

- i. New France: Canada and Acadia; efforts at colonization.
- ii. The French Antilles: their importance to France.
- iii. The French East India Company of Richelieu (1640): Madagascar.

Strength and weakness of France in the 17th century.

Authorities: The chapters on the condition of France in the secondary histories, noted under Lectures 2, 4 and 7, and especially in Hanotaux, Histoire du Cardinal de Richelieu, vol. i., in Georges d'Avenel, Richelieu et la monarchie absolue, and Chéruel, Histoire de la France pendant la minorité de Louis XIV., and Histoire de la France sous le ministère de Mazarin. See also Chéruel, Histoire de l'administration monarchique en France, 2 vols.; Dareste, Histoire de l'administration et des progrès du pouvoir royal en France; Caillel, L'administration en

France sous le ministère de Richelieu; Gasquet, Précis des institutions politiques et sociales de l'ancienne France; Luçay, Les origines du pouvoir ministériel en France: les Secrétaires d'État depuis leur institution jusqu'à la mort de Louis XV.; Hanolaux, Origine de l'institution des intendants des provinces; Bastard d'Estang, Les parlements de France; Nervo, Les finances françaises, 2 vols.; Clamageran, Histoire de l'impôt en France, 3 vols.; Fagniez, L'économie sociale de la France sous Henri IV.; Levasseur, Histoire des classes ouvrières en France, 2 vols.; Dareste, Histoire des classes agricoles en France; Susane, Histoire de l'ancienne infanterie française, 8 vols., and Histoire de la cavalerie française, 3 vols.; Guérin, Histoire maritime de la France, 6 vols.; Gougeard, La marine de guerre sous Richelieu et Colbert; Gilles de la Tourette, Théophraste Renaudot; Parkman, Pioneers of France in the New World; Boyer-Peyreleau, Les Antilles françaises; Dessalles, Histoire générale des Antilles; Bonassieux, Les grandes compagnies de commerce, and Castonnet des Fosses, L'Inde française avant Dupleix.

LECTURE 9.

EUROPE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

2. THE EMPIRE, THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA, AND THE GERMAN PRINCES.

The Holy Roman Empire, in its inception the lay authority ruling Western Europe in conjunction with the Papacy, became towards the close of the Middle Ages the ruling power in Germany, and by the Treaties of Westphalia lost even that function.

The form, precedence and tradition of the Empire remained the only symbol of German unity, and the different states and categories of states of the Empire must be regarded as independent political units, very loosely federated.

There were about 360 sovereign princes in Germany and about 50 free cities.

The constitution of the Empire: (1) the elective Emperor; (2) the Imperial Diet comprising (i) the College of Electors, consisting of seven members; (ii) the College of Princes, consisting of about one hundred voices (some princes had more than one voice, e. g., Brandenburg six,

Sweden four, etc., while the petty princes in Franconia and Swabia elected representatives, known as "collegiate" voices); (iii) the College of Free Cities; (3) the Imperial Chamber; (4) the Aulic Council; (5) the Circles.

Distinction between immediate and mediate members of the Holy

Roman Empire.

The Diet of Ratisbon declared perpetual (1663) and resident envoys took the place of Princes and Electors.

The House of Hapsburg the most powerful in Germany from its hereditary dominions, more than from the repeated election of its head as Emperor; but its expansion was henceforth toward the east and not toward the west, and it gradually ceased to act chiefly for German interests.

The dominions of the House of Hapsburg:

(1) Austria proper, Styria, Carinthia, etc. [the Tyrol ceded by Ferdinand II. to his brother (1623) reverted to the Austrian dominions (1665)]; their administration; the powers of the provincial Diets and extent of local self-government.

(2) Bohemia: a home of Protestantism; its sufferings during the Thirty Years' War; deprivation of its local autonomy and attempts at Germanizing the Czechs.

(3) Part of Hungary: divisions of the kingdom of St. Stephen at the commencement of the 17th century:

(i) Transylvania : \$\oldsymbol{\rho}\$082 square miles: its diverse races, Magyar, German, Romanian, Slav, and its diverse religions, Roman Catholic, Lutheran, Calvinist and Greek Church; the reign and policy of Gabriel Bethlen (1613-29); George Rakoczy I. (1629-48); George Rakoczy II. (1648-60); spasmodic intervention in the Thirty Years' War; encouragement of Protestantism; wary policy needed for maintenance of independence.

(ii) Turkish Hungary: 1859 square miles: its condition under Turkish rule.

(iii) Hapsburg Hungary, governed by the Palatine: 1222 square miles: the power of the Diet; progress of the Counter-Reformation; the work of Cardinal Pazmany (primate 161637); national policy of Nicholas Esterhazy (palatine 1625-45); Peace of Linz (1645), recognizing the rights of Protestants.

Administration of the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria: the councils at Vienna; the army and foreign politics; the influence of the Jesuits.

The ecclesiastical electorates: Mayence, Cologne and Trèves.

The lay electorates:

- (1) Saxony: its condition at the Treaties of Westphalia; its wealth and compactness; the Elector the recognized chief of the German Protestants; policy of John George I. (1611–1656); the ambitions of Saxony turn eastward.
- (2) Brandenburg: the Elector John Sigismund recognized as Duke of Prussia (1618), as a feudatory of Poland; the claims on Pomerania and Juliers-Cleves; the policy of George William, brother-in-law of Gustavus Adolphus, during the Thirty Years' War; accession of the Great Elector (1640); compensation for Pomerania and settlement of Juliers-Cleves case (1666) gave Brandenburg an increased German interest; Brandenburg's advantages from the Northern War (1656–60).
- (3) Bavaria: the Elector Maximilian (1596–1651) and the Counter-Reformation; his part in the Thirty Years' War.
- (4) The Palatinate: importance of its position on the Rhine with regard to France.

The lay princes of the Empire: their varying power; introduction of primogeniture in 16th and 17th centuries; its effects; their love of independence.

The ecclesiastical princes of the Empire: the Catholic and Protestant bishoprics; their chapters take the place of provincial Estates or Diets and make their government oligarchical.

The free cities of the Empire: their decline during the Thirty Years' War; decay of the Hanseatic League; only Hamburg, Bremen and Lübeck renew the League (1630); trade passes to the Dutch and the English.

The knights of the Empire: their dependence on the Emperor.

General character of the administration in Germany: the provincial Diets; tendency to imitate France.

Depopulation and misery caused by the Thirty Years' War; poverty of Germany.

Intellectual condition: the foundation of universities and academies.

Authorities: Among books in English may be noted Léger, Autriche-Hongrie, translated by Mrs. Birkbeck Hill, Coxe, History of the House of Austria, 4 vols., and Vehse, Memoirs of the Court, Aristocracy and Diplomacy of Austria, 2 vols., for Austria; Tuttle, History of Prussia, vol. i., and Carlyle, History of Frederick the Great, vol. i., for Prussia; and Pütter, Historische Entwickelung der heutigen Staatsverfassung des deutschen Reichs, translated by Dornford, vol. 2, for the Holy Roman Empire. All histories, whether of the Empire or of separate states, give a general review of the condition of Germany at the time of the Treaties of Westphalia, but special reference may be made to Erdmannsdörffer, Deutsche Geschichte, 1648-1740, vol. i., Biedermann, Deutschlands trübste Zeit, oder Der dreissigjährige Krieg in seine Folgen fur den deutsche Cultureleben and Hanser Deutschland nach dem dreissigjährige Kriege.

LECTURE 10.

EUROPE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

3. THE NETHERLANDS.

The situation of the Netherlands at the beginning of the century: the Protestant Netherlands, the seven United Provinces of Holland, Zealand, Gelderland, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen and Overyssel, had practically secured their independence; the Catholic Netherlands (now Belgium) were governed by the Infanta Isabella (1599–1633), to whom they had been granted as dowry by Philip II.

The constitution of the United Provinces: difference in character of the seven provinces; their local independence; the provincial Estates; the weak federal power of the States-General, consisting of one vote for each province; the Council of State of twelve members, three for Holland, two each for Zealand, Friesland and Gelderland, and one each for the remaining provinces, with two votes for the Captain-General and Ad-

miral-General; the executive authority in each province was held by the Stadtholder of the province; the executive authority of the Union was held by the Captain- and Admiral-General.

William the Silent, Prince of Orange, had been Stadtholder of three provinces, as well as Captain- and Admiral-General; his son Maurice (1585–1625) was Stadtholder of five provinces, and after 1620 of all the provinces but Friesland, as well as Captain- and Admiral-General.

The two parties in the Protestant Netherlands: the supporters of the Stadtholder, Maurice of Nassau (b. 1567), and the republicans led by John van Olden Barneveldt (b. 1547), Advocate of the province of Holland; the strength of the former among the country gentlemen, noblemen and peasants; of the latter among the burghers of the cities, and especially of Amsterdam; the former was the war and the latter the peace party.

The war of independence with Spain closed by a twelve years' truce, negotiated by Henry IV. of France (1609).

The political struggle combined with a religious difference: the Arminians, or Remonstrants, against the Gomarists, or Calvinists; the Synod of Dort condemned the Arminians (1618); execution of Barneveldt (19 May, 1619); the province of Holland forced to ask the confirmation by the Stadtholder of the election of its Pensionary, the leading civil officer.

The end of the truce (1621): part played by the Dutch in the Thirty Years' War; Maurice and his brother, Frederick Henry (1625–1647), the Stadtholders, occupied Cleves and resisted Spanish invasion; greatness of Frederick Henry; his son married to Mary, daughter of Charles I. of England, and his daughter to Frederick William, the Great Elector of Brandenburg.

The Catholic Netherlands under Isabella remained contented with their local government and in comparative tranquility, but when France joined in the Thirty Years' War, Artois was occupied, and, after Mazarin's treaty with Cromwell, the English and French conquered nearly up to Brussels; by the Treaty of the Pyrenees, Artois was ceded to France (1659).

By the Treaty of Münster (30 Jan., 1648) with Spain, the Dutch promised to support the Spanish rights to the Catholic Netherlands in return for closing the Scheldt to commerce; by this means the United Provinces secured a buffer against France, and Amsterdam secured commercial supremacy at the expense of Antwerp.

William II. (b. 1626), elected Stadtholder of all the provinces but Friesland (1647), disapproved of the reduction of the army as a result of peace; he resolved on a coup d'état; attempt to seize Amsterdam (30 July, 1650); death of William II. (6 Nov., 1650); birth of William III. (14 Nov., 1650); the offices of Captain- and Admiral-General abolished; the Stadtholderate of five provinces left vacant; William Frederick of Nassau, Stadtholder of Friesland, obtained the Stadtholderate of Groningen; government divided between the States-General and the provincial Estates; election of John de Witt (b. 1625) as Pensionary of Holland (1653) in the place of Adrian de Pauw; the province of Holland and John de Witt took the direction of Dutch policy.

War between England and the United Provinces (1652–54) owing to the Navigation Act passed by the English Parliament and aimed at the Dutch carrying trade; act excluding William III. forever from the Stadtholderate of Holland passed at the wish of Cromwell (1654); repealed (1661); Perpetual Edict abolishing the Stadtholderate in Holland and Utrecht (1667).

The prosperity of the Dutch in the first half of the 17th century: their naval and commercial monopoly; its causes; its political, social and material effects.

The Dutch in Asia: the first voyage of Houtman (1596); they seize the spice and pepper trade; foundation of Batavia (1619); rivalry with the English; massacre of Amboyna (1623); expulsion of the Portuguese; settlements at the Cape of Good Hope and in India, Ceylon, the Spice Islands, China and Japan.

The Dutch in South America: their establishment in Brazil (1624–37); the government and great views of John Maurice of Nassau-Siegen (b. 1604, in Brazil 1637–44, d. 1679); their expulsion by the Portuguese (1655).

The Dutch in North America: foundation of New Amsterdam; the New Netherlands and the emigration thither.

Contrast between the Protestant and the Catholic Netherlands.

Authorities: Motley, History of the United Netherlands, vols. 3 and 4, and

Sweden.

Life and Death of John of Barneveldt, 2 vols.; Wenzelburger, Geschichte der Niederlande. (t) 1648); Kervyn de Lettenhove, La Flandre pendant les trois derniers siècles, 3 vols.; Groen van Prinsterer, Archives ou correspondance inédite de la maison d'Orange-Nassau, 6 vols.; A. Waddington, La République des Provinces-Unies, la France et les Pays-Bas espagnols de 1630 à 1650; Van der Capellen, Gedenkschriften; Lefèvre-Pontalis, Jean de Witt, translated into English; Combes, Correspondance Française du grand pensionnaire Jean de Witt; Geddes, History of the Administration of John de Witt, vol. i.; Meinsma, Geschiedenis van de Nederlandsche Oost-Indische Bezittingen, 2 vols.; De Jonge, De Opkomst van het Nederlandsch Gezag in Oost-Indie, 14 vols., and the documents published by Aitzema and Sylvius, and by the Utrecht Historical Society.

LECTURE 11.

EUROPE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

4. SWEDEN AND DENMARK.

Sweden at the commencement of the 17th century: it had been separated from Denmark and Norway by the valour of Gustavus Vasa (1523); the Reformation in Sweden; the people became sturdy Protestants; reigns of Eric XIV. (1560-68) and John III. (1568-92); expulsion of the son of John III., Sigismund Vasa, who had been elected King of Poland (1587), on account of his Catholicism, and election of Charles IX., youngest son of Gustavus Vasa (1598); reign of Charles IX. (1598-1611), a reign of perpetual war with the Danes, Poles and Russians.

Accession of Gustavus Adolphus (b. 1594), son of Charles IX. (1611): his vigor and military skill; he defeated the Danes and forced them to make peace at Knäröd (1613); his campaigns against the Russians; by the Treaty of Stolbovo (1617) he restored Novgorod, but retained Finland, Carelia, Ingria and Esthonia; his marriage to Maria Eleanor, sister of the Elector George William of Brandenburg (1620); his wars with his cousin, Sigismund, of Poland, whom he defeated both on sea

26 Sweden.

and land (1621-29); by the Truce of Altmark (16 Sept., 1629), Sweden kept Livonia; Gustavus Adolphus then resolved to intervene in the Thirty Years' War.

The constitution of Sweden: the restrictions on the royal authority; the royal title—"elected king and hereditary prince"; the Diet (Riksdag); its four orders—nobility, clergy, bourgeoisie, peasants; its prerogatives fixed (1617); the Senate (Riksrad); its composition and functions.

The position acquired by Sweden by the Treaties of Westphalia: the chief territorial power on the Baltic, as ruler of Finland, Carelia, Ingria, Esthonia, Livonia and Western Pomerania, with an outlet on the North Sea as possessor of Bremen and Verden; she controlled the mouths of the Elbe, the Weser and the Oder, but her own southern provinces were occupied by Denmark.

Sweden recognized as the chief military power in Europe.

The Chancellor, Axel Oxenstiern (b. 1583, d. 1654): his policy; his organization of the Swedish monarchy on an oligarchical basis; the material condition of Sweden; its sturdy Lutheranism.

The reign of Queen Christina (b. 1626), only child of Gustavus Adolphus (1634–54): her assumption of the direction of affairs (1644) on the outbreak of war with Denmark; the Treaty of Brömsebro (13 Aug., 1645); her influence in favor of peace in the negotiations at Osnabrück; her internal government; abdication in favor of her cousin, Charles Gustavus of Deux-Ponts or Zweibrücken (6 June, 1654); her fondness for literature and science; her later life; she became a Catholic (1655), and died at Rome (19 April, 1689).

The reign of Charles X. (b. 1622): as a soldier he desired to utilize the Swedish army; his conquest of Poland (1656); previous relations between Poland and Sweden; the conduct of the Great Elector; Charles X. attacked Denmark (1657), and by the Treaty of Röskild (7 March, 1658) obtained the Danish provinces in Sweden, namely, Halland and Scania, with the island of Börnholm; his proposal to divide Denmark, and attack on Copenhagen (1659); interference of the Dutch and other powers; death of Charles X. (23 Feb., 1660).

Accession of Charles XI. (b. 1655): regency of the queen-mother, Hedwiga of Holstein-Gottorp; the war closed, owing to the mediation

of the powers, by the Treaty of Oliva with Poland, by which Poland ceded Lithuanian Livonia to Sweden and John Casimir resigned his claims to the Swedish throne (3 May, 1660), by the Treaty of Copenhagen with Denmark, confirming that of Röskild (7 June, 1660), and by that of Kardis with Russia (* July, 1661), confirming the cession to Sweden of Ingria and Carelia.

Position of the kingdom of Denmark and Norway at the Treaties of Westphalia: it included the southern provinces of Sweden, and thus controlled the commerce of the Baltic; relations with the Empire owing to the connection with Schleswig and Holstein.

The aristocratic constitution of Denmark; the monarchy elective; all power in the hands of the Senate (Rigsraad); the Diet (Rigsdaag) never called; the peasants reduced to serfdom.

The rivalry between Denmark and Sweden the keynote of Danish foreign policy: the reign of Christian IV. (1588–1648); his court; his fondness for Norway and foundation of Christiania; his misfortunes during the Thirty Years' War; foundation of the Danish East India Company (1615) and occupation of Tranquebar in India.

The reign of Frederick III. (1648-70): the government of Ulfeldt and the nobles; Ulfeldt joined Charles X. of Sweden and induced him to attack Denmark; Denmark's losses by the Treaty of Röskild.

The Revolution of 1660: overthrow of the power of the nobles; the monarchy of Denmark made hereditary and absolute; regular meetings of the Diet or States-General promised, but it was never called; resumption of lands granted to noblemen; improvement in administration.

The Germanizing of Denmark; the situation in Norway; its poverty and hatred for Sweden.

The supremacy of the Baltic moved from Denmark to Sweden.

Authorities: As small books see Otté, Scandinavian History; Bain, Christina, Queen of Sweden, and Geffroy, Les États Scandinaves. Among secondary authorities consult the large general history by Fryxell (not translated); Carlson, Geschichte Schwedens, vols. 5, 6, translated and continued from Geijer; Cronholm, Sveriges Historie under Gustaf II. Adolphs Regering, 6 vols. (not translated); Grauert, Christina, Königin von Schweden, und ihr Hof, 2 vols.; Arckenholtz, Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de la reine Christine, 4 vols.; Haumant,

28 Russia.

La Guerre du Nord (1655-60); *Allen*, Histoire de Danemark, and *Spittler*, Geschichte der Dänischen Revolution im Jahre 1660, being vol. 5 of his Sämmtliche Werke.

LECTURE 12.

EUROPE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

5. RUSSIA AND POLAND.

The contrast between the Slavs of the Greek Church in Russia, and the Slavs of the Roman Church in Poland, the former being essentially Asiatic, and the latter essentially European.

The backwardness of Russia and its Asiatic character due to historical circumstances, but chiefly to the conquest by the Mongol hordes, and its derivation of Christianity from Constantinople.

The epic character of the great struggle with the Mongols, and its effect in forming the Russian people.

The reign of Ivan the Terrible (1533–84) marked the emergence of Moscow as the centre from which the Russian Empire was to grow; he took the title of Tsar (1547); his wars with the Tartars on the south and east, and with the Poles and Lithuanians and Livonians on the west and northwest; his endeavors to reach the Baltic; his relations with the powers of western Europe, and especially with Elizabeth of England; opening up of trade between Russia and England by way of the White Sea and Archangel; the Muscovy Company; invasion of Siberia; the government of Ivan the Terrible; his autocracy; his struggles with the nobility; his "States-General"; his personality.

Russian history in the 17th century, until the time of Peter the Great, a commentary on the aims and ideals of Ivan the Terrible.

The reign of Feodor Ivanovitch (1584–98): institution of serfdom (1597) and creation of the patriarchate of Moscow (1589); the reign of Boris Godúnov (1598–1605); the first and second "false" Dimitri; civil war and anarchy; the "troublous times"; the Poles at Moscow (1612); election of Michael Románov as Tsar (1613) by the States General.

Poland. 29

The reign of Michael Románov (1613-45): restoration of internal peace and tranquility; his wars with the Swedes (1613-17), and with the Poles (1613-19, 1632-35); moral and material condition of Russia.

The reign of Alexis Románov (1645-76): autocracy legalized; the boyars; the code of Alexis; Nikon's reform of the Russian liturgy; popular risings; Stenka Razin (1666-71); the Cossacks.

The insurrection of the inhabitants of Little Russia and the Cossacks against Poland under Bogdan Khmelnitzski (1648); his dream of an independent Cossack state; Cossacks declared themselves subjects of the Tsar (1654); importance of this act; death of Khmelnitzski (1657); war with Poland; by Truce of Androussovo (1667) Russia obtained the left bank of the Dnieper as its frontier, with Kiev and Smolensk on the right bank.

The condition of Poland in the 17th century: the turbulence of the nobles; the pacta conventa; the right of confederation; the "liberum veto" first employed by a single individual to check legislation (1652); the work of the Jesuits; the Counter-Reformation; intensity of religious bitterness between the Roman Catholics of Poland and the Greek Catholics of Lithuania.

The most notable events since the Union of Lublin (1569) uniting Poland and Lithuania; contrast between Poland and Lithuania; the death of the last of the Jagellons, hereditary Grand Dukes of Lithuania (1572); election to the throne of Poland thrown open; contest between the Lithuanian party, looking to Russia, and the Polish party, looking to Austria; the secularization of Prussia by Albert of Hohenzollern, Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights, as a fief of Poland (1525); the suppression of the Knights of the Sword (1561), yielding Riga to Sweden, Livonia to Poland, and making Kettler, the last Grand Master, Duke of Courland, as a feudatory of Poland.

The reign of Sigismund III., Vasa (1587–1632): his Catholicism; expelled from the throne of Sweden (1598); his wars with Sweden, Russia and the Turks; granted Ducal Prussia to the Elector of Brandenburg as a fief (1618); his war with Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden (1621–29) and numerous defeats; the "Union" (1595); a third party, the "uniates", thus added to the religious strife; the reign of Ladislas IV. (VII.), Vasa (1632–48); Poland during the Thirty Years' War.

The reign of Cardinal John Casimir Vasa (1648–68): his wars with Sweden and Russia; by the Treaty of Wehlau (24 Sept., 1657) the Elector of Brandenburg recognized as independent Duke of Prussia, free from the suzerainty of Poland; the insurrection of Bogdan Khmelnitzski; the Truce of Androussovo; abdication of John Casimir (1668); he died at Paris (1672).

In the middle of the 17th century Russia is growing politically stronger from her concentrated autocracy and Poland politically weaker from her anarchic constitution.

Authorities: Morfill, Story of Russia, and Story of Poland; Rambaud, Histoire de la Russie, translated by L. B. Lang, 2 vols.; Karamzine, Histoire de l'empire de Russie, translated from the Russian, 11 vols.; Mérimée, Les faux Démétrius, and Les Cosaques d'autrefois: Bogdan Chmielnicki; Chodzko, La Pologne historique et monumentale; Salvandy, Histoire de Pologne avant et sous le Roi Jean Sobieski, 3 vols.

LECTURE 13.

EUROPE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

6. THE OTTOMAN TURKS.

The extent of Islam at the commencement of the 17th century: origin of the Turks.

The Ottoman Turks at the height of their power in the 16th century: Sulaiman the Magnificent (1520–66); the European possessions of the Turks; their northern capital at Buda, in Hungary; their control of the Levant; blow dealt to them by the loss of the passage of the Asiatic trade through Egypt; Venice induced the Turks to oppose the Portuguese in Asia; their power in Northern Africa and in the Mediterranean; the Barbary Corsairs.

Organization of the Turkish power: the Sultan as Caliph; the Ulemas; the Janissaries.

Resistance of the Knights of St. John: the defense of Malta (1565).

Attitude of Europe towards the Turks: spasmodic attempts of the Popes to stir up Christendom against them; the battle of Lepanto (7 Oct., 1571); the alliance with France; the "capitulations"; the English Levant Company obtained similar privileges (1580); and the Dutch traders (1612).

Poland and Hungary the bulwarks of Christendom against the Turks; the Turkish suzerainty over the Danubian Provinces and Transylvania; the religious attitude of the Turks; the Greek Church and the Turks; their welcome of renegades.

Fortunately for Christian Europe during the critical period of the Wars of Religion and the Thirty Years' War, the Turks remained quiet; the Sultans degenerated in character; and between the death of Sulaiman the Magnificent (1566) and the accession of Muhammad Kiuprili to power (1656) their only conquests were Cyprus, 'taken (1571) and Tunis retaken (1574); causes of this sudden degeneracy.

The Janissaries became Sultan-makers; they were permitted to marry and the tax of Christian children ceased.

Internal dissensions marked the reign of Muhammad III. (1595–1603): Ahmad I. (1603–17): by the Truce of Komorn with the Emperor (11 Nov., 1606) the Sultan renounced his claim to tribute from the Emperor, and his exclusive suzerainty over Transylvania; treaties with England and the United Provinces, and war with Persia; the imbecility of Mustapha I. (1617–18, 1622–23); the reign of Othman II. (1618–22) and his murder.

Murad IV. (1623-40): his capture of Bagdad (25 Dec., 1638); his cruelty; execution of the Grand Mufti (1634), and of the Patriarch of Constantinople (1636); Ibrahim I. (1640-48); recapture of Azov (1642); attack on Candia in Crete (1645); his order to murder all Christians; assassinated by the Janissaries; accession of Muhammad IV. (1648); troubles during his minority.

Appointment of Muhammad Kiuprili (b. 1585), a renegade Albanian, to be Grand Vizier with full powers (1656): his great reforms; he restored the force of the Ottoman Turks; his internal policy; the execution of the Greek Patriarch; his foreign policy; his victories over the Venetians and the Cossacks; new feudatory princes appointed in Transylvania, Moldavia and Wallachia; his death (1661).

Ahmad Kiuprili (b. 1626) appointed Grand Vizier, (1662): he ravaged Transylvania (1661), invaded Hungary (1663) and prepared to march on Vienna; the Emperor Leopold resolved to resist the Turks and called for the help of Christendom; the Diet of the Empire agreed, and Louis XIV. sent 6,000 Frenchmen; Montecuccoli (b. 1608, d. 1680) defeated the Turks at the battle of Saint-Gothard (1 Aug., 1664) and saved Vienna; the Truce of Vasvar (10 Aug., 1664); Michael Apafy recognized as Prince of Transylvania by both Emperor and Sultan, but to pay tribute to the latter; the seven provinces of Hungary left as before, three to the Emperor and four to the Sultan.

The siege of Candia; aid sent to the Venetians by Louis XIV.; surrender of Morosini to Ahmad Kiuprili (27 Sept., 1669).

The Cossacks called in the help of the Turks against Poland (1672); Ahmad Kiuprili took Kaminietz and conquered Podolia; by the Treaty of Budziak or Buczac (18 Oct., 1672) Poland ceded Podolia and the Ukraine to the Turks and promised to pay tribute; the treaty disavowed by the Polish Diet (1673); John Sobieski defeated the Turks at Choczim (10 Nov., 1673) and at Lemberg (24 Aug., 1675); by the Treaty of Zuravna (27 Oct., 1676) the Turks retained Kaminietz and Podolia, but gave up the Ukraine and the tribute; death of Ahmad Kiuprili (30 Oct., 1676).

The greatness of the Kiuprilis: the sudden resurrection of the Ottoman power; its significance.

Authorities: Creasy, History of the Ottoman Turks, and Stanley Lane-Poole, The Story of Turkey, and The Story of the Barbary Corsairs are readable books; Ranke, Fürsten und Völker von Süd-Europa; die Osmanen und die spanische Monarchie im 16ten und 17ten Jahrhundert (vols. 35, 36 of his Sämmtliche Werke) is more scientific; modern works are mainly based on Von Hammer, Geschichte des Osmanischen Reichs., 4 vols., translated into French as L'Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman, 18 vols., and on Zinkeisen, Geschichte des osmanischen Reichs in Europa, 7 vols. See also Naima, Annals of the Turkish Empire from 1591 to 1659, translated from the Turkish by Fraser, Sir Thomas Roe, Negotiations (1621–28), Gontaut-Biron, Ambassade en Turquie de Jean de Gontaut-Biron (1605–10), and Xénopol, Histoire des Roumains de la Dacie Trajane.

LECTURE 14.

EUROPE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

7. ITALY.

Italy at the commencement of the 17th century: the idea of Italian unity preached by Dante and Machiavelli had been extinguished by the vitality of local life and local rivalries; the Italians preferred local to national patriotism; therefore Italy was largely ruled by foreign powers.

The three prominent factors:

- i. The power of the Papacy represented more than the actual ex-
 - . tent of its dominions.
- ii. The great extent of Spanish power, comprising Sicily, Naples, Milan, Finale, the Tuscan presidios and Sardinia; Spain and the Pope ruled two-thirds of Italy.
- iii. The growth of Savoy.

The divisions of Italy and their relations to each other.

I. The States of the Church consisted of the Patrimony of Saint Peter, and the surrounding districts; of the duchy of Spoleto, including Perugia (1520); of the March of Ancona (1532); of the Romagna (1503); of Bologna (1513), and of Ferrara (1598), together with the duchies of Benevento and Ponte-Corvo, within the borders of Naples, and the city of Avignon and the county of the Venaissin, within the borders of France; to these were added, during the 17th century, Urbino (1631) and Castro (1649).

Alteration in the character of the Popes: they become more Italian and temporal in their aspirations; their attitude towards European affairs; their influence in Italy; their nepotism; their administration; the Roman nobility; the beautification of Rome. Clement VIII—Aldobrandini—his anti-Spanish policy; annexed Ferrara (1598); died 1605; Leo XI.—Medici—1605; Paul V.—Borghese—1605–21: his quarrel with Venice; Gregory XV.—Ludovisi—1621–23; Urban VIII.—Barberini—1623–44: his anti-Spanish policy and friendship for Richelieu; his administration; fortification of Rome; annexation of Urbino

(1631); war with Parma (1641-44); Innocent X.—Pamfili—1644-55: destruction of Castro (1649); his negotiations with Mazarin; condemnation of Jansenism; favoritism; Alexander VII.—Chigi—1655-67: rise in power of the "Congregations"; the plague at Rome (1656); his quarrel with Louis XIV.; Avignon occupied by the French (1663-65); sv/omission of the Pope.

II. The Spanish dominions:

i. Sicily: its feudal nobility; the rising against Spain (1647) and its suppression.

ii. Naples: the government of the Spaniards; Ossuna's attempt at revolt(1620); the tax on fruit imposed by Arcos; the rising of Masaniello(1647); action of the Duc de Guise; suppression of the insurrection (April, 1648).

iii. The following ports and cities in Tuscany, known as the "presidios", occupied by Spain since 1555: Argentaro, Porto Ercole, Santo Stefano, Talamone, Orbitello, Piombino and Porto Longone.

- iv. Duchy of Milan: exactions of the Spanish government.
- v. Marquisate of Finale.
- vi. Sardinia.

III. Grand Duchy of Tuscany: the later Medici; the tranquil reign of Ferdinand II. (1620-70); his encouragement of science and art.

IV. Duchy of Parma and Piacenza: government of the Farnesi; the war with the Pope (1641–44, 46–49) about the Duchy of Castro.

V. Duchy of Modena and Reggio: government of the Estensi; their friendship for France; their desire to recover Ferrara.

VI. Duchy of Mantua and Montferrat: the war for the Mantuan Succession (1627) on the death of Vincent Gonzaga II.; the Emperor and Spain supported the Duke of Guastalla; Richelieu supported Charles Gonzaga, Duc de Nevers; the city of Mantua sacked by the Imperialists (18 July, 1630); by the Treaty of Cherasco (1631) Charles was acknowledged as Duke, but Savoy obtained part of Montferrat; in return for its assistance, France was allowed to garrison Casale.

VII. Duchy of Guastalla: Duke Ferdinand Gonzaga I. claimed Mantua (1627); influence of Spain and the Emperor.

Italy. 35

VIII. Republic of Venice: the decline of its commerce; its political importance in the Levant and in Italy; the government of the Republic; its internal policy; its foreign policy; the quarrel with Pope Paul V.; Venice under an interdict (1606-07); Fra Paolo Sarpi (b. 1552, d. 1623); the conspiracy of Bedmar (1618); struggle with the Turks; the war in Crete (1645-69).

IX. Republic of Genoa: its weakness; its troubles with Corsica; wealth of its bankers; its fidelity to Spain the cause of attacks and menaces by France and Savoy.

X. Republic of Lucca: its commercial prosperity.

XI. Duchy of Savoy: the importance of its position holding the passes of the Alps between France and Italy; possession of Piedmont makes the dukes more Italian than French.

Charles Emmanuel I. (1580–1630); at first a faithful ally of Philip II., whose daughter he had married; ceded Bresse, Bugey and Gex to Henry IV. (1601) in exchange for Saluzzo; Henry IV.'s dream of a kingdom of the Alps; Charles Emmanuel declared for national independence of Italy against Spain; the Mantuan Succession (1627); Savoy obtained part of Montferrat (1631).

Victor Amadeus I. (1630-37): his alliance with France; married to a daughter of Henry IV.; by the treaty of Rivoli (1635) formed a league against Spain with Mantua and Parma; cession of Pignerol to France.

Charles Emmanuel II. (1638-75); regency of Maria Christina of France (1637-48); civil war (1639-42), the Regent being aided by France and the late king's brothers by Spain; his policy; persecution of the Vaudois; schemes on Genoa; the House of Savoy regarded Italy "as an artichoke to be eaten up leaf by leaf."

Authorities: Among small books in English, or translated into English, may be noted Trollope, Paul the Pope and Paul the Friar; H. F. Brown, Venice; Malleson, Studies from Genoese History; and for Masaniello and Naples during this period, Von Reumont, The Carafas of Maddaloni; Naples under Spanish Dominion. Among secondary histories consult Botta, Storia dell' Italia, vols. 5-8; Cantú, Storia degli Italiani; Ranke, Die römischen Päpste im 16ten und 17ten Jahrhundert, 3 vols., translated by Austin, vol. 3; Brosch, Geschichte des Kirchenstaates, 2 vols.; De Moüy, L'Ambassade du Duc de Créqui (1662-65), 2 vols.; Giannone, Istoria civile del Regno di Napoli; Hervey de Saint-Denis, Insurrection de Naples en 1647, translated from Rivas, 2 vols.; Loiseleur, Mazarin et le Duc de

Spain.

Guise in his Questions historiques du XVII° siècle; Von Reumont, Geschichte Toscanas unter die Medici, 2 vols.; Cantú, Ragionamenti sulla Storia Lombarda del secolo XVII.; Bianchi-Giovini, Biografia da Fra Paolo; Cornet, Paolo V e la republica Veneta (1605-7); Daru, Histoire de Venise, vols. x-xiv; Garzoni, Istoria della republica di Venezia; Ricotti, Storia della monarchia piemontese; Costa Beauregard, Mémoires historiques sur la Maison royale de Savoie, 4 vols.; Belgiojoso, Histoire de la Maison de Savoie; Baux, Histoire de la réunion à la France des provinces de Bresse, Bugey, Gex; Carutti, Storia della diplomazia della corte di Savoia, 4 vols., and Claretta, Storia del regno di Carlo Emanuele II., 2 vols. The primary authorities are to be found in Muratori, Botero, the collections of official documents, and the Archivio Storico Italiano, while for the attempt of Guise on Naples may be noted Modène, Histoire des révolutions de la ville et du royaume de Naples, and Loiseleur and Baguenault de Puchesse, L'expédition du Duc de Guise à Naples, and for the quarrel between the Pope and Venice, Sarpi, Opere.

LECTURE 15.

EUROPE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE 17TH CENTURY.

8. SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

The extent of the dominions of the Spanish Hapsburgs at the commencement of the 17th century: Spain, Portugal, Sardinia, Naples, Sicily, the Milanese, Roussillon, Franche-Comté, the Catholic Netherlands, Central and South America, the West Indies, the Philippine Islands and the various settlements of the Portuguese in Africa and Asia.

The policy of Philip II. and its effect on the strength of Spain at home and abroad: Spain and the Catholic Church.

The weakness of Spain at home: bad internal administration; sterilizing effect of the wealth drawn from the colonies; colonial administration.

The weakness of Spain abroad: the war with England and the Protestant Netherlands; the attitude of France and of the Empire.

Yet the seeming power of Spain overshadowed Protestant Christendom: policy of Henry IV. of France, James I. and Charles I. of England, Richelieu, Mazarin and Cromwell toward Spain.

Reign of Philip III. (1598–1621): the administration of the Duke of Lerma (1598–1618); his internal policy; the expulsion of the Moriscoes (1609); his foreign policy; peace with England (1604); truce with the Protestant Netherlands (1609); the French alliance and marriages (1612); Lerma made a cardinal and dismissed (1618); succeeded by his son, the Duke of Ucedo.

Reign of Philip IV. (1621-65): administration of the Count-Duke Olivares (1621-43); Spain in the Thirty Years' War; Spinola occupied the Palatinate (1621); renewal of war with the Dutch (1621); Spain struggled with France for supremacy in Northern Italy and was three times worsted, (1) in the affair of the Valtelline (1625), (2) in the Mantuan Succession (1627-30), (3) in the Valtelline (1635); Richelieu's efforts to overthrow the power of Spain; the revolt of Catalonia and of Portugal (1640); dismissal of Olivares (1643).

Administration of Don Luis de Haro (1643-65): defeat of the Spaniards at Rocroi (1643); and again at Lens (1648); Spain recognized the independence of the Protestant Netherlands at Münster (1648); Spain's attempts to take advantage of the Fronde in France; Cromwell and Mazarin; defeat of Spain; conclusion of the Treaty of the Pyrenees (7 Nov., 1659), by which Spain lost Roussillon and Artois; marriage of Louis XIV. to Maria Theresa of Spain; the question of the Spanish Succession; death of Philip IV. (17 Sept., 1665).

Condition of Portugal during the "Sixty Years' Captivity" to Spain (1580-1640); ruin of her commerce; loss of her monopoly of the Asiatic trade; the Dutch seized the Spice Islands and established themselves in Brazil; discontent felt in Portugal; preparations for revolt; negotiations with Richelieu.

The Revolution of 1640: the Duke of Braganza hailed as John IV.; independence of Portugal recognized by France and the Dutch; help sent; revolt of the Asiatic and African possessions and Brazil against Spain; commencement of the War of Independence; difficulties of John IV.; his death (1656).

Reign of Affonso VI. (1656-67): government of the queen-mother (1656-62); Schomberg (b. 1618, d. 1690) organized the Portuguese army; by the Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659), Mazarin promised Spain to abandon his support of Portugal; but he brought about the marriage

of Charles II. of England with Catherine of Braganza (1662); importance of the English alliance; administration of Castel Melhor (1662-67); continuation of the War of Independence; victories of Schomberg; court revolution (1667); Dom Pedro declared Regent and Affonso VI. sent to the Azores; treaty of peace with Spain signed at Lisbon (13 Feb., 1668) and the independence of Portugal recognized.

Significance of the Revolution of 1640: condition of Portugal and its importance as an ally of England.

Authorities: As small books may be noted Dunham, History of Spain and Portugal, vols. 3, 4, which is old-fashioned but fairly correct for Spain, and Morse Stephens, Story of Portugal. As secondary authorities consult, for Spain. the volumes on this period in Lafuente, and other consecutive histories of Spain; Weiss, L'Espagne depuis le règne de Philippe II. jusqu'à l'avènement des Bourbons, 2 vols.; Philippson, Heinrich IV. und Philipp III.; Melo, Guerra de la Cataluña, translated by Léonce de Lavergne; Watson, History of the Reign of Philip III., and Dunlop, Memoirs of Spain during the reigns of Philip IV. and Charles II., 2 vols., both old-fashioned but containing much that is valuable; for Portugal, Oliveira Martins, Historia de Portugal; Rebello da Silva, Historia de Portugal durante os seculos XVI. et XVII., 5 vols. (1557-1656); Vertot, Révolutions de Portugal, and Tessier, Le Chevalier de Jant: relations de la France avec le Portugal au temps de Mazarin. Among primary authorities for Spanish history during the century may be noted, in addition to the Coleccion de documentos ineditos, Morel-Fatio, L'Espagne au XVIe. et XVIIe. siècle : documents historiques et littéraires, Denans de Courchetet, Histoire des négociations et du traité de paix de Pyrénées, and Mignet, Négociations relatives à la succession d'Espagne sous Louis XIV., vol. i.; for Portugal, Borges de Castro and Judice Biker, Collecção dos actos publicos celebrados entre a Coroa de Portugal e as mais potencias desde 1640; Carte, History of the Revolutions of Portugal with the Letters of Sir R. Southwell to the Duke of Ormond; and Sir Richard Fanshaw, Original Letters during his Embassies in Spain and Portugal.

X LECTURE 16. Fin Stroks.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV. AND COLBERT: TO THE REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES, 1685.

Louis XIV. assumed the actual government of France on the death of Mazarin (1661): his personality; his political aims; how far he con-

tinued the work of Richelieu and Mazarin; how far he was an originator.

His first ministers: the chancellors Séguier (1656–72), d'Aligre (1672–77) and Le Tellier (1677–85); Hugues de Lionne (1663–71), Pomponne (1671–79) and Colbert-Croissy (1679–96), foreign affairs; Le Tellier (1643–66) and Louvois (1666–91), war; Fouquet (1653–61) and Colbert (1661–83), finances; Colbert (1668–76) and Colbert-Seignelay (1676–90), marine.

The overthrow of Fouquet (1661).

The work of Colbert (b. 1619, d. 1683): he arranged the finances of France; he built up manufactures by a protective policy; he encouraged commerce and occupied San Domingo; he created the French navy; his personal probity; his hatred of war; his love of public works; the great canal of Languedoc made by Riquet.

Louvois (b. 1641, d. 1691) and his work: he organized the army; his military reforms; formation of uniformed regiments, etc.; the great French generals, Turenne and Condé, Luxembourg and Vauban.

The internal policy of Louis XIV.: he attracted the nobility to Court and kept them out of politics; he built up the administrative system; the intendants of the provinces; the new official nobility; the police system; the suppression of local liberties and municipal government; the King and his ministers the pivot of the highly centralized government.

The position of the Parlements: especially the Parlement of Paris; growing importance of the noblesse de la robe.

The splendor of Louis XIV.: he established himself at Versailles and made it the seat of government (1682); importance given by him to the Court; influence of society and social observances; etiquette; effect of the removal from Paris; his absolutism in society as well as in politics.

Immorality of Parisian society: the case of Madame de Brinvilliers (1676); the "poisoning affairs" (1680).

Louis XIV. and the Catholic Church: his quarrel with Pope Alexander VII. (1662-64); his quarrel with Pope Innocent XI. (1687-89); the claims of the Gallican Church; the Assembly of 1682; the attitude of Louis XIV. to the Papacy; the Jansenists and their doctrines; the

position of the Huguenots; the new policy adopted by the King; the dragonnades; Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (22 Oct., 1685).

Condition of the French provinces under Louis XIV.: suppression of brigandage and crime; the "Grands Jours d' Auvergne" (1665–66); hard lot of the peasants; provincial life among the petite noblesse and the bourgeois; prosperity of the cities, and, under Colbert, of industry and commerce.

Louis XIV. and literature: the classic age; French tragedy and comedy created by Corneille, Racine and Molière; the great French preachers, Bossuet, Mascaron, Fléchier and Bourdaloue; the prose writers, Pascal and La Bruyère; Boileau and the canons of poetry; history and Mezeray; the work and position of the Académie Française.

Louis XIV. and art: the painters, Poussin, Le Sueur and Le Brun; the architects, Mansart and Perrault; the gardener, Le Nôtre; foundation of the Academies of Sciences and of Inscriptions and of the School of Rome.

Private life of Louis XIV.: his principal mistresses, Mdlle. de La Vallière, Madame de Montespan and Mdlle. de Fontanges; death of the Queen (1683); his private marriage to Madame de Maintenon (1684).

The year of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) marked a change in the character and policy of Louis XIV: he is henceforth influenced by Madame de Maintenon and his confessors Père La Chaise, and Père Letellier; after the death of Colbert the Spanish Succession became his one aim.

Impression which the days of the glory of Louis XIV. made on Europe: the imitators of his ideas and of his splendor.

Authorities: Hassall, Louis XIV. and the Zenith of the French Monarchy is the best little book in English on the period; but Voltaire, Siècle de Louis XIV., is not likely to be superseded. Among secondary authorities may be noted Gaillardin, Histoire du règne de Louis XIV., vols. 3, 4: Lair, Louise de Vallière et la jeunesse de Louis XIV., and Nicolas Fouquet, 2 vols.; Chéruel, De l'administration de Louis XIV. (1661-72), and Mémoires sur la vie publique et privée de Fouquet, 2 vols.; Clément, Histoire de Colbert et de son administration, 2 vols; Le Gouvernement de Louis XIV., ou la cour l'administration, les finances et le commerce de 1683-89; La Police sous Louis XIV., and Madame de Montespan et Louis XIV.; Neymarck, Colbert et son temps, 2 vols.: Rousset, Histoire de Louvois, 4 vols.; Kerviler, Le chancelier Pierre Séguier; Chantelauze, Le Cardinal de Retz et ses

missions diplomatiques à Rome; Gazier, Les dernières années du Cardinal de Retz: Loyson, L'Assemblée du clergé de France de 1682; Michaud, Louis XIV, et Innocent XI., 4 vols.; Bausset, Histoire de Bossuet, 4 vols., and Histoire de Fénelon, 4 vols.: Benoit. Histoire de l'Édit de Nantes; Douen, La Révocation de l'Édit de Nantes à Paris; Bianquis, La Révocation de l'Édit de Nantes à Rouen; Soulice, L'intendant Foucault et la Révocation en Béarn; Puaux and Sabatier, Études sur la Révocation de l'Édit de Nantes, and Lemontey, Essai sur l'établissement monarchique de Louis XIV: Martin, La Monarchie au XVIIième siècle : essai sur le système et l'influence personelle de Louis XIV. The primary authorities for the administration of Louis XIV. are Louis XIV., Oeuvres, ed. Grouvelle, 6 vols.: Mémoire de Louis XIV. pour l'instruction du Dauphin, ed. Drevss : Clément. Lettres. instructions et mémoires de Colbert, 7 vols.; Boislisle, Correspondance des controleurs généraux des finances avec les intendants des provinces, 2 vols., and Mémoires des intendants sur l'état des généralités, and Depping, Correspondance administrative sous le règne de Louis XIV., 4 vols., in the Documents inédits : for the administration in the provinces see also the works cited under Lecture 29. Among the vast number of memoirs, etc., may be noted the Journal of Lefèvre d' Ormesson; the Mémoires of Madame de Motteville, Mademoiselle de Montpensier, La Fare, Gourville and Foucault; Cosnac, Souvenirs du règne de Louis XIV., 8 vols.: Fléchier, Mémoires sur les Grands Jours tenus à Clermont en 1665-66, ed. Gonod ; and Bussy-Rabutin, Correspondence (1663-93), ed. Lalanne; with above all the Letters of Madame de Sevigné, with Combes, Madame de Sevigné historien.

LECTURE 17.

THE FOREIGN POLICY OF LOUIS XIV.: TO THE TREATIES OF NIMEGUEN, 1678.

Position of the powers of Europe toward each other when Louis XIV. assumed the government of France (1661).

The 17th century theory of the State: the idea of religious unity was giving way to the conception of national unity concentrated in the person of the Monarch; exceptions, the Protestant Netherlands and England.

The Restoration in England (1660): extinction of feudal relics; the power of Parliament and development of commercialism; the contest for the commerce of the world between England and the Dutch.

Advantages possessed by France in the new era of diplomatists and standing armies: Louis XIV. understood and dominated the new era; his foreign office and diplomatists; his army, its organization and its generals; his navy.

Louis XIV. resolved to use these advantages to enlarge the borders of France, and, for internal and external reasons, decided on a war policy.

Louis XIV. and diplomatic privileges: the case of D'Estrades at London (1661), and of Créqui at Rome (1662).

Louis XIV. and England: marriage of Henrietta of England, sister of Charles II., to the Duke of Orleans, brother of Louis XIV. (1661); purchase of Dunkirk (17 Oct., 1662).

Louis XIV. and Spain: his hopes of the succession; his claims for diplomatic precedence granted.

Louis XIV. and Germany: help sent to the Emperor against the Turks (1664); his influence with the League of the Rhine and the west German princes.

Louis XIV. and the Turks: Beaufort defeated the Barbary Corsairs (1663-65); help sent to the Venetians in Candia.

Louis XIV. and the Dutch: his relations with John de Witt; effect of Colbert's protective policy on the Dutch.

The naval war between England and the Dutch (1664-67): causes of the war in commercial rivalry; the republican party and the House of Orange; capture of New Amsterdam; battle of Lowestoft (3 June, 1665); the attack of Galen, Bishop of Münster, on the Dutch; Louis XIV. declared war against England (26 Jan., 1666); battle of the Downs (1-4 June, 1666); Louis XIV. made an agreement with Charles II. (March, 1667); the Dutch in the Medway; Treaty of Breda (31 July, 1667); England abandoned the trade of the Spice Islands, but kept the New Netherlands.

The War of Devolution (1667-68): pretext for the war; isolation of Spain; Louis XIV. took the border fortresses of the Catholic Netherlands and occupied Franche-Comté; the Triple Alliance; by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (2 May, 1668) France kept French Flanders, but restored Franche-Comté to Spain.

The Triple Alliance between England, Sweden, and the Dutch (23

Jan., 1668): its importance; the principle of the Balance of Power, one of the keynotes of European policy for more than a century, devised by Sir William Temple, to check the ambition of Louis XIV.

The position in the Protestant Netherlands: the policy of John de Witt; his opposition to the House of Orange; character of William III.

Louis XIV. broke up the Triple Alliance by the Treaty of Dover with England (1 June, 1670), and by detaching Sweden (14 April, 1672); secret treaty with the Emperor for dividing the-Spanish Succession (19 Jan., 1668), followed by a treaty of neutrality (1 Nov., 1671); treaty with the Elector of Bavaria (17 Feb., 1670).

Louis XIV. attacked the Dutch (1672): their sole ally the Great Elector, Frederick William of Brandenburg; William III. appointed Captain-General by the States-General of the United Provinces (4 Feb., 1672); passage of the Rhine by the French army (12 June); the Dutch cut their dykes (18 June); William III. proclaimed Stadtholder of Holland and Zealand (4 July); murder of John de Witt (20 Aug.); treaty with the Emperor (27 Oct.); the Great Elector forced to make peace with France at Vossen (10 Apr., 1673).

The naval war: England joined France; the battle of Solebay (7 June, 1672); the Dutch successful under Cornelius Tromp (b. 1629, d. 1691), and Ruyter (b. 1607, d. 1676), in 1673 (7 June, 14 June, 21 August); peace between England and the Dutch (19 Feb., 1674).

The continental war: coalition formed against Louis XIV. by the Emperor and the Great Elector (23 June, 1672); conference at Cologne (June, 1673); the Emperor formed a second coalition with the Dutch, joined in succession by Spain and the Duke of Lorraine (30 Aug., 1673), Denmark and the Elector-Palatine (Jan. and March, 1674), the Empire (28 May, 1674), and the Great Elector (1 July, 1674); the Electors of Trèves and Cologne forced to abandon France (1673); Sweden remained her only ally.

Campaign of 1673: capture of Maestricht (29 June, 1673); Turenne's strategy; campaign of 1674; Louis XIV. occupied Franche-Comté; William III. defeated by Condé at Senef (11 Aug., 1674); Turenne crossed the Rhine and ravaged the Palatinate; campaign of 1675; Turenne and Montecuccoli in Alsace; Turenne killed (27 July); naval

victories of Du Quesne (b. 1610, d. 1688) in the Mediterranean; death of Ruyter (Apr., 1676); subsequent campaigns; capture of the border fortresses by the French.

Treaties of Peace signed at Nimeguen;

- i. Between France and the Dutch (10 Aug., 1678) by which France restored Maestricht and the Dutch ceded nothing.
- ii. Between France and Spain (17 Sept., 1678) by which Spain ceded Franche-Comté, and Valenciennes, Cambrai and other towns in French Flanders, to France.
- iii. Between France and the Emperor (5 Feb., 1679) by which France restored Philipsburg, but retained Breisach and Freiburg.

These treaties supplemented by (i.) that of Saint-Germain-en-Laye (29 June, 1679) between Brandenburg and Sweden; (ii.) that of Fontainebleau (26 Sept, 1679) between Denmark and Sweden; by which Brandenburg and Denmark restored their conquests to Sweden.

Authorities: Among secondary works dealing with the diplomatic and military history of the period, founded on documents, may be noted, Philippson, Das zeitalter Ludwigs des Vierzehnten; Filon, La France et l'Autriche au XVIIe Siècle: Lonchay, La rivalité de la France et de l'Espagne aux Pays-Bas (1635-1700); Lefèvre-Pontalis, Jean de Witt; Groen van Prinsterer and Combes, cited under Lecture 10; Baillon, Henriette Anne d'Angleterre, duchesse d'Orléans: Forneron. Louise de Kéroualle, duchesse de Portsmouth; Ségur-Dupevron, Histoire des négociations commerciales et maritimes de la France au XVII ième et XVIII ième Siècle, vol. 1; Jusserand, A French Ambassador at the Court of Charles II.; le comte de Cominges; Moüy, Louis XIV. et le Saint-Siège: l'ambassade du duc de Créqui (1662-1665); Rousset, Histoire de Louvois, 4 vols.; Peter, Der Krieg des Grossen Kurfürsten gegen Frankreich (1672-1675); Depping, Geschichte des Krieges der Münsterer und Cölner im Bundnisse mit Frankreich gegen Holland: Ennen, Frankreich und der Niederrhein, 2 vols.; Guhraner, Kur-Mainz in der Epoche von 1672 ; Piépape, Histoire de la réunion de la Franche-Comté à la France, 2 vols.; Roy, Turenne, sa vic et les institutions militaires de son temps; Ramsay, Histoire du Vicomte de Turenne, 4 vols; Choppin, Campagne de Turenne en Alsace (1674-75); Campori, Raimondo Montecuccoli, la sua famiglia e i suoi tempi; Michel, Histoire de Vauban; Mellion, Vauban; Ambert, Le Maréchal de Vauban; Ial, Abraham Du Quesne et la marine de son temps, 2 vols., and Paulliat, Louis XIV. et la compagnie des Indes. The chief primary authorities are the text of the treaties in Vast, Les grandes traités du règne de Louis XIV. ; Mignet, Négociations relatives à la succession d'Espagne, 4 vols.; Griffet, Recueil de Lettres pour

servir à l'histoire militaire de Louis XIV., 8 vols.; Turenne, Correspondance inédite avec Le Tellier et Louvois (1652-72), ed. Barthélemy, and the Mémoires of Turenne, Montecuccoli and the Maréchal Gramont.

LECTURE 18.

FREDERICK WILLIAM, THE GREAT ELECTOR.

The scattered nature and diverse character of the dominions ruled by Frederick William, Elector of Brandenburg and Duke of Prussia, known as the Great Elector (b. 1620, succeeded 1640).

In 1648 Brandenburg, the nucleus, was not yet entirely evacuated by the Swedish troops; Eastern Pomerania still full of Swedes; Prussia only held in feudal subjection to Poland; and Cleves garrisoned by the Dutch; the additional territory given to him by the Treaties of Westphalia—Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Cammin and Minden.

Contrast between the policy pursued in Brandenburg and in the rest of Germany during the latter half of the 17th century: the importance of the reign of the Great Elector; he prepared the way for the future greatness of the House of Hohenzollern.

The Great Elector's national policy: his desire to hold Prussia free from Polish suzerainty the motive for his actions in the Northern War of 1656-60; that relief, granted by the Treaty of Wehlau (1657), confirmed by the Treaty of Oliva (1660); his desire to get the Dutch garrison out of Cleves the motive for aiding the Dutch in 1672; his desire to conquer Western Pomerania the motive for joining the coalition against Louis XIV.

To carry out his schemes the Great Elector, like Louis XIV., created and organized a standing army and looked solely to national interests.

In 1666 he finally divided the Juliers-Cleves dominions, and took Cleves, Ravensberg and Mark; in the same year he occupied Magdeburg, which afterwards legally devolved on him according to the Treaties of Westphalia, on the death of Augustus of Saxony in 1680.

Part taken by the Great Elector in the wars against Louis XIV: in 1672 he aided the Dutch, but made peace in 1673; in 1674 he joined the

coalition against France, and was attacked by Sweden; he defeated the Swedes at Fehrbellin (28 June, 1675), took Stettin (1677), and Stralsund (1678); but by the Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye (29 June, 1679), he had to restore all Western Pomerania except a small district.

The Great Elector and the Emperor: his German policy; a member of the League of the Rhine; strife for the leadership of the Protestant princes with Saxony; his friendship with Denmark; his attitude towards Poland; his claims to Jägernsdorf in Silesia, confiscated by Ferdinand II. in 1623, and to Liegnitz on death of the last duke (1675), compromised in 1686 by the Emperor Leopold's ceding to him Schwebus in Silesia.

The internal policy of the Great Elector: his struggle for absolutism and centralized administration with the nobility, united in their provincial Estates, and with the municipal rights of the cities; local jeal-ousy of the different provinces.

- i. In Brandenburg: the Estates were enfeebled and could not meet without being convoked; no Estates of the province, only provincial Estates in the Old, and New, Mark.
- ii. In Cleves: the nobility Lutheran and opposed to the Calvinist Elector; their alliance with the Dutch; the administration in the hands of the Estates; the resistance of the nobility overthrown by the use of troops in 1651 and 1654; the administration taken into the hands of the Elector.
- iii. In Prussia: the nobility with full feudal power taxing and ruling their dominions; their friendship with and imitation of the Polish nobility; independent attitude of the Estates, supported by the city of Königsberg; the Great Elector's struggle for the recognition of his sovereignty (1660-63); the execution of Kalkstein (1670).

The keynote of the struggle the definition of the position of the Elector and the Estates: the main battle over taxation; in Brandenburg (1653), in Cleves (1661), in Prussia (1663) the right of self-taxation by the Estates was acknowledged; but in Cleves from 1670, in Brandenburg from 1678, in Prussia and in Magdeburg from 1682 the direct taxes were recognized as permanent, and future taxes imposed without asking the Estates; excise introduced (1677).

In return for the subordination of the nobles, the Great Elector recognized serfdom on their properties and re-established it in Prussia.

To carry out his ambitious hopes for his House, the Great Elector saw that Brandenburg must be a military power: his efforts to create a standing army; at his accession it consisted of 1,200 men, at his death of 30,000.

Material progress encouraged by the Great Elector: agriculture improved; marshes drained; canal made from the Elbe to the Oder; growth of Berlin; welcome of more than 20,000 Huguenots after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes.

Death of the Great Elector (28 April, 1688): comparison between his aims and methods and those of Louis XIV.

Authorities: In English see Carlyle, History of Frederick the Great, vols. 1, 2, and Tuttle, History of Prussia, vol. 1. Among secondary histories consult Berner, Geschichte des preussischen Staats; Stenzel, Geschichte des preussischen Staats, vols. 1, 2; Droysen, Geschichte der preussischen Politik, vol. 3; Ranke, Zwölf Bücher preussischer Geschichte; Treitschke, Deutsche Geschichte, vol. 1; Philippson, Geschichte des preussischer Staatswesens, vol. 1; Bornhak, Geschichte des preussischen Verwaltungsrechts. vol. 1; Isaacsohn, Geschichte des preussischen Beamtenthums, vol. 2; Cavaignac, La Formation de la Prusse contemporaine, vol. 1; Hedeström, Die Beziehungen zwischen Russland und Brandenburg während des ersten nordischen Krieges (1655–60); Müsedeck, Die Feldzüge des Grossen Kurfürsten in Pommern (1675–77); and Peter, cited under Lecture 17. The best biography is Erdmannsdörffer, Der Grosse Kurfürst. The primary authority is the collection, edited by Erdmannsdörffer and others, of the Urkunden und Actenstücke zur Geschichte des Kurfürsten Friedrich Wilhelm von Brandenburg.

LECTURE 19.

THE FOREIGN POLICY OF LOUIS XIV: TO THE TREATIES OF RYSWICK, 1697.

The rivalry between William III., Prince of Orange, and Louis XIV.: the character of William III.; his adherence to the doctrine of the Balance of Power; the question of the Spanish Succession.

The position of William III. in the United Provinces: he was pro-

claimed hereditary Captain- and Admiral-General (1674), and hereditary Stadtholder of Holland, Zealand and Utrecht (1674), and of Gelderland and Overyssel (1675); his chief agent, Fagel, Pensionary of Holland (1672–88); after the Treaties of Nimeguen the republican party raised opposition to him; Heinsius (b. 1641, d. 1720) elected Pensionary of Holland (March, 1689).

The position of Louis XIV. after the Treaties of Nimeguen; his relations with Charles II. and James II. of England; the "chambers of reunion" declared certain towns and districts belonging to the Elector-Palatine, the Elector of Trèves, the Bishop of Spires and the Duke of Würtemberg, with the duchy of Deux-Ponts (Zweibrücken), a possession of the King of Sweden, to be fiefs of the Three Bishoprics, Alsace or Franche Comté; seizure of Strasburg and purchase of Casale (30 Sept., 1681); secret alliance between the Emperor, William III., Spain and Sweden (1681) negotiated by Ernest, Duke of Hanover, to preserve the arrangements made at Nimeguen in 1678; prevented from acting by the invasion of the Turks and the siege of Vienna (1683); capture of Luxemburg (1684); the Imperial Diet made a truce of twenty years with Louis XIV., and consented to the reunions (15 Aug., 1684).

Formation of the League of Augsburg (17 July, 1686) between the allies of 1681, joined by Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy, the Elector of Bayaria and others.

Louis XIV. and the Mediterranean: Du Quesne bombarded Tripoli (1681) and Algiers (1682-83) and Genoa (1684); Seignelay's work in improving the French navy.

Louis XIV. and Pope Innocent XI.: the ambassador's right of asylum; occupation of Avignon (1688).

Louis XIV. and the administration: Colbert succeeded by Le Peletier (1683–89), and Pontchartrain (1689–99); Louvois by Barbézieux (1691-1701); Colbert-Croissy assisted by Colbert-Torcy (1689) and succeeded by him (1696).

Effect of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685) on Europe, especially on England and Germany.

Outbreak of war (1688): its immediate causes; (1) the Palatine Succession (1685); pretensions of Louis XIV. on behalf of the Duchess of Orleans; (2) the electorate of Cologne, France supporting Cardinal

von Fürstenberg and the Emperor, Joseph Clement of Bavaria; devastation of the Palatinate, occupation of Bonn, Cologne, Mayence and Trèves and capture of Philipsburg (1689).

The situation changed by the Revolution of 1688 in England, by which William III. became ruler of England; effect on the position of Louis XIV.; despatch of an army and a fleet to support James II. in Ireland.

Campaign of 1690: De Tourville defeated the English and the Dutch off Beachy Head (10 July), but James II. was defeated in the battle of the Boyne (11 July), and left Ireland; Luxembourg (b. 1628, d. 1695) defeated the Prince of Waldeck at Fleurus (1 July, 1690), and Catinat (b. 1637, d. 1712), the Duke of Savoy at Staffarda (17 Aug., 1690).

The campaign of 1691: preparations of Louis XIV. for the invasion of England; capture of Mons (9 April) by the king; of Nice (2 April) by Catinat; of Urgel by Nozilles; death of Louvois.

The campaign of 1692: Russell defeated De Tourville in the battle of La Hogue (29 May); end of the French supremacy in the Channel: regular naval war abandoned for frigate fighting and privateering; Duguay-Trouin and Jean Bart; the invasion of England abandoned; capture of Namur by the king (5 June); Luxembourg defeated William III. at Steenkirk (3 August); the Duke of Savoy and Prince Eugène invaded Dauphiné.

The campaign of 1693: Luxembourg defeated William III. at Landen or Neerwinden (29 July) and took Charleroi (11 Oct.); Catinat defeated the Duke of Savoy and Prince Eugène at the Marsaglia (4 Oct.); Rosas captured by Noailles (9 June); Pondicherry, the chief French settlement in India, taken by the Dutch.

Exhaustion of France: feebleness of the ministers; depreciation of the currency.

Defensive campaign of 1694: death of Luxembourg (4 Jan., 1695); William III. recaptured Namur (4 Aug., 1695); Louis XIV. made peace (29 June, 1696) with Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy, who recovered Pignerol and Casale, and whose daughter married the eldest grandson of Louis; he declared himself the ally of France.

Negotiations for peace opened at Ryswick (May, 1697): Vendôme's capture of Barcelona (10 Aug.).

The Treaties of Ryswick signed 20 Sept. and 30 Oct., 1697:

- i. Louis XIV. recognized William III. as King of England, but refused to expel James II. from France.
- ii. The Dutch restored Pondicherry and were allowed to garrison the frontier towns of Belgium as "barrier fortresses."
- iii. Louis XIV. restored to the Empire Philipsburg, Breisach and Freiburg, the fortresses held by France on the right bank of the Rhine, and all places adjudged to him or seized by him since the Treaties of Nimeguen, except Strasburg, Longwy, Sarrelouis and Landau.
- iv. Leopold, Duke of Lorraine, restored to his father's dominions, with all fortresses dismantled.

Position of the powers of Europe at the Treaties of Ryswick awaiting the settlement of the Spanish Succession.

Authorities: Of the secondary histories cited for Lectures 16 and 17, Voltaire, Gaillardin, Clément, Le Gouvernement de Louis XIV. de 1683-89; Rousset, Michaud, Bausset, Lemontey, Martin, Philippson, Filon, Lonchay, Segur-Dupeyron, vol. ii., Ennen, Roy, Michel, Mellion, Ambert and Jal are still valuable, and of the primary authorities Louis XIV., Dreyss, Boislisle, Depping, Foucault, Cosnac, La Fare, Bussy-Rabutin, Madame de Sevigné and Griffet. To the secondary authorities should be added for this period Macaulay, History of England, vols. 1-4; Sirtema de Grovestins, Guillaume III. et Louis XIV., 8 vols.; Wolseley, Life of the Duke of Marlborough to the Accession of Queen Anne; Noailles, Histoire de Madame de Maintenon et des principaux événements du règne de Louis XIV., 4 vols.; Geffroy, Madame de Maintenon; Wilson, James II. and the Duke of Berwick; Reuss, L'Alsace au XVII. ième siècle; Legrelle, Louis XIV. et Strasbourg ; Gérin, Louis XIV. et le Saint-Siège ; Schulte, Markgraf Ludwig von Baden und der Reichskrieg gegen Frankreich, 2 vols.; Delarbre, Tourville et la marine de son temps; Carutti, Storia del regno di Vittorio Amedio II., and D'Haussonville, La Duchesse de Bourgogne et l'alliance savoyarde sous Louis XIV., and Histoire de la réunion de la Lorraine à la France, 4 vols. To the primary authorities add State Papers and Correspondence illustrative of the social and political state of Europe, 1688-1715, ed. Kemble; Lexington Papers, 1694-98, ed. Sutton; Spanheim, Relation sur la cour de France en 1690; Madame de Maintenon, Correspondance générale, and Œuvres, ed. by Lavallée, 12 vols ; the Letters of the Duchesse d'Orléans, known as Madame Palatine, ed. by Bodemann, 2 vols, translated and ed. Jaeglé, 3 vols.; Catinat, Mémoires et Correspondance, 3 vols.; Dumont von Carlscroon, Mémoires politiques pour servir à la parfaite intelligence de l'histoire de la paix de Ryswick, 4 vols; and the documents of the Peace of Ryswick, ed. Fritsch; the Mémoires of Mdlle. de Lafayette, Madame de Caylus, the Abbé Choisy, and Torcy, and the Journal of Dangeau, vols. 1-6.

LECTURE 20.

THE SIEGE OF VIENNA BY THE TURKS, 1683: POLAND UNDER JOHN SOBIESKI.

The Emperor Leopold I. (1658-1705): his character and his government.

The Emperor Leopold I. and Hungary: his efforts (1) to extirpate Calvinism, (2) to destroy local independence, in the portion of Hungary left to him; the situation after the Treaty of Vasvar (1664); the conspiracy of 1670; the office of Palatine abolished and a policy of religious persecution and Germanization adopted; the insurrection of Tököli (1675-79) encouraged by Louis XIV. to embarrass the Emperor; effect of Western on Eastern European politics; the Treaty of Nimeguen (1678) followed by the Diet of Œdensberg (1681), by which the office of Palatine was restored, arbitrary taxes abolished, all offices thrown open to Magyars and liberty of worship promised to the Protestants; Paul Esterhazy chosen Palatine to the disgust of Tököli.

The Emperor Leopold and Transylvania; attitude of that province to the Turks; on the death of George Rakoczy II. (1660) Michael Apafy appointed Prince of Transylvania; recognized by both Emperor and Sultan by the Truce of Vasvar (1664), but to pay tribute to the Sultan.

The Turks declared Tököli Prince of Hungary (1682), and under command of the brother-in-law of Ahmad Kiuprili, Kara Mustapha, (Grand Vizier since 1676), marched on Vienna (1683); the siege of Vienna (March-Sept., 1683); its significance in history; help demanded by the Emperor from other states; heroic defense of Vienna under Ernest Rüdiger von Starhemberg; appeal for the help of John Sobieski, King of Poland; attempt of Louis XIV. to isolate the Emperor.

John Sobieski (b. 1629) elected King of Poland (21 May, 1674); feeble reign of Michael Koributh Vichnevetski (1669-74); Sobieski's difficulties in Poland since the Treaty of Zuravna (27 Oct., 1676); his treaties with Russia and the Dutch; his fame as a general; his desire for a crusade against the Turks; his friendship with Pope Innocent XI.; his disputes with Louis XIV.; his determination to come to the help of the Emperor with the Polish army.

John Sobieski, with Charles V., Duke of Lorraine (b. 1643, d. 1690), in command of the Austrian army, defeated the Turks in their camp (12 Sept., 1683) and raised the siege of Vienna; pursuit of the Turks; capture of Gran (24 Oct.); execution of Kara Mustapha (25 Dec., 1683).

War with the Turks: first phase (1684-89); excitement caused in Christendom by the siege of Vienna; the "Holy League" of Austria, Poland, Venice and Malta, formed by Pope Innocent XI.; the Venetians under Morosini conquered the Morea and Athens (1684-87); the Poles in Moldavia (1686); the Duke of Lorraine captured Buda (2 Sept., 1686); he and Louis of Baden (b. 1655, d. 1707) defeated the Turks at Mohacs (12 Aug., 1687); the Jamssaries deposed Muhammad IV. and placed Sulaiman II. on the throne (8 Nov., 1687); Michael Apafy, Prince of Transylvania, declared, himself a vassal of the Emperor (28 July, 1686); capture of Belgrade (6 Sept., 1688); Louis of Baden invaded Servia; the Russian attack on the Crimea; Mustapha Kiuprili, brother of Ahmad Kiuprili, appointed Grand Vizier (Sept., 1689).

The Emperor Leopold's actions on the conquest of Hungary: massacre of the friends of Tököli; the "butchery" at Eperies; the crown of Hungary made hereditary, instead of elective, in the House of Hapsburg (31 Oct., 1687); abolition of the coronation oath and of the right of insurrection; persecution of the Protestants.

War with the Turks: second phase (1689–91); the Emperor forced to detach the Duke of Lorraine to fight Louis XIV. on the Rhine; Louis of Baden in command against the Turks; Mustapha Kiuprili appointed Tököli Prince of Transylvania and recaptured Belgrade (1690); accession of Ahmad II.; Louis of Baden defeated the Turks at Szalankemen (19 Aug., 1691); Mustapha Kiuprili killed; Transylvania conquered; the Hapsburgs recognized as Princes of Transylvania (Dec. 1691); John Sobieski's last campaign; his march to the Pruth (1691); Louis of Baden sent to the Rhine; failure of the negotiations for peace.

War with the Turks: third phase (1691-98); unimportant operations (1691-95); accession of Mustapha II. (1695); he assumed command of the Turkish army; his invasion of Hungary and capture of many fortresses; confusion caused by the death of John Sobieski; Peter the Great captured Azov (28 July, 1696); Prince Eugène destroyed the

Turkish army in the battle of the Zenta (11 Sept., 1697); Hussain Kiuprili appointed Grand Vizier; the Turks forced to sue for peace.

Reasons which induced the Emperor Leopold to make peace with the Turks; the imminence of the falling-in of the Spanish Succession; mediation of the English and Dutch.

Treaty of Carlowitz (26 Jan., 1699):

- i. The Emperor obtained Hungary, except the Banat of Temesvar; the whole of Transylvania; Croatia; and Slavonia as far as the Save.
- ii. Venice obtained Dalmatia and the Morea.
- iii. Poland recovered Podolia with Kaminietz.

By separate treaty (3 July, 1700) Russia obtained Azov.

Since the siege of Vienna the Turks have receded in Europe: the Treaty of Carlowitz marks the first stage of their decline.

The condition of Poland under John Sobieski: rivalry between the Poles and Lithuanians; the factious nobility; Sobieski's schemes for reform rejected; he was without subsidies or support; attitude of foreign powers; Sobieski's attempt to abdicate; approach of civil war; Sobieski's advancement of civilization in Poland; death of John Sobieski (17 June, 1696).

Election of the Elector Augustus of Saxony to be King of Poland (1 June, 1697).

Authorities: Among small books Léger, Autriche-Hongrie; Creasy, Ottoman Turks, and Morfill, Story of Poland, as before, with Malden, History and Consequences of the Defeat of the Turks before Vienna in 1683. As secondary authorities see Coxe, History of the House of Austria, 4 vols.; Krones, Handbuch der Geschichte Esterreichs: Mailath, Geschichte der Esterreichischen Kaiserstaats; Michiels, Histoire secrète du gouvernement autrichien; Gérando, La Transvlvanie: Teutsch. Geschichte der Siebenbürger Sachsen; Klopp, Das Jahr 1683 und der folgende grosse Turkenkrieg bis zum Frieden von Carlowitz; Thurheim, Feldmarschall Ernst Rüdiger, Graf Stahremberg; Röder von Diersburg, Des Markgrafen Ludwig Wilhelm von Baden Feldzüge wider die Türken, 2 vols.; Arneth, Prinz Eugen von Savoyen, 3 vols.; Bruzzo, Francesco Morosini e la conquesta della Morea; Von Hammer, Histoire de l'Empire Ottoman, vols. 12, 13; Coyer, Histoire de Jean Sobieski, 3 vols., and Salvandy, Histoire de Pologne avant et sous Jean Sobieski, 3 vols., are old-fashioned and do not give sources, but interesting; a more recent book is Waliszewski, Maryzienka, being a sketch of the life of Marie d'Arquien, wife of John Sobieski.

LECTURE 21.

RUSSIA UNDER PETER THE GREAT.

Condition of Russia under the first Románovs, Michael (1613-45) and Alexis (1645-76): internal and foreign policy of the Tsars.

The reign of Feodor Alexievitch, eldest son of Alexis Románov (1676-82).

Peter Alexievitch (b. 9 June, 1672), youngest son of Alexis, recognized as Tsar (7 May, 1682); the rising of the Streltsi at Moscow; Ivan V., his half brother, proclaimed joint Tsar with Peter (28 May, 1682); Princess Sophia made Regent.

The government of Sophia and Vasili Galitzin (1682–89): confirmation of the Peace of Kardis with Sweden and the Treaty of Androussovo; Galitzin's expedition against the Crimean Tartars (1687–89); overthrow of Sophia; Peter assumed the government (17Sept., 1689).

The boyhood of Peter the Great: his education; his character; his passion for boat-building; his foreign friends; Lefort; his amusements and occupations; his longing for a navy; condition of Russian commerce; Archangel; the Baltic; the government of the boyars; by death of Ivan V., Peter became sole Tsar (8 Feb., 1696).

Peter the Great's first war; the capture of Azov (28 July, 1696); by treaty with the Turks Azov granted to Russia (3 July, 1700).

Peter the Great's visit to Western Europe (1697–98): its political results; its effect on Peter's character.

Destruction of the Streltsi (1698): first steps taken for the formation of a regular army and navy; forcible introduction of Western usages.

First appearance of Russia in European politics: negotiations between Augustus I., Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, Frederick, Elector of Brandenburg, Frederick IV., King of Denmark, and Peter the Great for an attack on Sweden; motives of the attack; Peter's desire for a port on the Baltic.

The schemes of Patkul: on behalf of the Livonian nobility he offered Livonia and Esthonia to Augustus, Ingria and Carelia to Peter, at an interview between the two monarchs (July, 1698).

Peter the Great's invasion of Ingria: the Russians defeated by Charles XII. at the battle of Narva (13 Nov., 1700); Charles XII. marched into Poland.

Capture of Noteburg by the Russians (22 Oct., 1702), and foundation of St. Petersburg by Peter the Great: occupation of Ingria and Carelia; capture of Narva (20 Aug., 1704).

The Tsaritsa Catherine (b. 1684): private marriage (1707); public marriage (1712); her influence over Peter; Menshikov (b. 1672).

Closeness of the alliance between Peter and Augustus I.: the devastation of Livonia; the Swedes defeated at Kalisch (29 Oct., 1706); Augustus made peace with Charles XII. at Altranstädt (1706); Peter left without allies; the war in Lithuania; fortification of Moscow.

Charles XII. invaded the Ukraine (1708): treachery of Mazeppa, Hetman of the Cossacks of the Dnieper; the battle of Liesna (9 Oct., 1708); the winter of 1708-9; destruction of the Swedish army at Poltáva (8 July, 1709); escape of Charles XII.; importance of the victory; Russia takes rank with European nations; the result of a trained and disciplined army; immediate effects of the victory; Augustus, aided by Peter, resolved to recover the Polish throne and to conquer Livonia; the Russians made safe in Ingria and Carelia, with an outlet to the Baltic; failure of the proposed marriage between the sister of the Emperor and the Tsarevitch Alexis, who married Princess Charlotte of Brunswick-Wolfenbüttel (25 Oct., 1711); league of Russia, Denmark and Prussia formed against Sweden; by Treaty of Marienwerder (1 Nov., 1709), Elbing promised to Prussia.

The partition of Poland suggested by Frederick of Prussia and Augustus to Peter the Great: Frederick wanted Royal Prussia; Augustus was not unwilling to give it, as well as White Russia to Peter, if they would guarantee him the rest of Poland as an hereditary monarchy.

Peter the Great's internal reforms: the new administration; the Privy Council in the place of the Council of Boyars; the new departments; formation of the eight governments; the taxes and financial system; commerce and monopolies; encouragement of foreigners; ecclesiastical reforms; reformation of the monasteries; the Senate; unpopularity of these changes; local insurrections and discontent.

Continuance of the war with Sweden: capture of Viborg (21 June,

1710), of Riga (July) and of Revel (September); occupation of Livonia and Esthonia; marriage of Peter's niece Anne to the Duke of Courland; occupation of Courland.

The Turks declared war against Peter the Great (1 Dec., 1710); Constantine Brancovano, Hospodar of Wallachia, and Demetrius Cantemir, Hospodar of Moldavia, invited him to help them to throw off their subjection to the Sultan and to become the liberator of the Romanian Christians; Peter the Great invaded Moldavia; surrounded by the Turks on the Pruth; Catherine came to his help; by treaty of 23 July, 1711, Peter agreed to surrender Azov, which was given up to the Turks in 1712.

The campaigns in Pomerania (1711–13): sequestration of Stettin. Peter the Great's position at the time of the Treaties of Utrecht. The greatness of the work Peter had done for Russia.

Authorities: Of small books the most readable is still, despite some mistakes and misconceptions, Voltaire, Histoire de l'empire de Russie sous Pierre le Grand, which should be checked by the chapters on his reign in Morfill, Story of Russia, and Rambaud, Histoire de la Russie, translated by L. B. Lang, 2 vols. The best secondary authorities are Schuyler, Peter the Great; Waliszewski, Pierre le Grand; Brückner, Peter der Grosse, and Herrmann, Russland unter Peter der Grosse; more special works are Mérimée, Cosaques d'autrefois, Stenka Razin; Wernich, Der Livlander Johann Reinhold von Patkul und seine Zeitgenossen, and Posselt, Der General und Admiral Franz Lefort, sein Leben und seine Zeit, 2 vols. The correspondence of English, French and German diplomatists, as well as other papers bearing on the reign of Peter, are to be found in the "Shornik," the collection of documents, published by the Imperial Historical Society of St. Petersburg.

LECTURE 22.

CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN.

The reign of Charles XI. of Sweden (1660-97): during his minority and the government of his mother, Hedwiga of Holstein-Gottorp, peace was made with Poland, Denmark and Russia (1660-61), and

Sweden joined the Triple Alliance (1668); the political position in Sweden; the government of the nobles, who even granted to themselves the crown lands.

Charles XI. assumed the government (1672): his alliance with France; his invasion of Brandenburg; attacked by Denmark and the Dutch; his navy was defeated by Cornelius Tromp (11 June, 1675) and his army by the Great Elector at Fehrbellin (18 June, 1675); he defeated the Danes at Lund (11 Dec., 1675), but lost all Pomerania, and his fleet was destroyed by Admiral Juel (11 June, 1678); by the Treaty of Saint-Germain-en-Laye (29 June, 1679) he recovered all his lost territory by the influence of Louis XIV.; disgusted at the action of the "chambre de réunion" of Louis XIV. with regard to his duchy of Deux-Ponts, he entered the secret alliance against Louis XIV. (1681); joined the League of Augsburg (1686); and aided the Dutch with 6,000 men (1688-97).

The Revolution of 1682: the power of the Senate had been overthrown with the help of the Diet (1680); absolute power placed in the hands of the king by the Estates, or Diet; he resumed all lands granted to the nobility since 1609; his excellent administration; economy and large savings; encouragement of Swedish commerce.

Christian V., King of Denmark (1670-99): the administration of Griffenfeld (1670-76); result of the war with Sweden; his troubles with Holstein-Gottorp; the Convention of Altona (1691); his attempts to imitate Louis XIV.; his creation of a privileged nobility; excellence of his navy and commerce; his administration; his invasion of Schleswig (1698); succeeded by Frederick IV. (1699).

Charles XII. of Sweden (b. 1682): succeeded his father (1697); his education and character; declared of age (1699); danger threatened by the alliance against him of Denmark, Brandenburg, Saxony, Poland and Russia.

The first campaign of Charles XII.: his invasion of Denmark in aid of his cousin and brother-in-law, the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp (July, 1700); attack on Copenhagen; Frederick IV. made the Treaty of Travandahl (18 Aug., 1700), granting practical sovereignty to the Duke in Schleswig.

The second campaign of Charles XII.; he defeated the Russians at

Narva (30 Nov., 1700) and the Saxons at Klissow (19 July, 1702), and at Pultusk (1 May, 1703).

Charles XII. despised Russia and resolved to drive Augustus I. out of Poland; the Polish Diet declared the throne of Poland vacant; election of Stanislas Leczinski as King of Poland (12 July, 1704); Charles XII. invaded Saxony; by the Treaty of Altranstädt (24 Sept., 1706) Augustus recognized Stanislas as king; execution of Patkul (10 Oct.); commanding position of Charles XII. in European politics; expectation of his intervention in the War of the Spanish Succession; visit of Marlborough to his camp.

Charles XII. invaded the Ukraine (1708): his army destroyed or captured by Peter the Great at Poltáva (11 July, 1709); his escape to Bender; his efforts to induce the Turks to attack Russia; arrested by the Turks and imprisoned at Adrianople (1713).

The Northern War during the residence of Charles XII. at Bender: Augustus I. disregarded the Treaty of Altranstädt and with Peter the Great reconquered Poland; Stanislas Leczinski escaped to Sweden (1710) and joined Charles XII. at Bender (1713); the Russians reconquered Esthonia and the shores of the Gulf of Finland; Frederick IV. of Denmark invaded Sweden, but was defeated by Stenbock (b. 1664, d. 1717) at Helsingborg (10 March, 1710); Stenbock defeated the Danes at Gadebusch (20 Dec., 1712) and burnt Altona; joined by the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp; Stenbock forced to surrender at Tönning (May, 1713); the Danes conquered Bremen and Verden; campaign of the Russians, Prussians, Saxons and Danes in Pomerania; the whole province occupied, except Stralsund.

Position of the northern powers at the Treaties of Utrecht: exhausted condition of Sweden; triumphant attitude of Russia, Prussia and Denmark; Sweden ceased to be a great power; the position given her by the Treaties of Westphalia too great for her to hold; sources of her strength and weakness.

The character and career of Charles XII.: "the Madman of the North."

Authorities: The best small books are, Voltaire, Charles XII.; Bain, Charles XII. and the Collapse of the Swedish Empire; Otté. Scandinavian History, and Geffroy, Les États Scandinaves For more detailed information see Wernich,

cited under Lecture 21; Lundblad, Geschichte Karls des Zwölften. 2 vols.; Beskow, Karl der Tolfte, and Sarauw, Die Feldzüge Karls XII.; while Schuyler, Peter the Great; Morfill, Story of Poland, and Tuttle, History of Prussia, can be consulted for the Russian, Polish and Prussian sides of the Northern War. The general histories of Sweden by Fryxell, and by Geijer, translated into German and continued by Carlson, devote much space to the reigns of Charles XI. and Charles XII.

LECTURE 23.

THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

The question of the succession to the Spanish dominions upon the long-expected death of the childless Charles II. was the most important question in European politics for half a century: efforts made to settle the question by peaceful means; the doctrine of the Balance of Power.

The reign of Charles II. of Spain (1665–1700): the regency of the queen-mother, Donna Marianna (1665–75); the influence of Père Nithard (1665–69); he was forced to retire by Don John; the king declared of age (1675); the government of Don John (1675–79); Spain lost French Flanders and Franche-Comté by the Treaties of Nimeguen (1678).

Feeble health of the king: the influence of his first wife, a French princess, Maria Louisa of Orleans (1679–89); her quarrels with her mother-in-law; influence of his second wife, Marianna of Neuburg, exercised in favor of Austria; position and influence of Cardinal Porto Carrero (b. 1631, d. 1709); his support of the claims of the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, and after his death of those of the Duke of Anjou; Spain invaded by the French (1694–97), but lost nothing by the Treaties of Ryswick (1697); steady decline of Spanish power and prosperity.

The Secret Partition Treaty between Louis XIV. and the Emperor Leopold (19 Jan., 1668): Louis to have the Catholic Netherlands, Franche-Comté, Navarre, the Philippine Islands, the African settlements, Naples, Sicily and northern Catalonia; Leopold to have Spain, the Canary Islands, the Indies, Sardinia, Milan, Finale and the Tuscan

presidios; these terms made impossible by the Treaties of Ryswick.

The claimants to the Spanish Succession and their claims: Philip, Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV.; the Archduke Charles, younger son of the Emperor Leopold; and the Electoral Prince of Bavaria. (See Appendix V.)

Charles II. recognized the Electoral Prince of Bavaria as heir to all his dominions (1696).

The First Partition Treaty between William III. and Louis XIV. (11 Oct., 1698): the Electoral Prince to have Spain, Sardinia, the Indies and the Catholic Netherlands; Charles to have the Milanese; Philip to have Naples, Sicily, Finale, the Tuscan presidios and Guipuzcoa; arrangement accepted by Spain; death of the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, at Brussels (6 Feb., 1699).

The Second Partition Treaty between William III. and Louis XIV. (13 Mar., 1700): Charles to have Spain, the Indies, the Netherlands and Sardinia; Philip to have the same as before, with the addition of the Milanese, which was to be exchanged for Lorraine.

Intrigues around the death bed of the king at Madrid: Charles II. made a will leaving all the Spanish possessions to Philip (2 Oct., 1700) and died (1 Nov., 1700).

Louis XIV. accepted the will and acknowledged his grandson as ruler of all the Spanish dominions (16 Nov., 1700); "the Pyrenees no longer exist"; the Duke of Anjou proclaimed King of Spain at Madrid as Philip V. (24 Nov., 1700); crowned at Madrid (10 Apr., 1701); his title was recognized reluctantly by William III.; his marriage to Marie Gabrielle of Savoy (11 Sept., 1701).

First mistake of Louis XIV.: introduction of French troops into the "barrier fortresses" (6 Feb., 1701); formation of the Grand Alliance (7 Sept., 1701) between the Emperor, England, the Dutch and the King of Prussia; second mistake of Louis XIV.: recognition of the Pretender as King of England after the death of James II. (17 Sept., 1701); the English Parliament enthusiastic for war; death of William III. (19 March, 1702) and accession of Queen Anne.

The Grand Alliance against Louis XIV. joined by the Empire (30 Sept., 1702); its leading spirits the Duke of Marlborough (b. 1650, d. 1722); Prince Eugène (b. 1663, d. 1736) in the service of the Emperor;

and the Grand Pensionary Heinsius (b. 1641, d. 1720); the allies of France were the Dukes of Modena, Mantua, Guastalla and Savoy, and the Electors of Bavaria and Cologne; the Duke of Savoy for his alliance obtained the hand of the new king for his second daughter; the chief French generals were Vendôme (b. 1654, d. 1712); Villars (b. 1653, d. 1734); Tallard (b. 1652, d. 1728); Villeroi (b. 1644, d. 1730), and Berwick (b. 1670, d. 1734).

The advantages possessed by Louis XIV. at the commencement of the War of the Spanish Succession: central position and centralized government.

Authorities: For Spain during the reign of Charles II., see Dunlop, Memoirs of Spain during the Reigns of Philip IV. and Charles II.; Weiss, L'Espagne depuis le règne de Philippe II., jusqu'à l'avénement des Bourbons; Alexander Stanhope, Spain under Charles II. (1690-99); and Villars, Mémoires sur la cour d'Espagne (1679-81) and Muret, Lettres écrites de Madrid en 1666-67, both ed. by Morel Fatio. For the diplomatic history of the period, see Macaulay, Sirtema de Grovestins, Kemble, and Lexington Papers, cited under Lecture 19; Reynald, Louis XIV, et Guillame III., histoire des deux traités de partage et du testament de Charles II.; Courcy, La coalition de 1701 contre la France, and Renonciation des Bourbons au trône d'Espagne; Legrelle, La diplomatie française et la succession d'Espagna: Hippeau, Avénement des Bourbons au trône d'Espagne, correspondance inédite du marquis d'Harcourt; Grimblot, Letters of William III. and Louis XIV. (1697-1700); Louville, Mémoires secrets sur l'établissement de la maison de Bourbon en Espagne; Gädeke, Die Politik Æsterreichs in der spanischen Erbfolgegrage, and Mignet, Négociations relatives à la succession d'Espagne sous Louis XIV. (to 1679).

LECTURE 24.

THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION, 1701-14.

The War of the Spanish Succession: the four theatres of the war, the Netherlands Germany, Italy and Spain.

Campaign of 1701: Eugène turned the position of Catinat in Lombardy and defeated Villeroi at Chiari (1 Sept.).

Campaign of 1702: Eugène surprised Villeroi at Cremona (1 Feb.); the Dukes of Modena and Guastalla abandoned France; Vendôme defeated Eugène at Luzzara (15 Aug.); Louis of Baden invaded Alsace and seized Landau (10 Sept.); Bavaria declared war and occupied Ulm (8 Sept.); Villars defeated Louis of Baden at Friedlingen (14 Oct.); Marlborough captured Liége and other fortresses on the Meuse.

Campaign of 1703: the Emperor recognized his son Charles as King of Spain (Sept.); French plan of marching on Vienna; Francis Rakoczy raised an insurrection in Hungary; critical position of the Emperor; Villars entered Bavaria; Vendôme entered the Tyrol; Vendôme forced to retire owing to the conduct of Victor Amadeus of Savoy, who joined the Allies (8 Nov.); importance of this event; the Duke received from the Emperor Alessandria, Valenza, the Val Sesia and the Lomelline; Villars defeated the Austrians at Hochstädt (21 Sept.); Tallard defeated the Imperialists before Spires (14 Nov.) and recaptured Landau (17 Nov.); Marlborough took Bonn (May) and occupied the Electorate of Cologne; insurrection in the Cevennes of the Protestants, known as the "Camisards", under Cavalier; Portugal joined the Grand Alliance (16 May).

Campaign of 1704: Vendôme conquered Piedmont; successes of Rakoczy; Marlborough joined Eugène in Bavaria and crushed Tallard at Blenheim (13 Aug.); Louis of Baden retook Landau (24 Nov.) and Marlborough, Trèves; importance of the battle of Blenheim; Sir George Rooke seized Gibraltar (4 Aug.); the Archduke Charles landed at Lisbon, escorted by an English fleet (May), and was recognized as King of Spain by the King of Portugal.

Campaign of 1705: Joseph I. succeeded Leopold as Emperor (6 May); his conciliatory policy towards Hungary; Villars put down the revolt in the Cevennes, took Wissembourg and invaded Baden; Vendôme besieged Turin and defeated Eugène at Cassano (16 Aug.); Marlborough in the Catholic Netherlands; Galway invaded Spain from Portugal; Peterborough (b. 1658, d. 1735) took Barcelona (13 Sept.), and Catalonia declared for the Archduke Charles.

Campaign of 1706: Galway occupied Madrid (2 July), but the Spaniards rose for Philip V. and drove him out (Aug.); Peterborough took Valencia and relieved Barçelona; Eugène defeated Orleans, relieved

Turin, (7 Sept.) and drove the French out of Italy; Villars retook Lauterbourg and Haguenau; Marlborough crushed Villeroi at Ramillies (23 May) and occupied the Catholic Netherlands. 2nd miting man

Campaign of 1707: Berwick defeated Galway at Almanza (15 April); all Spain, except Catalonia, now supported Philip V.; Naples acknowledged the Archduke Charles; the Emperor confiscated the duchy of Mantua, and granted Montferrat and Casale to the Duke of Savoy, but added Mantua to the Milanese; Eugène and the Duke of Savoy invaded France and besieged Toulon; Villars stormed Stolhofen (23 May), invaded Germany and invited Charles XII. of Sweden to join him: Marlborough conducted no important military operations, but visited Charles XII. and kept him from intervening.

Campaign of 1708: Rakoczy, utterly defeated, escaped to Poland; Stanhope took Port Mahon, in Minorca; the Austrians, under Daun. occupied Naples and Sardinia; Pope Clement XI. prepared to resist: Vendôme conquered the Catholic Netherlands, but was defeated by Marlborough and Eugène at Oudenarde (11 July); the Allies invaded France: capture of Lille (22 Oct.). France; capture of Lille (22 Oct.).

Negotiations of Louis XIV. for peace; the demands of the Allies: Louis appealed to France and continued the war.

Campaign of 1709: the Pope, by the approach of Austrian troops, forced to recognize the Archduke Charles as King of Spain (15 Jan.), Marlborough and Eugène took Tournai (2 Sept.); the battle of Malplaquet (II Sept.). bloodiest + last of ment. battles.

Negotiations of Geertruidenberg.

Campaign of 1710: Guido Starhemberg and Stanhope (b. 1673, d. 1721) defeated Philip V. at Almenara (27 July) and Saragossa (20 Aug.); the Archduke Charles occupied Madrid (21 Sept.); Vendôme made Stanhope prisoner at Brihuega (9 Dec.) and defeated Starhemberg at Villa Viciosa (10 Dec.); Marlborough and Eugène took Douai (25 June), Béthune (29 Aug.) and Aire (8 Nov.); conquest of Acadia; capture of Port Royal (16 Oct.).

General weariness of the war: the Tory Ministry formed in England (1710); the Archduke Charles succeeded his brother, Joseph I. (17 April, 1711); elected Emperor as Charles VI.; effect of this change. Campaign of 1711: Marlborough captured Bouchain (12 Sept.);

Torcy (b. 1665, d. 1746) and Bolingbroke (b. 1678, d. 1751), the French and English ministers, secretly arranged preliminaries of peace; Marlborough removed from the command of the army (31 Dec.); Duguay Trouin captured Rio de Janeiro (23 Sept.).

The congress of plenipotentiaries to decide on terms of peace met at

Utrecht (Jan., 1712).

Campaign of 1712: truce made by the English (17 July); Villars defeated Eugène at Denain (24 July) and recaptured Douai (8 Sept.), Le Quesnoy (4 Oct.) and Bouchain (18 Oct.).

The Emperor refused to accept the Treaties of Utrecht, signed 11

April, 1713, and continued the war.

Villars took Landau (20 Aug.) and Freiburg (3 Nov.).

The Emperor made peace with France at Rastadt (7 March, 1714); the treaty confirmed by the Empire at Baden (7 Sept., 1714).

Contrast between the War of the Spanish Succession and the Thirty Years' War.

Authorities: For a short account of the War of the Spanish Succession see Stanhope, History of England during the Reign of Queen Anne, 2 vols. Among general secondary authorities see Philippson, Das Zeitalter Ludwig's des Vierzehnten; Wyon, History of Great Britain during the Reign of Queen Anne. 2 vols.; Coxe, Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon; Reynald, Guerre de la succession d'Espagne; négociations entre la France, l'Angleterre et la Hollande (1705-06); Moret, Quinze Ans du règne de Louis XIV., 3 vols.: Noailles. Histoire de Madame de Maintenon, 4 vols.; Von Noorden, Europäische Geschichte im Achtzehnten Jahrhundert, vols. 1-3; Krohn, Die letzten Lebensjahre Ludwigs XIV.; Ennen, Der spanische Erbfolgekrieg und der Churfürst Joseph Clemens von Cöln; Gachard, Histoire de la Belgique au commencement du XVIII. siècle; Carutti, Storia del regno di Vittorio Amadeo, and Landau, Geschichte Kaiser Karls VI. als König von Spanien, and Rome, Wien, Neapel während des spanischer Erbfolgekrieges. Among diplomatic secondary authorities see Legrelle. La diplomatie française et la succession d'Espagne, 4 vols., and Une négociation inconnue entre Berwick et Marlborough (1708-9); Fazy, Les Suisses et la neutralité de Savoie (1703-4); Hill, Diplomatic Correspondence from the Court of Savoy (July, 1703, to May, 1706), ed. Blackley; D'Haussonville, La duchesse de Bourgogne et l'alliance savoyarde sous Louis XIV.; Cooke, Memoirs of Lord Bolingbroke, and Gädeke, Die Politik Esterreichs in der spanischen Erbfolgefrage. Among military secondary authorities see Coxe, Memoirs of the Duke of Marlborough, 6 vols.; Alison, Military Life of the Duke of Marlborough; Stanhope, History of the War of the Succession in Spain; Parnell, The War of the

Succession in Spain; Wilson, The Duke of Berwick, Marshal of France; Vogue, Villars; Du Casse, L'amiral Du Casse (1646-1715); Malleson, Prince Eugène of Savoy; Babeau, La maréchal de Villars, gouverneur de Provençe; Court de Gébelin. Histoire des troubles des Cevennes; Arneth, Prinz Eugen von Savoyen, 3 vols. and Leben des Feldmarschalls Graf Guido Stahremberg; and Ottieri. Istoria delle guerre avvenute in Europa e particolaramente in Italia (1696-1725) 5 vols. The chief primary authorities are Pelet, Mémoires militaires relatifs à la succession d'Espagne, 11 vols. (Collection des Documents inédits), and Matuschka, Feldzüge des Prinzen Eugen von Savoyen, 17 vols.; Heller, Militärische Korrespondenz des Prinzen Eugen von Savoyen (1694-1705), 3 vols.; Bellerive, Histoire des dernières campagnes du Duc de Vendosme; but see also Baudrillart, Philippe V. d'Espagne et la cour de France, 3 vols ; Murray, Letters and Despatches of Marlborough. 5 vois.; Rambuteau, Lettres du maréchal de Tessé (1701-14); Röder von Diersburg, Kriegs- und Staats-schriften des Markgrafen Ludwig Wilhelm von Baden über den spanischen Erbfolgekrieg; Fiedler, Actenstücke zur Geschichte Franz Rákóczv's (Fontes rerum Austriacarum, vols. ix. and xvii.); Lamberty, Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire du XVIIIième siècle, 14 vols., and the Mémoires of Berwick, Villars, Duguay-Trouin, Forbin and Torcy, with the Journal inédit, 1709-1711, of Torcy, edited by Masson.

LECTURE 25.

THE TREATIES OF UTRECHT.

The first negotiations made by Louis XIV. after Ramillies (1706); his attempt to detach the Dutch from the Grand Alliance; refusal of the Grand Pensionary, Heinsius, to treat separately (19 Nov.).

Second negotiations at the Hague with the Allies after Oudenarde and the loss of Lille (May-June, 1709); hard terms offered to Louis XIV. (28 May); his refusal to accept them (2 June).

Conference at Geertruidenberg after Malplaquet (March-July, 1710); Louis XIV. willing to accept the terms offered at the Hague; the conference broken up (25 July).

Effect on the situation of the accession of the Tories to power in England (1710) and of the recall of Marlborough (1711).

Death of the Dauphin (14 April, 1711).(1)

Congress for peace opened at Utrecht (12 Jan., 1712); the chief pleni-

potentiaries, Torcy for France, Bolingbroke for England, Heinsius for the Protestant Netherlands and Mellarède for Savoy; progress of the negotiations; treaties of peace signed between France, England, the Netherlands, Prussia and Savoy, at Utrecht (11 April, 1713); the Emperor Charles VI. continued at war with France and Spain.

Treaties signed between France and the Emperor at Rastadt (7 March, 1714), confirmed by the Empire at Baden (7 Sept., 1714), and between Spain and Portugal at Madrid (6 Feb., 1715); but the Emperor made no peace with Spain and refused to acknowledge Philip V.

The whole series may be considered together as the Treaties of Utrecht.

Chief provisions: A. The Spanish succession. *i*. Philip V. recognized as King of Spain and the Indies, on condition that the crowns of Spain and France should never be united. *ii*. The Emperor Charles VI. received the Milanese, Naples, Sardinia and the Catholic Netherlands. *iii*. Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy received Sicily. *iv*. England received Gibraltar and Minorca.

B. Louis XIV. of France restored Tournai, Ypres and Furnes to the Catholic Netherlands, but in other respects maintained his borders as settled by the Treaties of Ryswick; the principality of Orange in the south of France, which had belonged to William III., was granted to Louis XIV.; he ceded Acadia (Nova Scotia) to England, recognized the Protestant Succession, and promised to expel the Stuart Pretender and to dismantle Dunkirk.

C. England received Gibraltar and Minorca from Spain, and Acadia from France; her sovereignty in Newfoundland (subject to certain fishing rights) and Hudson's Bay recognized; the Protestant succession in the line of Hanover acknowledged; and by an Assiento she obtained certain rights of commerce with Spanish South America.

D. The Emperor Charles VI. received the Catholic Netherlands, subject to an arrangement with the Dutch; Naples, with the Tuscan presidios, which were governed from Naples until 1801; Sardinia; the Milanese, together with Mantua, whose last Gonzaga duke had did in 1708; and Finale, which he sold to Genoa on 20 August, 1713.

E. The creation of the Electorate of Hanover (1692) recognized.

F. The Elector of Bavaria and the Elector-Archbishop of Cologne, Prince Joseph Clement of Bavaria, restored to their dominions.

- G. The title of the King of Prussia recognized; in satisfaction of his claims as heir to William III., he received Upper or Spanish Gelderland and was confirmed in the possession of Neufchâtel.
- H. The Dutch have the closing of the Scheldt to commerce and their right to garrison the eight "barrier fortresses" in the Catholic Netherlands—Charleroi, Furnes, Ghent, Menin, Mons, Namur, Tournai and Ypres—confirmed.
- I. Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy, had the cessions of Alessandria, Valenza, the Val Sesia and the Lomelline, granted in 1703, and of Casale and Montferrat, granted in 1707 from the duchy of Mantua, confirmed, and received Sicily, with the title of King of Sicily.
 - J. The Catalans abandoned.

Importance of the Treaties of Utrecht: comparison with the Treaties of Westphalia; the most notable points; France left upon the Rhine and in close alliance with Spain; England showed further development in the direction of commerce and colonies; the dominions of the House of Hapsburg became nominally larger but more unwieldy and less German; Spain lost its Italian and Belgian possessions and was confined, in Europe, to the Peninsula; Brandenburg took a step in advance among the nations in becoming the kingdom of Prussia, and Savoy also became a kingdom with its chief interests in Italy.

The doctrine of the Balance of Power in the Treaties of Utrecht; neglect of the Principle of Nationality.

Authorities: Most of the general and diplomatic secondary authorities cited under Lectures 23 and 24 devote much space to the Treaties of Utrecht. Good special volumes have been written by Gerard, The Treaty of Utrecht; Giraud, Le traité d'Utrecht, and Weber, Der Friede von Utrecht, and a primary authority of importance is Torcy, Mémoires.

LECTURE 26.

GERMANY TO 1715.

Comparison between the condition of Germany after the Treaties of Utrecht and the Treaties of Westphalia.

The Holy Roman Empire: constant election of the chief of the House of Austria to be Emperor owing to the votes he commanded as the leading Catholic power; decreasing influence of the Emperors in German affairs; the perpetual capitulation; changes in the constitution of the Empire.

- i. Recognition of Prussia as a kingdom: the Emperor Leopold agreed to give the Elector Frederick of Brandenburg the title of King of Prussia, as Prussia was a state independent of the Empire, in return for assistance in the War of the Spanish Succession; the other powers of Europe recognized the title by the Treaties of Utrecht; as a member of the Empire he remained Elector of Brandenburg.
- ii. College of Electors: the Emperor Leopold made the Duke of Hanover an Elector (1692), at the same time restoring the full electoral powers to the kingdom of Bohemia; opposition of the other Electors and of the Princes of the Empire; league formed against the new electorate (1700); the Emperor promised to make no further electorates without the consent of the Empire (1706); electorate of Hanover accepted by the Diet (1710).
- iii. College of Princes: the Emperor's right to create new Princes limited (1654); settlement of the "collegiate" votes; creation of new Princes made still more difficult and dependent on the consent of the Electoral College, the Princely College and his Bench(1711); growth of the custom of primogeniture and its effect in causing the accumulation of votes; exception of Saxony.
- iv. College of Free Cities: its decay owing to the falling off in the prosperity of the cities; only the three Hansa cities remained powerful; conquest of Münster by Bishop Galen (1661), of Erfurt by the Elector of Mayence (1664), of Magdeburg by the Elector of Brandenburg (1666), of Brunswick by the Duke of Brunswick (1671) and seizure of Strasburg by Louis XIV. (1681); general tendency of the Free Cities to decline in importance.
 - v. The Imperial Diet: its policy after it became perpetual and

attended only by envoys; disputes about precedence; its cumbrous procedure; inefficiency of its military action.

- vi. The Imperial Chamber: its seat moved from Spires, after the burning of that city by the French in the devastation of the Palatinate in 1689, to Wetzlar in 1691; quarrels among the assessors; the Chamber dissolved (1700); its reorganization.
- vii. The Aulic Council: its claim to deal with cases concerning States.
- viii. The religious question: the application of the doctrine "cujus regio, ejus religio"; failure of the modifications arranged by the Treaties of Westphalia; the persecution of the Protestants in the Palatinate.
 - ix. The question of coinage: agreement made between Saxony, Brandenburg and Brunswick at Zinna (1667) and at Leipzig (1690).
 - x. The Gregorian Calendar adopted by the Protestant States by a decree of the Diet (1700).

Austria: additional dominions gained by the Treaties of Utrecht, no additional strength; the more valuable gains of the Treaty of Carlowitz in Hungary and Transylvania tended to turn its policy still more towards the East; internal administration; the rebellion of Francis Rakoczy, grandson of George Rakoczy II., Prince of Transylvania and stepson of Tököli, in Hungary (1703–11); the brief reign of Joseph I. (1705–11); his concessions to the Hungarians and consequent overthrow of Rakoczy; his concessions to the Protestants of Silesia at the request of Charles XII. of Sweden; his penal code and the promise of his reign; the Emperor Charles VI. crowned King of Hungary (1712); his settlement of Hungary.

Prussia: the aims of Frederick III., Elector of Brandenburg (1688–1713), to become a king and to increase his dominions; his character; his policy.

i. His foreign policy: he pursued the ideas of the Great Elector; he joined the League of Augsburg (1688) and sent 15,000 men to serve under William III. against France (1691-97); he sent 6,000 men to assist the Emperor against the Turks (1691-99); he sent 26,000 men to serve through the War of

- the Spanish Succession (1702-13); his conduct in the NorthernWar; his propositions to Peter the Great for a partition of Poland.
- ii. His arrangements for the title of king: he promised aid in the War of the Spanish Succession, to excuse the Emperor's debts to him, to vote for an Austrian prince for Emperor, and to use only his title as Elector in the Imperial Diet; he crowned himself at Königsberg as Frederick I., King of Prussia (18 Jan., 1701); importance of this step; the title recognized by the Treaties of Utrecht.
- iii. His territorial policy: he restored Schwebus to Austria without abandoning his claims on Silesia (1694); he purchased Nordhausen of the Elector of Saxony (1697); he took possession of Elbing in Polish Prussia (1703); he occupied Mœurs, Lingen, Heristal and Turnhout, as heir of William III. (1702), and they were confirmed to him by the Emperor (1707); he seized Upper Gelderland (1703), which was ceded to Prussia, in compensation for the loss of the principality of Orange, by the Treaties of Utrecht; he was elected Prince of Neufchâtel (1707) and purchased the county of Tecklenburg (1707).
- iv. His internal policy: he followed the lines of the Great Elector and prepared the way for Frederick William I.; foundation of the University of Halle (1694).
- v. Accession of Frederick William I. (25 Feb., 1713): by the Treaties of Utrecht his royal title was recognized and his possession of Neufchâtel and Upper Gelderland confirmed; he occupied Stettin and Wismar in sequestration during the war against Sweden.

Other states of Germany:

i. Electoral Saxony: division made on the death of John George I. (1656); its prosperity sacrificed to the Polish policy of Augustus I.; when elected King of Poland (1697) he became a Catholic, but was yet allowed to remain the Director of the Protestant party in the Diet, his change of faith being personal and not political; by a convention (1700) religious matters were left to the Duke of Saxe-Weissenfels.

- ii. Ducal Saxony: the rule of Duke Ernest the Pious of Saxe-Gotha (1640-74); further division made (1680), but no more votes allowed in the College of Princes.
- be a candidate for the Empire (1651-79); his refusal to be a candidate for the Empire (1657); quarrels with the Elector Palatine about the Vicariate of the Empire; no Bavarian Diet or Landtag summoned after 1669; Maximilian Emmanuel, Elector (1679-1726); candidature of his son, the Electoral Prince, for the throne of Spain; joined Louis XIV. in the War of the Spanish Succession; his campaigns in the Tyrol; put to the ban of the Empire, and from the battle of Blenheim in 1704 to 1714 Bavaria was administered by the Emperors; he acted as Governor-General of the Spanish Netherlands under Charles II. from 1692 to 1701, and again under Philip V. from 1702 until driven out after the battle of Ramillies (1706); restored to his dominions by the Treaty of Rastadt; condition of Bavaria under Austrian rule.
- iv. The Palatinate: the last Protestant Electors of the House of Simmern, Charles Louis I. (1648–80) and Charles Louis II. (1680–85); Charles Louis I. joined the league against Louis XIV. (1672); devastation of the Palatinate by Turenne (1675); the question of the succession (1685); the claims of Louis XIV.; Philip William of Neuburg succeeded; fresh devastation of the Palatinate by Duras (1689); destruction of Heidelberg, Mannheim, Spires, etc.; accession of John William (1691); his ardent Catholicism; persecution of the Protestants; extensive emigration; Philip William paid 300,000 scudi (a scudo at this time almost equalled a dollar) to Louis XIV. to compensate for his claims; his internal government; he moved his capital from Heidelberg to Mannheim (1720).
- v. Hanover: character and career of Ernest Augustus (b. 1629), fourth son of the Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg and first Elector of Hanover; married Sophia, daughter of Frederick V., Elector Palatine, and grand-daughter of James I., of

England (1658); his reputation as a statesman and a soldier; he made peace between England and the Dutch (1667); became William III.'s chief German ally, and his intermediary with Brandenburg and the Emperor; he took the title of Duke of Hanover (1679); helped to form the League of Augsburg (1688), and was made Elector of Hanover (1692); his share in the Treaty of Ryswick; established primogeniture in his family; his death (1697); the Elector George I.; his increased importance in German affairs after his mother was recognized by the English Parliament as heir to England (1701); he united the Duchy of Zell (1705); his policy; his territorial importance between Brandenburg and the United Provinces; his attitude toward France and the Emperor: admitted to the Diet as an Elector (1710); the Hanoverian succession to Great Britain recognized by the Treaties of Utrecht (1713); death of the Electress Sophia (8 June, 1714): George I. succeeded Queen Anne in England (1 Aug., 1714).

vi. The ecclesiastical Electors and Princes of the Empire: methods of their government; restrained by the capitulations made with them at their election by the chapters; the power of the chapters; large sums paid to the Popes.

The petty princes of Germany: their imitation of Louis XIV. in their absolutism, in refusing to summon or consult their Estates or Diets, in their extravagance and in their court ceremonials.

Authorities: For the condition of Germany in 1715 in addition to works like those of Lėger, cited under Lecture 9, dealing with general history, see Biedermann, Deutschland im achtzehnten Jahrhundert: Vol. i., Deutschlands politische, materielle und sociale Zustände; for the Empire, see Pütter, Historical Development of the Constitution of the Germanic Empire, translated by Dornford, vol. ii.; for the relations between Austria and Prussia, Pribram, Œsterreich und Brandenburg (1681-86) and Œsterreich und Brandenburg (1688-1700); for Austria, Krones, Handbuch der Geschichte Œsterreichs, 5 vols.; Mailath, Geschichte der Œsterreichischen Kaiserstaats; Huber, Geschichte der Œsterreichischen Verwaltungsorganisation; Coxe, History of the House of Austria, 4 vols., and Bidermann, Geschichte der Œsterreichischen Gesammt-Staats-Idee; for Prussia, in addition to the general works cited under Lecture 18, Ledebur, König Friedrich I. von Preussen; Waddington, L'acquisition de la couronne royale de Prusse par les Hohenzollern;

Varnhagen von Ense, Leben der Königin Sophie Charlotte, 3 vols.; Dohna. Mémoires originaux sur le règne et la cour de Frédéric I.; Bourgeois, Neuschâtel et la politique prussienne en Franche-Comté (1702-13), and Lavisse, Études sur l'histoire de Prusse; for Electoral Saxony, Böttiger, Geschichte des Kurstaates und Königreichs Sachsen, 3 vols.; for Ducal Saxony, Gelbke, Herzog Ernst der Erste, genannt der Fromme, and Beck, Ernst der Fromme; for Bavaria, Schreiber, Geschichte Bayerns, 2 vols.; for the Palatinate, Haüsser, Geschichte der rheinischen Pfalz, 2 vols, and for Hanover, Heinemann, Geschichte von Braunschweig und Hannover; Köcher, Geschichte von Hannover und Braunschweig (1648-1714) and Memoiren der Kurfürstin Sophie von Hannover; Leibnitz, Correspondance avec l'électrice Sophie, vols. 7-9 of his Werke, and Spittler, Geschichte des Fürstenthums Hannover in vols. 6 and 7 of his Sämmtliche Werke.

LECTURE 27.

THE SOUTHERN COUNTRIES OF EUROPE TO 1715.

Decreasing naval importance of the Mediterranean countries: the commerce of the Levant passed to the Dutch and the English; after the loss of Candia, Venice became an Adriatic instead of a Mediterranean power; injury inflicted by the Barbary corsairs; efforts of Louis XIV. to become master of the Mediterranean; the Dutch and English fleets in that sea; significance of the capture of Gibraltar by the English (1704); the English became the preponderating naval power in the Mediterranean by the cession of Gibraltar and Minorca (1713).

The Turkish power after the Treaty of Carlowitz (1699).

The reign of Mustapha II. (1695–1703): his military disasters compensated by his naval successes over the Venetians; while surrendering the Adriatic and the Morea to Venice, and Hungary, except the Banat, to the Emperor, the Turks retained the islands of the Archipelago and the control over the Levant; Hussain Kiuprili, Grand Vizier (1697–1702); he endeavored to reorganize the Turkish army and navy; he reduced Bussora, pacified North Africa and regulated Turkish authority in Arabia; the Turks begin to be influenced by European ideas and to translate European books; revolt of the Janissaries and overthrow of Mustapha II. (1703).

Early years of the reign of Ahmad III. (1703–30): he announced his accession to the Christian powers; Charles XII. of Sweden induced the Sultan to attack Russia; the Treaty of the Pruth (11 July, 1711); the government of the Danubian provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia; after 1716 in Wallachia and 1711 in Moldavia the Sultan appointed hospodars of these two provinces from Greek families instead of from the national nobility.

Italy during the half century before the Treaties of Utrecht.

I. The Popes abandoned the territorial aggrandizement of the States of the Church; their attitude towards the Catholic powers, and particularly towards Austria, France and Spain; loss of their political influence; Clement IX.—Rospigliosi—1667-70; his friendly relations with France; Clement X.—Altieri—1670-76—Quebec made a bishopric (1676); Innocent XI.—Odescalchi—1676-89; his endeavors to reform abuses; his abandonment of nepotism; his quarrels with Louis XIV.; Alexander VIII.—Ottoboni—1689-91; made peace with Louis XIV.; Innocent XII.—Pignatelli—1691-1700; his economy and uprightness; his attitude towards France; Clement XI.—Albani—1700-21; his attitude on the Spanish Succession; forced to recognize the Archduke Charles; issue of the bull "Unigenitus" (1713); action of the Papacy during this period towards the Jansenists, the Jesuits and the Quietists.

II. Kingdom of Naples: its welcome to the Archduke Charles (1707); his promise to observe its local rights; separated from Sicily by the

Treaties of Utrecht (1713) and given to the House of Austria.

III. Kingdom of Sicily: given to Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy, by the Treaties of Utrecht; the character of Victor Amadeus II.; crowned at Palermo (24 Dec., 1713); growth of the House of Savoy by his policy; he acquired Alessandria, etc. (1703), Montferrat and Casale (1707), and the restoration of Savoy and Nice (1713); marriage of his two daughters to two grandsons of Louis XIV., to the Duke of Burgundy, father of Louis XV., and to Philip V. of Spain; his internal policy; his encouragement of public works; his code of laws; his quarrel with Pope Clement XI.; taxation of ecclesiastical property.

IV. The Northern Duchies: Cosmo III., Grand Duke of Tuscany (1670-1723), last ruler but one of the House of Medici; his payment of large sums to remain neutral during the War of the Spanish Succession;

bad management of his duchy and misery of his people; Francesco, Duke of Parma, remained neutral during the War of the Spanish Succession, but Rainaldo, Duke of Modena, took part in it and obtained the Duchy of Mirandola from the Emperor; the Duchy of Mantua divided; Mantua given to Milan and Montferrat to Savoy in 1707 by the Emperor, because Charles IV.—Gonzaga—supported Louis XIV. in the War of the Spanish Succession, but a small district given to the Duke of Guastalla, who supported the Emperor; Milan and Mantua granted to the Emperor by the Treaties of Utrecht (1713).

V. Venice: successes obtained by Morosini in the war against the Turks; by the Treaty of Carlowitz the Republic obtained the Morea, the Ionian Islands and Dalmatia, and became the preponderant power on the coasts of the Adriatic; close alliance formed between the Emperor and the Venetians.

VI. Genoa: its independence threatened by the Dukes of Savoy; conspiracy of Raphael della Torre (1672); bombarded by a French fleet (1684); the Doge Imperiali at Versailles (Feb., 1685).

Switzerland: the Swiss Confederation; the thirteen cantons; the central and the cantonal governments; division into Catholic and Protestant, and into oligarchic and democratic, cantons; the Swiss mercenary soldiers; the independent republics of the Grisons (Graubünden) and of Geneva.

Spain: the reign of Philip V; his reception in Spain; influenced by his wife Marie Gabrielle of Savoy, who was controlled by the Princess Orsini or Des Ursins; interference of Louis XIV. in the internal affairs of Spain; administration of Amelot (1705-09), the French ambassador; the War of the Spanish Succession in Spain; Philip V. twice driven from Madrid; enthusiasm of the Spaniards for him and his queen; by the Treaties of Utrecht Spain lost her continental possessions as well as Gibraltar and Minorca; treatment of the Catalans; the Catalans organized a republic; gallant defence of Barcelona; captured by Berwick (12 Sept., 1714); death of the queen (14 Feb., 1714); influence and character of Madame des Ursins (b. 1641, d. 1722).

Portugal: the reign of Pedro II. (1685-1706); the signature of the Methuen Treaty with England (27 Dec., 1703); its results; part taken by Portugal in the War of the Spanish Succession; accession of John V. (1706)

Authorities: For the Turks see the books cited for Lecture 13; for Italy, the books cited for Lecture 14, with Michaud, Louis XIV. et Innocent XI., 4 vols., and Carutti, Storia del regno di Vittorio Amadeo II.; for Spain, Legrelle, Baudrillart, Stanhope, Parnell, Rambuteau and Berwick, cited under Lectures 23 and 24, with Coxe, Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon, vols. I, 2; Correspondance de Louis XIV. avec M. Amelot, ed. Girardot; Combes, La Princesse des Ursins, the Princess des Ursins, Correspondance avec Madame de Maintenon, and Lettres inédites, ed. Geffroy; and the Mémoires of Saint-Simon; for Portugal, see Oliveira Martins, cited under Lecture 15.

LECTURE 28.

THE PAPACY IN THE 17TH CENTURY: THE JESUITS AND THE JANSENISTS.

The spiritual power of the Papacy in the 17th century as opposed to its political and territorial power.

Gradual decline in the spiritual power to be observed in the first half of the 17th century, the Age of the Thirty Years' War, when political considerations were becoming paramount over religious considerations; more rapid decline during the latter half of the century, when Catholic monarchs, like Louis XIV., openly quarrelled with the Pope, and tried to check his spiritual authority.

The effect of the Counter-Reformation on the position of the Papacy: its chief agents the Jesuits; with the decline of the Jesuits from their original energy the Counter-Reformation died away.

The main lines of the work of the Jesuits:

- i. Education: success of their method of teaching; their colleges and universities; they controlled higher education in Catholic countries.
- ii. The Confessional: they become the confessors of kings and statesmen; Père La Chaise, Père Letellier and Père Nithard.
- iii. Missions. A. Among the Protestants: their work in England, Sweden and Poland. B. Among the heathen: in Asia, in India and China; in America, in Canada and Paraguay.

The decline in Jesuit energy after the death of General Acquaviva (1615): the generalship of Muzio Vitelleschi (1615-45); "professed" members began to accept offices of power; education ceased to be generally free; devotion to the prosperity of the Society took the place of devotion to the Papacy; limitation of the general's power (1661); the Society interested in commerce; its commercial center at Lisbon; the Society supported absolutism against the Papacy; it supported Louis XIV. against Innocent XI.; opposed by the Jansenist influence; Père La Chaise and Archbishop Harlay of Paris; Innocent XI. and Alexander VIII. endeavored to check the power of the Society and went so far as to forbid its admitting novices: Clement XI. condemned its practices in foreign missions in Asia (1715).

The Jesuit theology: the adoption of "free will" doctrines; the Dominicans quarrel with them for differing from St. Thomas Aquinas; growth of casuistry; its application to politics and the result; to private life; the Lettres Provinciales of Pascal (b. 1623, d. 1662) overthrew the belief in scholastic morality; the theological distinction between the Jesuits and the Jansenists; Père Letellier and Archbishop Noailles of Paris; after the issue of the bull Unigenitus the Jesuits rallied to the Papacy and became Ultramontane.

The Jansenists: their doctrines a reaction against the theology of the Jesuits; their nickname of Catholic Puritans; the Augustinus of Cornelius Jansen, Bishop of Ypres, published in 1640, after his death; its theological views; the doctrines of grace, sin and forgiveness; its rapid success, even among priests and bishops, but still more among the educated laity of France and the Catholic Netherlands; Duvergier, Abbé de Saint-Cyran; his application of Jansenist views to life; his influence on Angélique Arnauld (b. 1591, d. 1651); Port Royal; his imprisonment by Richelieu (1638–42); the Jansenists implicated in the Fronde; their quarrel with the Jesuits; Port Royal the home of moral and intellectual France; the influence exerted by Arnauld (b. 1612, d. 1694), Nicole, Lemaitre de Sacy, Pascal and Racine; the publication of the Port Royal educational works; influence possessed by the Jansenists in France.

First struggle with the Papacy (1642-69): Urban VIII. condemned Jansen's Augustinus (1642); the "five propositions" declared heret-

ical by the bull *In Occasione*, issued by Innocent X. (31 May, 1653); Arnauld denied that the "five propositions" were contained in the book by Jansen; Alexander VII. declared that they were; the Jansenist writers denied the infallibility of the Pope in dealing with matters of fact; Louis XIV. imprisoned De Sacy and persecuted the Jansenists, including the nuns of Port Royal; Clement IX. made the "Peace of Clement IX." (1668), when the Jansenists agreed to condemn the "five propositions" without acknowledging whether they were contained in Jansen's book or not.

In spite of the King's dislike of them, the Jansenists became more powerful in France, especially in bourgeois and legal circles.

Second struggle with the Papacy (1702–15): the Réflexions morales of Quesnel and the Cas de conscience; Archbishop Noailles manifested moderate Jansenist opinions; he distinguished between human and divine faith in the Pope's infallibility on questions of fact; opposition of Père Letellier, the King's confessor, and the Jesuits; they appealed to Rome; Clement XI. tried to settle the question by the bull Vineam Domini (15 July, 1705); the nuns of Port Royal refused to accept the bull; the community suppressed (11 July, 1709) and Port Royal ordered to be destroyed (22 Jan., 1710); persecution of the Jansenists; use of lettres de cachet; 101 propositions from Quesnel's book condemned by the bull Unigenitus (8 Sept., 1713); the Parlement of Paris, led by D'Aguesseau, declined to register the bull as law without modifications; Noailles and fifteen bishops refused to accept it; a council summoned, to depose them; they were saved by the death of Louis XIV.

The Quietists: Molinos and his doctrines; condemned by Pope Innocent XI. (1687); Madame Guyon; her mysticism; her relations with Fénelon; controversy between Bossuet and Fénelon; Innocent XII. condemned Fénelon's Explications des Maximes des Saints (1699); Louis XIV. and his attitude towards the Quietists.

Marie Alacoque (b. 1647, d. 1690) and the worship of the Sacred Heart; the Abbé de Rancé (b. 1626, d. 1700) and the monastery of La Trappe.

Authorities: For an account in English of the Jansenist movement see Beard, Port Royal, 2 vols. Among secondary authorities consult Crétineau-Joly, Histoire religieuse, politique et littéraire de la compagnie de Jésus, 6 vols.; Rapin,

in reign of Souis IV - 1. Wooship of Societ Heurt.

(2. Sisters of merry)

Histoire du Jansénisme; Sainte-Beuve, Port Royal, 7 vols.; Reuchlin, Geschichte von Port Royal, 2 vols.; Soyres, The Provincial Letters of Pascal; Victor Cousin, Jacqueline Pascal; Lafitau, Histoire de la Constitution Unigenitus; Le Roy. Le Gallicanisme au XVIII° siécle; la France et Rome de 1700 à 1715; histoire diplomatique de la bulle Unigenitus jusqu'à la mort de Louis XIV.; Bigelow, Molinos the Quietist; Guerrier, Madame Guyon, sa vie, sa doctrine et son influence; Malter, Le mysticisme en France au temps de Fénelon; Bausset, Histoire de Bossuet, 4 vols., and Histoire de Fénelon, 4 vols.; Réaume, Histoire de Bossuet, 3 vols.; Phélipeaux, Relation de l'origine, du progrès et de la condamnation du Quiétisme; Dubois, Histoire de l'abbé de Rancé, with the works of Arnautd, Pascal, Madame Guyon, Bossuet and Fénelon.

LECTURE 29.

THE LAST YEARS OF THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

The government of France during the last thirty years of the reign of Louis XIV. influenced by Madame de Maintenon, but carried on by the King in spite of his decreasing powers and increasing belief in himself; he devoted himself more and more to foreign politics and the question of the Spanish Succession, leaving internal administration to his ministers, who inherited the offices of Colbert and Louvois without their ability.

The change in the King's character between the Treaties of Nimeguen and the outbreak of war with the League of Augsburg: Louis XIV. becomes moral and religious; the gaiety of the Court disappears; it becomes more ceremonious; the King governed by Madame de Maintenon and his confessors; the great result of this change of character, the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685).

Character and position of Françoise d'Aubigné, Madame de Maintenon (b. 1635, d. 1719): her previous career; her rivalry with Madame de Montespan; reconciled the king and queen together; after the death of the queen (1683), secretly married to Louis XIV.; nature of her influence at court; her ardent zeal for the Catholic religion and prudery; her difficult position; her foundation of Saint Cyr.

Character and influence of Père La Chaise, confessor of Louis XIV. (1675–1709), and of his successor, Père Letellier (1709–15); they directed the ecclesiastical policy of the king in favor of the Jesuits; the persecution of the Huguenots and the Jansenists.

The ministers of the last years of Louis XIV.: their inability to control or oppose the King; they acted as head clerks and feared responsibility; the typical minister, Michel de Chamillart; the last ministers; Boucherat (1685–99), Louis Phélypeaux, Comte de Pontchartrain (1699–1714) and Daniel Voysin (1714–15), Chancellors; Torcy (1696–1715), foreign affairs; Le Peletier (1684–89), Louis, Comte de Pontchartrain (1689–99), Chamillart (1699–1708) and Desmarets (1708–15), finances; Barbézieux (1691–1701), Chamillart (1701–1709) and Daniel Voysin (1709–14), war; Louis, Comte de Pontchartrain (1690–93), and Jerôme, Comte de Pontchartrain (1693–1715), marine.

The French nation approved the successful war of 1688-97 against the League of Augsburg, but welcomed the Treaties of Ryswick; general delight at the acceptance of the Spanish Succession for the Duke of Anjou; "the Pyrenees have ceased to exist"; confidence felt by the people in the success of Louis XIV.

Surprise felt at the defeats of Blenheim and Ramillies; general discontent at the mismanagement of Chamillart; his financial methods, the creation and sale of sinecure offices; Chamillart made the scapegoat and succeeded by Desmarets, the nephew of Colbert (1708); improvement of credit; the loans of Desmarets; the armies thus raised defeated; despair of the French people after the defeat of Oudenarde. (Mullionard)

The terrible winter of 1708-1709: general misery of the people; the loss of Lille left the way open to Paris; the appeal of Louis XIV. to his people, on the advice of Torcy; France rallied round the King; voluntary gifts to the royal treasury; melting down of the royal plate; ladies contributed their jewelry; result of the wave of enthusiasm, to make Louis XIV. persist in his resistance; effect of the battle of Malplaquet; the rising of Spain and the accession of the Tory Ministry in England enabled Louis XIV. to get much better terms at Utrecht and Rastadt than had ever been expected by him; his position at the close of the war; France retained most of the towns in Europe which had been gained at Ryswick, and only lost Acadia in North America.

Religious persecution increased in France during the War of the Spanish Succession: the suppression of the Camisards in the Cevennes (1703-1705); Letellier increased the King's ardor against the Jansenists; destruction of Port Royal (1710); Louis XIV.'s indignation at the opposition made by the Parlement of Paris, led by D'Aguesseau, to registering the bull *Unigenitus*; his intention of deposing the bishops who favored Jansenism; influence of Letellier.

Last year of Louis XIV.'s foreign policy: his intrigues with the English Jacobites to secure the accession of the Catholic "Old Pretender" in England; a fleet prepared for the support of the Pretender.

Bad effect of the financial maladministration: decline of agricultural, industrial and commercial prosperity; Vauban's Dîme Royale published (1707).

Gloom of the Court during the last years of the life of Louis XIV.: contrast with its opening years; death of the Dauphin, only son of Louis XIV. (14 April, 1711); his education by Bossuet; his three sons: (r)Louis, Duke of Burgundy, educated by Fénelon, died 18 Feb., 1712, leaving an only child, who succeeded as Louis XV.; (2) Philip, Duke of Anjou, became King of Spain as Philip V. in 1700; (3) Charles, Duke of Berry, died 4 May, 1714; the illegitimate children of Louis XIV.; his fondness for them; rank and favors bestowed upon them.

Death of Louis XIV. (1 Sept., 1715): effect of his reign on France and Europe; his personal character.

Louis XIV. and Asia: the French East India Company; foundation of Pondicherry (1674), taken by the Dutch (1693), but restored to France (1698); embassy to Siam (1685).

Louis XIV. and America: the development of Canada; the work of the Jesuits; the government of Frontenac (1672–82 and 1689–98); La Salle's voyage down the Mississippi (1682); first French settlement in Louisiana (1699).

Authorities: Of the secondary authorities cited under Lecture 16, Voltaire, Bausset and Martin; of those cited under Lecture 17, Michel and Mellion; of those cited under Lecture 19, Noailles and Geffroy; of those cited under Lecture 24, Moret and Krohn, are still useful; and may be supplemented for the light thrown on the character of Madame de Maintenon by Th. Lavallée, Histoire de la maison royale de Saint Cyr; by Provart, Vie du Dauphin, père de Louis XV., 2 vols.; by Castonnet des Fosses, L'Inde française avant Dupleix; by Lanier. Étude historique sur les relations de la France et du royaume de Siam de 1662 à 1703, and by Parkman, Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV., The Iesuits in America in the 17th century, and La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West. For the administration of Louis XIV. see Dareste, Lucay, Nervo and Clamageran, cited under Lecture 8, and Clément, Histoire du système protecteur en France depuis le ministère de Colbert; Reuss, L'Alsace au XVIIIème siècle; Thomas, Une province sous Louis XIV., situation politique et administrative de la Bourgogne de 1661 à 1715; Monin, Essai sur l'histoire administrative du Languedoc pendant l'intendance de Basville (1685-1719); Marchand, Un intendant sous Louis XIV., étude sur l'administration de Lebret en Provence (1687-1704), and Arbois de Jubainville, L'administration des intendants d'après les archives de l' Aube. Among primary authorities on administration and finance Depping, Boislisle and Foucault, cited under Lecture 16, should be supplemented by Esnault, Michel Chamillart, correspondance et papiers inédits: by Desmarets. Mémoire sur l'administration des finances depuis le 20 février 1708 jusqu'au 1 septembre 1715, and by Vauban, Projet d'une Dîme royale; while for the Court of Louis XIV, and his personality during the latter years of his reign to the Correspondance of Madame de Maintenon, the Letters of the Duchesse d'Orléans and the Mémoires of Madame de Caylus, Choisy and Torcy, cited under Lecture 19. must be added the Duchesse de Bourgogne, Lettres et correspondance, ed. Gagnière; Anthoine, La mort de Louis XIV., journal des Anthoine, ed. Drumont; the Journal of Dangeau, vols. 7-15; the Écrits inédits, ed. Fraugère, 6 vols. and, above all, the Mémoires of the Duc de Saint-Simon ed. Chéruel, 21 vols ; the famous work of Saint-Simon, however, must be read with cention and on this subject reference may be made to Chéruel, Saint-Simon considéré comme historien de Louis XIV., and to Baschet, Le Duc de Saint-Simon, son cabinet et l'historique de ses manuscrits.

LECTURE 30.

LITERATURE AND PHILOSOPHY IN THE 17TH CENTURY.

Importance of the 17th century literature: the literary languages of Europe created; development from the study of the classics, which characterized the Renaissance, into the use of vernaculars; effect of this literary movement on the growth of nationalities; the study of the

classics as models continued; literature ceased to concern itself mainly with religion and dealt with more sides of human interest.

Spain produced the first man of letters of genius of the 17th century: the life, character and works of Cervantes (1547–1616); *Don Quixote* and its effects; the Spanish drama; Lope de Vega (1562–1635) and Calderon (1600–87).

The Elizabethan period of English literature: Shakespeare (1564–1616) and his contemporaries and successors; the English drama; the growth of English prose; Bacon (1561–1626)

Development of French literature under Richelieu and Mazarin: the Académie Française founded 1635; Malherbe (1555-1628); La Rochefoucauld (1630-80); the application of literature to politics; the Mazarinades; journalism; the rise of the French drama; Pierre Corneille (1606-84).

The Age of Louis XIV: the classic or "golden" age of French literature; literature owed to Louis XIV. patronage, but not inspiration; the greatest writers of the time were born and had begun to write before Louis XIV. impressed his personality on France; tragedy: Racine (1639-99); comedy: Molière (1622-73); poetry: influence of classicism; correctness took the place of inspiration; Boileau (1636-1711), the critic, and his influence; development of French prose: Pascal (1623-62); the influence of Port Royal; La Fontaine (1621-95) and his Fables; La Bruyère (1644-96) and his Characters; fiction: Mdlle. de Scudéry (1607-1701); Fénelon (1651-1715); Télémaque; theology and history:

Bossuet (1627-1704); the great French preachers, Bossuet, Bourdaloue (1632-1704) and Fléchier (1632-1710); memoir-writers: Madame de Motteville (1621-89), Cardinal de Retz (1614-79) and Saint-Simon (1675-1755); letter writers: Madame de Sevigné (1626-96).

Growth of taste for literature in France: the Hôtel de Rambouillet and the "précieuses"; their successors.

Tendency of later writers of the Age of Louis XIV. to fulsome adulation of the king.

English literature of the Puritan period: Milton (1608-74).

Influence of the Age of Louis XIV. on the literature of other countries: in Germany, French became the language of the courts and educated people; consequent sterility of German literature; in Italy poetry on

classical lines was produced; Tassoni (1565–1655), Guidi (1650–1712), and Filicaja (1642–1707); in Spain pedantry of criticism caused sterility; in England the literature of the reign of Charles II. showed French influence; Dryden (1631–1701); Congreve (1670–1729).

Relation of literature to philosophy in the 17th century.

Revolution effected in philosophical method by Bacon (1561–1626); Descartes (1596–1650) destroyed the scholastic methods; the speculations of Spinoza (1632–77); the theories of Leibnitz (1646–1716).

In political philosophy France produced no great thinkers: but Hobbes (1588–1679) and Locke (1632–1704) started the lines of thought which were to lead to great results in the 18th century.

Grotius (1583-1646) and Puffendorf (1632-94) created and developed international law.

Variety of the literary and philosophical movements of the 17th century; their diverse characteristics.

LECTURE 31.

ART AND SCIENCE IN THE 17TH CENTURY.

The revolution in thought and method effected by Bacon and Descartes created a new era in science: experiments took the place of theories; and the 17th century is marked by many important scientific discoveries; on the other hand art tended to lose its virility and, despite two painters of genius, the art of the 17th century is governed by classical conventions; and is thus on an inferior level to its condition during the Renaissance.

The Spanish school of painting: Velasquez (1599–1660); Murillo (1617–82); the greatness of Velasquez.

The Flemish school of painting: Rubens (1577–1640); Van Dyck (1599–1641); Teniers the elder (1582–1649); Teniers the younger (1610–85).

610-85).

The Dutch school of painting: the isolated greatness of Rembrandt

17 the . Indden age 1 Dutel art

van Ryn (1608-69); characteristics of the Dutch school; Frans Hals (1584-1666); Gerard Douw (1613-80); Jan Steen (1626-79); Paul Potter (1625-54); Ruysdael (1630-81); Cuyp (1606-62); Wouverman (1620-68); Van der Velde (1633-1707).

The Italian school of painting: its decline from the great days of Italian art into sentimentalism; Guido Reni (1574-1642); Sassoferrato

(1605-85); Salvator Rosa (1615-73).

The French school of painting; its conventionality; Poussin (1593-1672); Le Brun (1619-90); Claude Lorraine (1600-82). who down by for

The English school of painting: devoted to portraits; influence of

Van Dyck; Lely (1618-80); Kneller (1648-1723).

Architecture dominated by classic ideals and styles: their inappropriateness; the forms patronized by Louis XIV. adopted in other uropean countries.

The other arts: absence of great sculptors; improvement in engrav-European countries.

ing; classical style of decoration.

Commencement of classical gardening: the gardens of Vaux and

Versailles; Le Nôtre (1613-1701).

Music in the 17th century; the development of the opera in Italy; its popularity; melody cultivated as well as harmony; the Roman school; Carissimi (1582-1672); his church music; introduction of the orchestra into the churches; his cantatas and songs; Scarlatti (1659-1725), founder of the Neapolitan school; his songs and operas; Lully (1633-87) developed the music written for masques; he became the chief musician to Louis XIV.; his operas, ballets and musical comedies; his services to theatrical music in France; his association with Molière and Quinault; music in England; Purcell (1658-95).

Bacon and Descartes, by overthrowing old methods of thinking and arguing, prepare the way for experimental science: scientific experiments become fashionable; foundation of the Royal Society (1662); science not yet divided and differentiated; attempts at universality of

scientific knowledge; Leibnitz (1646-1716).

The great mathematicians: Napier, the inventor of logarithms (1550-1617); Descartes (1596-1650) and the application of numerical exponents to geometry; Pascal (1623-62) and conic sections; Newton (1642-1727) and the infinitesimal calculus and mathematical optics;

the *Principia*; Bernouilli (1654-1705) and the application of the calculus.

The great biologists: Harvey and the demonstration of the circulation of the blood (1578–1657); Sydenham (1624–89); Boerhaave (1668–1738).

The great astronomers: Galileo (1564–1642) and the demonstration was that the earth moves round the sun; Kepler (1571–1631) and the laws of planetary motion; Cassini (1625–1712) and the measurement of the earth; Huyghens (1629–95) and the discovery of the satellites of Saturn; Newton (1642–1727) and the lunar theory; Gregory (1633–75) and the invention of the reflecting telescope; Halley (1656–1742) and eclipses.

The great physicists: Galileo (1564–1642) the inventor of the thermometer and the pendulum; Torricelli (1608–47) the inventor of the barometer; Descartes and the law of refraction; his theory of "whoris"; Boyle (1626–91) and the air pump; Huyghens and the pendulum clock; Newton and the theory of gravitation.

These names and discoveries only indicate the progress and first gains of experimental science; the 17th century was in this respect also the commencement of rodern history.

Effect on the material conditions of life of the discoveries of men of science; contrast between the intellectual and material conditions of life at the beginning and the end of the 17th century.

LECTURE 32.

THE REGENCY OF ORLEANS, AND THE SCHEMES OF ALBERONI.

Condition of France at the death of Louis XIV. (1 September, 1715); accession of his great-grandson as Louis XV. (b. 15 Feb., 1710).

The Parlement of Paris revoked the will of Louis XIV., and the Duke of Orleans (b. 1674) became Regent of France with full powers (2 Sept., 1715); revocation of the precedence granted to the illegitimate children of Louis XIV. (26 Aug., 1718).

The character of the Regent: his attitude towards politics; his agent and minister, the Abbé Dubois, (b. 1656); the character of Dubois.

The foreign policy of the Regent: the schemes of Alberoni caused the Regent and Dubois to enter into a close alliance with England (1716); influence of the English ambassador, Stair.

The condition of Spain in 1715; marriage of Philip V. to Elizabeth Farnese, of Parma (b. 1692, d. 1766); her character and ambition; dismissal of Madame des Ursins (25 Dec., 1714); Alberoni by his influence over the queen became the director of Spanish policy; character and ideas of Cardinal Alberoni (b. 1664, d. 1752); his administration; Philip V. hoped to enforce his claim to the throne of France in case of the death of Louis XV.; the queen aimed at obtaining Parma and Tuscany for her children.

The attitude of England: the accession of George I. placed the Whigs firmly in power; Stanhope, a friend of the Emperor, became the director of English foreign policy; the principal objects of English policy, the maintenance of the Treaties of Utrecht, and the exclusion of the Stuarts from the English throne; failure of the Jacobite rising of 1715 in Scotland and the north of England.

The alliance formed between England and France joined by the United Provinces and became the Triple Alliance; the execution of the Treaties of Utrecht guaranteed by the allies (4 Jan., 1717).

Causes of the renewal of war between Spain and the Emperor Charles VI.; the Spaniards conquered Sardinia (Aug., 1717) and attacked Sicily (July, 1718).

The Emperor joined the Triple Alliance, which thus became the Quadruple Alliance (2 Aug., 1718).

The Spanish War: Byng destroyed the Spanish fleet off Cape Passaro (11 Aug., 1718); a French army under Berwick invaded Spain (April, 1719).

The plots of Alberoni: he endeavored to induce Sweden and Russia to support the Jacobites; he prepared a fleet for the Old Pretender; he conspired with the illegitimate children of Louis XIV. for the overthrow of the regency of Orleans; discovery of the conspiracy of Cellamare (8 Dec., 1718).

All the plots of Alberoni foiled; exiled from Spain (5 Dec., 1719).

Peace signed between Spain and the Quadruple Alliance (I Feb., 1720): the Emperor Charles VI., obtained Sicily; Victor Amadeus II. of Savoy received Sardinia in compensation for the loss of Sicily; the succession to Parma and Tuscany guaranteed to the children of Philip V. by his second marriage; Saint-Simon's embassy to Spain; arrangements made for the marriage of Louis XV. to a Spanish infanta and of the two elder sons of the King of Spain to two daughters of the Regent Orleans.

The internal history of France during the regency of Orleans: cessation of the persecution of the Jansenists; exile of Père Letellier; John Law (b. 1671, d. 1729) and his financial schemes; the mania for speculation in France; the Mississippi Company; ruinous results of Law's administration; dismissal of Law (1720); Dubois made a cardinal (1721).

Louis XV. declared of age (19 Feb., 1723); death of Dubois (10 Aug., 1723) and of the Regent Orleans (7 Dec., 1723).

Authorities: Among books in English on this period see Moore, Lives of Alberoni, Ripperda and Pombal; Perkins, France under the Regency, and Armstrong, Elizabeth Farnese, the "Termagant of Spain". Among secondary anthorities may be noted Coxe, Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon, vol. ii.; DeCourcy, L'Espagne après la paix d'Utrecht (1713-1715); Combes, La princesse des Ursins; Seilhac, L'aobé Dubois; Wiesener, Le Régent, l'abbé Dubois et les Anglais; Châteauneuf, Histoire du régent, Philippe d'Orléans: Thiers, Histoire de Law, translated by F. Fiske, as The Mississippi Bubble: Horn. Jean Law: Cochut, Law, son système et son époque: Vuitry, Le désordre des finances et les excès de la speculation à la fin du règne de Louis XIV, et au commencement du règne de Louis XV.; Séché, Les derniers jansénistes, vol. i.; Rousset de Missy, Histoire du Cardinal Alberoni jusqu' à 1719; Vatout, La conspiration de Cellamare; Lemontey, Histoire de la Régence, et de la minorité de Louis XV. and O. Weber, Die Quadrupel-Allianz vom Jahre 1718. For the part played by England see Stanhope, History of England, vol. i.; Lecky, History of England in the Eighteenth Century, vol. i. The primary authorities for the History of Spain include Princess des Ursins, Lettres inédites, ed. Geffroy, and Correspondance avec Madame de Maintenon; the Apologia dell' operazione del Card. Alberoni durante il suo ministerio, and Alberoni, Lettres intimes adressées au comte Rocca, ed. Bourgeois; Baudrillart, PhilippeV. d'Espagne et la cour de France, vol.ii.; Saint-Simon, Lettres et depêches sur l'ambassade d'Espague, ed. Drumont. For the history of the Regency in France see Dubois Mémoires secrètes et correspondance inédite, ed. Sevelinges, and the Mémoires of Saint Simon, Villars, Noailles, Madame

de Staal-Delaunay, Duclos and Mathieu Marais, the Journal of Dangeau, vols. xvi.-xviii., and Buvat, Journal de la Régence (1715-23), ed. Campardon. Many documents of importance are contained in Lamberty, Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire du XVIIIième siècle, vols. viii-xii.

LECTURE 33.

THE END OF THE NORTHERN WAR.

The military situation in Northern Europe at the time when Charles XII. of Sweden suddenly arrived in Stralsund from Adrianople (22 Nov., 1715): occupation of Pomerania by the Danes, Saxons, Russians and Prussians (1716).

Charles XII. appointed Görtz his chief minister; the schemes of Görtz; his relations with Alberoni; Görtz endeavored to make peace between Sweden and Russia; Peter the Great not unwilling so long as the Baltic provinces which he had conquered were guaranteed to him.

Charles XII. invaded Norway (1716); George I. of England, who had purchased Bremen and Verden from the Danes, was determined to support Denmark; second invasion of Norway by the Swedes (1718); Charles XII. killed at Frederikshall (11 Dec., 1718).

Revolution in Sweden: Ulrica Eleanor, younger sister of Charles XII., declared Queen, the Duke of Holstein, son of his elder sister, being passed over; the monarchy of Sweden made elective; all power granted to an oligarchy of nobles; execution of Görtz (13 March, 1719).

The Swedish Government resolved to make peace: George I. confirmed in the possession of Bremen and Verden (20 Nov., 1719); treaty signed with Augustus I. of Poland; by treaty with Prussia (21 Jan., 1720), Frederick William I. of Prussia, obtained the district of Pomerania between the Oder and the Peene, including Stettin, with the islands of Usedom and Wollin; by treaty with Denmark (9 June, 1720), Sweden recovered the rest of Western Pomerania and the island of Rügen, but confirmed the cession of Schleswig to Denmark; by the Treaty of Nystadt with Russia (10 Sept., 1721), Sweden surrendered the

provinces bordering on the Gulf of Finland to Russia, but recovered the rest of Finland.

These treaties, which concluded the Northern War, reduced Sweden to the rank of a second-rate power, and marked the advance of Russia and Prussia towards the supremacy of the Baltic.

Condition of Poland during the reign of Augustus I. of Saxony (1710–34); renewal of his scheme to obtain the hereditary throne of Poland, guaranteed by the neighboring powers, at the price of ceding Royal or Polish Prussia to the King of Prussia, eastern Lithuania to Russia and Zips to the Emperor.

Condition of Denmark under Frederick IV. (1699–1730): development of Danish trade; good administration; encouragement of education; exploration of Greenland; the Moravian missions.

The last years of the reign of Peter the Great: his visit to Paris (1717); execution of his only son and heir-apparent, Alexis, (7 July, 1718); Peter's ukase giving the reigning sovereign the right to nominate his successor (1722); the development of the European policy of Peter; the title of Tsar translated as Emperor of All the Russias (1721); difficulties met with in establishing a Western system of administration in Russia; the "Old Russian" party; Peter the Great's Asiatic policy; his war with Persia; he lays down the lines of future Russian development; coronation of Catherine as Tsaritsa (18 May 1724).

Death of Peter the Great (8 Feb., 1725); his character and greatness. Reign of Catherine I.; influence of Menshikov; importance of Ostermann; establishment of the Supreme Privy Council; treaty with the Emperor (6 Aug., 1726); foundation of the Academy of Sciences (1726); explorations of Bering (b. 1680, d. 1741); death of Catherine I. (17 May, 1727).

Reign of Peter II. (b. 1715), son of Alexis; exile of Menshikov (3 Oct., 1727); influence of the Dolgoruki family; death of Peter II. (30 Jan., 1730).

Anne, Duchess of Courland (b. 1693), younger daughter of Ivan V. and niece of Peter the Great, declared Tsaritsa.

Authorities: See books mentioned under Lectures 21 and 22, with Allen, Histoire de Danemark; Bain, The Pupils of Peter the Great; Vogué, Le fils de Pierre le Grand; Herrmann, Peter der Grosse und der Zarevitsch Alexei, and Pierre Dolgoroukow, Mémoires.

LECTURE 34. Begin 2nd Someto

THE POLICY OF THE EMPEROR CHARLES VI.

Charles VI. refused to recognize Philip V. as King of Spain until after the successful war waged by the Quadruple Alliance; improvement made in the Austrian position in Italy by the exchange of Sardinia for Sicily.

The Emperor and the Turks: improvement in the position of the Turks since the Treaty of Carlowitz (1699); they recovered Azov from the Russians by the Treaty of the Pruth (1711); under the influence of the Grand Vizier, Damad Ali Kumurdji, the Sultan, Ahmad III., declared war upon the Republic of Venice (9 Dec., 1714); the Vizier conquered the Morea (1715), and laid siege to Corfu; heroic defence of Corfu (1716); the Venetians appealed to the Emperor for help; Charles VI. declared war against the Turks.

The campaigns of Prince Eugène: he defeated the Turks at Peterwardein (5 Aug., 1716), and took Temesvar; he besieged Belgrade, and won his greatest victory over the Turks there (16 Aug., 1717); surrender of Belgrade to the Austrians.

Peace made between the Emperor and the Turks at Passarowitz, (21 July, 1718); by this treaty Austria received the Banat of Temesvar, completing its possession of Hungary, and the city of Belgrade; the Venetians abandoned the Morea to the Turks, but were confirmed in their possession of Corfu, and received certain districts in Albania and Dalmatia; importance of the treaty of Passarowitz; it marked the further decline of the Turkish power in Europe.

The attitude of Charles VI. towards Spain; the Congress of Cambrai (1724).

The Emperor and the Pragmatic Sanction: the terms of this decree which was propounded by Charles VI. in 1713; (1) the dominions of the House of Hapsburg declared indivisible; (2) male heirs to succeed by primogeniture; (3) in default of male heirs the succession to devolve upon the female heirs, first of Charles VI., then of Joseph I., and finally of Leopold I.

As the Emperor had only daughters, he endeavored to obtain an oath of adhesion to the Pragmatic Sanction from the different states forming the Austrian dominions, and a guarantee from the powers of Europe.

The different provinces of the House of Hapsburg assented to the Pragmatic Sanction, and it was solemnly promulgated (6 Dec., 1724).

The desire for a universal guarantee of the Pragmatic Sanction, the keynote of the foreign policy of Charles VI.

The question of the Ostend Company, founded by the Emperor in order to obtain a share of the Asiatic trade (19 Dec., 1722); the English and the Dutch opposed the new Company; the Emperor Charles was thus alienated from his former allies, and a negotiation was entered into with Spain.

The policy of Spain after the dismissal of Alberoni: the abdication of Philip V. (Jan., 1724); death of Louis I. (31 Aug., 1724); return to the throne of Philip V.; the Spanish infanta betrothed to Louis XV. sent back to Spain (Feb., 1725); the schemes of Ripperda (b. 1680, d. 1737): an alliance signed between Charles VI. and Philip V. at Vienna (30 April, 1725); Charles VI. renounced his claims to Spain, promised to secure the succession to Parma and Tuscany to Don Carlos, son of Philip V. and Elizabeth Farnese, and agreed to aid Spain to recover Gibraltar and Minorca; Philip V. guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, renounced all claims to Naples, Sicily, the Milanese and the Catholic Netherlands, and threw open all Spanish ports to the Ostend Company.

Formation of the League of Hanover (23 Sept., 1725), in opposition to the Austro-Spanish Alliance: France and England joined by the Dutch, Denmark and Sweden.

Catherine I. of Russia guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction and joined the Austro-Spanish Alliance (6 Aug., 1726), and her example was followed by King Frederick William I. of Prussia (12 Oct., 1726).

Dismissal of Ripperda (17 May, 1726); attack of the Spaniards on Gibraltar.

Change of power in France: the Duc de Bourbon chief minister (1723-26); influence of Madame de Prie; marriage of Louis XV. to Marie Leczinska, daughter of Stanislas, ex-King of Poland (4 Sept., 1725); Cardinal Fleury appointed chief minister (11 June, 1726).

A general European war averted by the peace policy of the English

and French ministers, Walpole (b. 1676, d. 1745) and Fleury (b. 1653, d. 1743).

Authorities: Among small books in English upon the reign of Charles VI. may be noted Léger, Autriche-Hongrie, translated by Mrs. Birkbeck Hill, and for the war with the Turks, Creasy, History of the Ottoman Turks. The chief secondary authorities on Austrian history of this time are Krones, Handbuch der Geschichte Æsterreichs; Arneth, Karl VI. (in Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie, vol. xv.); Höfler, Fragmente zur Geschichte Kaiser Karls VI. (Sitzungsberichte der Kaiserlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften, vol. lx., Vienna, 1868): Beer, Zur Geschichte der Politik Karls VI. (Historische Zeitschrift, 1862); Arneth, Prinz Eugen, vols. ii, iii; A. Wolf, Geschichte der pragmatischen Santtion; Förster, Die Höfe und Kabinette Europas im Achtzehnten Jahrhundert; Vehse, Memoirs of the Court of Austria, translated by Demmler; VanRuckelingen, Geschiedenis der oosterryksche Nederlanden; Belgien onder Karel VI. (1700-1740), and Bidermann, Geschichte der Esterreichischen Gesammtstaatsidee. The secondary authorities for Turkish history are Hammer, Histoire de l'empire ottoman, and Zinkeisen, Geschichte des osmanischen Reichs in Europa. the policy of Spain see Coxe, Moore and Armstrong, cited under Lecture 32, with Syveton, Le Baron de Ripperda; Baudrillart, Philippe V. et la cour de France, vol. iii.: Ripperda, Memoirs, and Montgon, Mémoires; and for England Stanhope and Lecky, cited under Lecture 32, with Coxe, Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole. On the marriage of Louis XV. see Raynal, Le mariage d'un Roi. As primary authorities for the Turkish war reference should be made to Arneth, Relationen der Botschaften Venedigs über Æsterreich im 18ten Jahrhundert (in the Foutes rerum Austriacarum, vol. xxii.), and Matuschka, Feldzüge des Prinzen Eugens, and for diplomatic history to Lettres et Mémoires entre les ministres des cours de la Grande-Bretagne, de France, et d'Espagne (1727), and the texts of the treaties.

LECTURE 35.

THE WAR OF THE POLISH SUCCESSION.

Charles VI. abandoned Spain and made peace with the allies of the League of Hanover (31 May, 1727), suspending the Ostend Company and referring other disputed questions to a Congress of the Powers.

Spain abandoned the siege of Gibraltar and made peace with Eng-

land (5 March, 1728); meeting of the Congress of Soissons; by the Treaty of Seville (9 Nov., 1729) Spain made an offensive and defensive alliance with England, France and the Dutch, who guarantee the succession of Don Carlos to Parma and Tuscany.

The Treaty of Seville accepted by the Emperor after the death of the last Farnese Duke of Parma (16 March, 1731); England and the Dutch guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction; Charles VI. dissolved the Ostend Company; Don Carlos took possession of Parma.

The Emperor Charles VI. submitted the Pragmatic Sanction to the Diet of the Empire (Jan., 1732); accepted by the ecclesiastical Electors and the Electors of Brandenburg and Hanover, but rejected by the Elector Palatine and the Electors of Saxony and Bavaria.

The internal government of Charles VI.: influence exercised by Prince Eugène up to his death in 1736; his chief ministers, Sinzendorff, State Chancellor (1705–42), and Gundacker Thomas Starhemberg, in charge of the finances (1703–45).

The peace policy of Cardinal Fleury; his endeavors to improve the finances of France; Orry, Controller-General of the Finances (1730–45); Chauvelin, Minister of Foreign Affairs (1727–37); renewal of the attack on the Jansenists, which involved Fleury in conflicts with the Parlement of Paris (1729, 1731–32).

The peace policy of Sir Robert Walpole, who had become Prime Minister of England in 1721; his foreign policy governed by commercial considerations; his power increased by the death of George I. (1727).

In spite of the peaceful tendencies of Walpole and Fleury, the death of Augustus I., King of Poland and Elector of Saxony (1 Feb., 1733), caused a general war.

The two chief candidates for the Polish throne were Augustus, Elector of Saxony, son of the late king, and Stanislas Leczinski, who had been king from 1704 to 1709 and was father-in-law of Louis XV. of France.

Stanislas was elected king (11 Sept., 1733) and was supported by a small body of French troops; an opposition diet elected Augustus II. (24 Sept., 1733); the Emperor Charles VI. recognized Augustus in return for a guarantee of the Pragmatic Sanction, and the Tsaritsa Anne of Russia sent troops to his assistance.

The Russians under Münnich took Dantzig (9 July, 1734), the last refuge of Stanislas, who escaped to France; Biren made Duke of Courland (1737).

Fleury resolved to attack the Emperor on the pretext that Charles VI. had shown himself hostile to Stanislas, and formed the League of Turin with Spain and Sardinia for the expulsion of the Austrians from Italy (26 Sept., 1733); by the secret treaty of the Escurial (7 Nov., 1733) a close alliance was formed between France and Spain; his main intention in entering upon war was to acquire Lorraine for France, an intention quickened by the betrothal of Francis, Duke of Lorraine, to Maria Theresa, elder daughter of Charles VI.

The campaign of 1733: the French, under Berwick, conquered Lorraine, and under Villars took Milan. Walpole refused to assist the Emperor; campaign of 1734: the French took Philipsburg, where Berwick was killed, and Don Carlos conquered Naples; campaign of 1735: Don Carlos conquered Sicily; little effected in Northern Italy and on the Rhine; first appearance of Russian troops in Western Europe, an army being sent by the Tsaritsa Anne to the help of Charles VI.

Preliminaries of peace signed between France and Austria (3 Oct., 1735):

- (1) Stanislas Leczinski renounced the throne of Poland to Augustus of Saxony, and received the duchy of Lorraine, with the title of king.
- (2) Francis, Duke of Lorraine, the future son-in-law of the Emperor, guaranteed Tuscany on the death of the last of the Medici.
- (3) Don Carlos recognized as King of Naples and Sicily, including the Tuscan presidios, and surrendered the duchy of Parma to the Emperor.
- (4) Charles Emmanuel III., King of Sardinia, received Novara and Tortona.
 - (5) France to receive Lorraine on the death of Stanislas.

These preliminaries of peace were eventually ratified in the Treaty of Vienna (18 Nov., 1738), when France also guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction.

Charles VI. endeavored to obtain revenge for his losses in the War of the Polish Succession by attacking the Turks (1737), who were since 1736 at war with Russia; attitude of France; Villeneuve and Bonneval; the Turks generally successful; by the Treaty of Belgrade (1 Sept., 1739) Austria restored to the Turks, Belgrade, Orsova, and all the territories acquired by the Treaty of Passarowitz, except Temesvar.

Death of the Emperor Charles VI. (20 Oct., 1740).

Authorities: For the military history of the War of the Polish Succession see Pajol, Les Guerres sous Louis XV., vols. i., ii., and Rathery, Le comte de Plélo; for the policy of Austria see Krones, Arneth, Beer, A Wolf, Förster, Vehse and Bidermann, cited under Lecture 34, Höfler, Der Congress von Soissons (Fontes rerum Austriacarum, xxxii., xxxviii); for the policy of France see Lacretelle, Histoire du XVIII ième siècle; Jobez, La France sous Louis XV.; Tocqueville, Histoire philosophique du règne de Louis XV.; Bonhomme, Louis XV. et sa famille; Des Réaulx, Le roi Stanislas et la reine Marie Leczinska; Boyé, Stanislas Leczinski et le troisième traité de Vienne; Vandal, Une ambassade française en Orient sous Louis XV.; la mission du Marquis de Villeneuve (1720-41), and Le Pacha Bonneval, and D'Haussonville, Histoire de la réunion de la Lorraine à la France. Among primary authorities on French history should be noted the Mémoires of Duclos, Barbier, D' Argenson, Mathieu Marais and Luynes.

LECTURE 36.

FREDERICK WILLIAM I. OF PRUSSIA, AND THE TSARITSA ANNE OF RUSSIA.

The character of Frederick William I. (b. 15 August, 1688), King of Prussia (1713-1740).

The foreign policy of Frederick William I.: in spite of his love for military organization, he avoided war as much as possible; his only important territorial conquest was the district of Pomerania between the Oder and the Peene, which gave him the port of Stettin on the Baltic (21 Jan., 1720); after the conclusion of the Northern War, Frederick William I. supported the doctrine of the Balance of Power in Europe; his relations with England; married to Sophia Dorothea, daughter of George I.

One keynote of Frederick William's policy was his desire to inherit the duchies of Juliers and Berg, which it had been arranged should fall to Brandenburg on the extinction of the House of Neuburg, then ruling In the Palatinate; on the promise of the Emperor to secure Juliers and Berg to him, Frederick William I. guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, deserted the League of Hanover and signed the Treaty of Wusterhausen (12 Oct., 1726); his schemes for obtaining Royal Prussia and negotiations with Augustus I. of Poland; Frederick William I.'s attitude towards Austria and towards the Empire; he disapproved of the election of Augustus II. to the throne of Poland, but nevertheless supported Charles VI. in the War of the Polish Succession.

The internal policy of Frederick William I.: his creation of the administrative system; he deprived the nobility of all share in civil administration, which he entrusted to a middle-class bureaucracy; his centralized system and paternal government; his improvement of the finances and economic administration; his attitude towards religion; he welcomed the Lutheran exiles from Salzburg and gave them lands to cultivate (1731-33).

The military policy of Frederick William I.: he introduced strict discipline and a new system of drill; his passion for tall soldiers; the excellence of his army; he filled the ranks of all grades of officers from the nobles; he recruited the army partly by compulsory service, partly by voluntary enlistment; he increased the Prussian army from 38,000 to 84,000 men; the work of Leopold of Anhalt-Dessau (b. 1676, d. 1747).

Frederick William I. and his family: his quarrels with the Crown Prince, afterwards known as Frederick the Great.

Death of Frederick William I. (31 May, 1740).

Accession of Frederick II. (b. 24 Jan., 1712): his character and early training; his life at Rheinsberg.

Russia under the Tsaritsa Anne (1730-40): circumstances under which Anne obtained the throne; she drove from power the oligarchical party led by Ivan Dolgoruki, which had placed her on the throne, and was proclaimed Autocrat (21 March, 1730); governed by her lover, Biren (b. 1690, d. 1772), who became Duke of Courland on the extinction of the House of Kettler (1737); she carried out the policy of Peter the Great in home administration and maintained Western ideas; in the administration of Russia, she employed German generals and ministers; Ostermann (b. 1686, d. 1747); Münnich (b. 1683, d. 1767); discontent of the Old Russian party at the internal policy of Anne.

The foreign policy of the Tsaritsa Anne: she maintained the alliance with the Emperor Charles VI., entered into by Catherine I., and guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction; she carried out the ideas of Peter the Great with regard to the Poles and the Turks; in the War of the Polish Succession she placed Augustus II. of Saxony upon the throne of Poland; in the war with the Turks (1736–1739) a Russian army under Münnich and Peter Lacy (b. 1678, d. 1751) conquered the Crimea and took Azov (1 July, 1736); by the treaty of peace with the Turks (18 Sept., 1739), Russia abandoned the Crimea and obtained Azov, but promised to maintain no fleet on the Black Sea.

Death of the Tsaritsa Anne (28 October, 1740).

Accession of Ivan VI. (b. 23 Aug., 1740), grand-nephew of Anne, under the regency of Biren; by a coup d'état (20 Nov., 1740) Biren was overthrown and the mother of the infant king, Anne of Mecklenburg, Duchess of Brunswick-Bevern, was made regent; unpopularity of the new Regent on account of her German tendencies; quarrel between Münnich and the Tsar's father; disgrace of Münnich; Elizabeth (b. 1709), younger daughter of Peter the Great, supported by the Old Russian party and some personal friends, overturned this government and was proclaimed Tsaritsa (6 Dec., 1741); imprisonment of the Tsar Ivan VI. and his parents. (See Appendix VI.)

Authorities: Of books in English on this period of Prussian history see Tuttle, History of Prussia, and Carlyle, History of Frederick the Great. Among general secondary histories consult Berner, Geschichte des preussischen Staates; Stenzel, Geschichte des preussischen Staats; Droysen, Geschichte der preussischen Politik, vol. iv.; Ranke, Zwölf Bücher preussischer Geschichte; Pariset, L'état et les églises en Prusse (1713-1740); Philippson, Geschichte des preussischen Staatswesens; Bornhak, Geschichte des preussischen Verwaltungsrechts; Isaacsohn, Geschichte des preussischen Beamtenthums; Stadelmann, Preussens Könige in ihrer Thätigkeit für die Landeskultur, vol. i., and Cavaignac La Formation de la Prusse contemporaine. More special studies of the reign are contained in Förster, Friedrich Wilhelm I., König von Preussen; Paulig, Friedrich Wilhelm I.; Beheim Schwarzbach, Friedrich Wilhelms I. Kolonisationswerk in Littauen, vornehmlich die Salzburger Kolonie; Schmoller, Das politische Testament Friedrich Wilhelm's, and the numerous articles of Schmoller in different periodicals, of which a complete list is given in Historische Zeitschrift, vol. lvii. For the early history of Frederick the Great see the Memoirs of the Margravine of Baireuth; Koser, Friedrich der Grosse als Kronprinz; Lavisse, La jeunesse du

grand Frédéric, and Le grand Frédéric avant l'avénement, and Hamilton, Rheinsberg, Memorials of Frederick the Great and Prince Henry of Prussia. For the Tsaritsa Anne reference may be made to Morfill Story of Russia; Rambaud, Histoire de la Russie; Bain, The Pupils of Peter the Great, a history of the Russian Court and Empire from 1697 to 1740; Manstein, Contemporary Memoirs of Russia (1727-44); Halem, Lebensbeschreibung des russischen general-feldmarschalls Münnich; Münnich, Memoiren, ed. Jürgensohn; Jansen, Graf zu Lynar, and the despatches of foreign ministers in the Sbornik.

LECTURE 37.

THE WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION.

Important changes caused in Europe in 1740 by the deaths of Frederick William I. of Prussia (31 May), of the Emperor Charles VI. (20 October), and of the Tsaritsa Anne of Russia (28 October).

The two questions with regard to the succession to Charles VI.: (1) the succession to the Hapsburg dominions; (2) the succession to the Empire.

The claimants to the Hapsburg succession: (1) the Elector of Bavaria; (2) the Elector of Saxony and King of Poland; (3) the King of Spain; (see Appendix VII.); nevertheless Maria Theresa (b. 1717), elder daughter of Charles VI., whose peaceful accession had been guaranteed by the powers of Europe under the Pragmatic Sanction, ascended the throne and declared her husband, Francis of Lorraine, who since 1737 had been Grand Duke of Tuscany, to be joint ruler with her of the Austrian dominions; character of Maria Theresa.

Of the guarantors of the Pragmatic Sanction, Russia, England and the United Provinces supported Maria Theresa; Saxony, Spain and Bavaria were openly hostile; Sardinia and France favored the opposition; and Prussia took the opportunity to attack Austria by invading Silesia.

England's attitude towards Maria Theresa: the opposition of France and Spain to her succession caused the English ministry to support her

claims; war had been declared between England and Spain in October, 1739; causes of this war; Anson's voyage (1740-44); Vernon's capture of Porto Bello (1739) and failure before Carthagena (1741); influence of this war in defining England's attitude towards Austria; retirement of Sir Robert Walpole (17 Feb., 1742); position attained by England during Walpole's peace administration; the aims of his policy.

The attitude of France towards Maria Theresa: Fleury, like Walpole, was essentially a peace minister, but a war party existed in France as in England; the French war party desired to attack Austria; the schemes of Belle-Isle (b. 1684, d. 1761); by the Treaty of Nymphenburg(18 May,1741) he formed a league, against Maria Theresa, of France, Spain and Bavaria, joined later by Saxony, Sardinia, and (5 June, 1741) by Frederick the Great of Prussia.

The attitude of Russia towards Maria Theresa: the Regent, Anne of Mecklenburg, proposed to assist her and to maintain the Pragmatic Sanction; France induced Sweden to declare war against Russia (4 Aug., 1741).

The First Silesian War (1740-42): Frederick II. of Prussia invaded Silesia (22 Dec., 1740); his demands and claims (see pp. 46, 70); he defeated the Austrians under Neipperg at Mollwitz (10 April, 1741); his agreement with France (5 June); capture of Breslau (10 Aug.); the Convention of Klein Schnellendorf (9 Oct.).

Maria Theresa's appeals to the Magyar nobility; "Moriamur pro rege nostro, Maria Theresa"; enthusiasm in Hungary for her cause, whether these words were used or not; the three ceremonies at Pressburg; the coronation (25 June, 1741), the vote of troops (13 Sept.) and the oath of regency (20 Sept.).

War of the Austrian Succession:

Campaign of 1741: the Bavarians aided by a French army invaded Austria (July) and Bohemia (Oct.); Convention of Klein Schnellendorf (9 October); the French took Prague (25 November); the Elector of Bavaria crowned King of Bohemia, (17 Dec.); the Russians under Lacy defeated the Swedes at Wilmanstrand (3 Sept.); Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, seized the throne of Russia (6 Dec.); death of Ulrica Eleanor, Queen of Sweden (5 Dec.); Frederick the Great refused to observe the terms of the Convention of Klein Schnellendorf (Nov.), invaded Moravia and took Olmütz (26 Dec.).

The question of the election of an Emperor to succeed Charles VI.: Maria Theresa put forward her husband, Francis of Lorraine; the French supported the Elector of Bavaria, who received the adhesion of the Rhenish Electors, of Frederick the Great, and of Augustus II of Saxony and Poland; he was unanimously chosen (24 January, 1742) and crowned as the Emperor Charles VII. (12 Feb.).

Campaign of 1742: the effect of Maria Theresa's appeal to the Magyars; the Austrians under Khevenhüller conquered Bavaria and took Munich (12–14 Feb.); Frederick the Great defeated the Austrians under Charles of Lorraine, brother-in law of Maria Theresa, at Chotusitz (17 May); the policy of Carteret (b. 1690, d. 1763); through the mediation of England, Maria Theresa made peace with Frederick the Great (28 July, 1742), and, by the Treaty of Berlin, ceded Silesia to Prussia; the Elector Augustus II. made peace with Maria Theresa at Dresden (7 September); critical position of the French army in Prague; escape of part of the French army under Belle-Isle (16 December), and surrender of the remainder (25 Dec.); the campaign in Italy; the policy of Charles Emmanuel III., King of Sardinia; he broke away from the alliance of Nymphenburg (1 Feb.), joined the Austrians and took Parma and Modena; campaign in Finland; the Swedish army surrendered to the Russians at Helsingfors (4 Sept.).

Campaign of 1743: death of Fleury (29 January); attitude towards politics of Louis XV.; the failure of the campaign caused the ruin of Belle-Isle; the English ministry induced the United Provinces to support Maria Theresa (May); an English army invaded southern Germany; George II. defeated the French under Noailles at Dettingen (27 June); Treaty of Worms (13 September) between Maria Theresa, England and Sardinia, by which Maria Theresa ceded Piacenza, Bobbio and the county of Anghiera with Vigevano to Charles Emmanuel III.; England promised him a large subsidy for effective assistance in Italy; this alliance met by the Treaty of Fontainebleau between France and Spain (25 October), closely uniting the two Bourbon kingdoms; France declared war against Charles Emmanuel (30 September): by the Treaty of Abo (23 June), peace made between Sweden and Russia; southern Finland to the Kiümen ceded to Russia; Adolphus Frederick of Holstein, Bishop of Lübeck, recognized as heir to the Swedish throne;

Christian VI. of Denmark made an alliance with George II. of England (December).

Campaign of 1744: influence of Madame de Châteauroux: France. which had hitherto taken part in the war as ally of Bavaria, declared war against England (15 March) and Austria (26 April); Marshal Saxe (b. 1696, d. 1750) invaded the Catholic Netherlands; Charles of Lorraine invaded Alsace; illness of Louis XV.; Frederick the Great married his sister Louisa Uhica to Adolphus of Holstein, heir to the Swedish throne, and thus offended the Tsaritsa Elizabeth of Russia; Frederick the Great resolved again to attack Austria; he formed the Union of Frankfort with the Emperor Charles VII., the Elector Palatine, and the King of Sweden as Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel (o June): he declared himself forced as an Elector to defend the Emperor (9 August); the Second Silesian war (1744-45): Frederick invaded Bohemia and took Prague (2 September); Charles of Lorraine, recalled from Alsace, evacuated Bavaria; the Prussians forced to retire from Bohemia: D'Argenson (b. 1694, d. 1757) Minister of Foreign Affairs in France (18 November); in Italy the Austrians, advancing on Naples, were defeated by the Neapolitans and the Spaniards under Gages at Velletri (11 August), and a French and Spanish army under Conti and Don Philip conquered Nice and defeated Charles Emmanuel III. at the Madonna dell'Olmo (30 Sept.); dismissal of Carteret, who was succeeded in the control of English foreign policy by Pelham (23 Nov., 1744); death of the Emperor Charles VII. (30 Jan., 1745).

Campaign of 1745: Maria Theresa signed the Treaty of Füssen with the new Elector of Bavaria, Maximilian Joseph (22 April), by which Bavaria renounced all claims to the Austrian succession, guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction, and promised to vote for the election as Emperor, of Francis of Lorraine; Marshal Saxe defeated the English at Fontenoy (11 May) and took the fortresses of the Catholic Netherlands; the Jacobite rising in Scotland headed by the Young Pretender distracted the attention of the English government; Louisburg, on Cape Breton, captured by the American colonists (28 June); Augustus II. of Saxony and Poland declared himself on the side of Maria Theresa (18 May) and invaded Silesia with the Austrians; Frederick the Great defeated the invaders at Hohenfriedberg (4 June) and at Soor (30 September);

Francis of Lorraine elected Emperor by seven votes to two (13 September); Frederick the Great defeated the Saxons at Kesselsdorf (15 December), took Dresden and conquered Saxony; the Spaniards under Gages and the French under Maillebois defeated Charles Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, at Bassignano (27 September) and took all his fortresses, except Turin and Alessandria; the Spaniards took Parma, Piacenza and Milan (16 December); by the Treaties of Dresden (25 December) Maria Theresa confirmed the cession of Silesia and all privileges granted to Frederick by the Emperor Charles VII., and Augustus paid 1,000,000 thalers in gold, while Frederick recognized the Emperor Francis and evacuated Saxony.

Campaign of 1746: the Young Pretender defeated at Culloden (16 April); the Austrians recovered Milan (19 March) and defeated the French and Spaniards at Piacenza (16 June); offensive and defensive alliance signed between Maria Theresa and the Tsaritsa Elizabeth of Russia (26 July); death of Philip V. of Spain (9 July); the Spaniards and French withdrew from Italy; the Austrians took Genoa (6 Sept.); in the Netherlands Marshal Saxe captured Brussels and Antwerp and defeated the English and Austrians under Charles of Lorraine at Raucoux (11 October); resumption of the duchy of Guastalla on the death of the last duke (16 August) by Maria Theresa; the Austrians under Browne with the Sardinians invaded Provence; the Genoese expelled the Austrians (5–10 December); capture of Madras by La Bourdonnais (14 September).

Campaign of 1747: dismissal of D'Argenson (10 Jan.); the Conference of Breda; Marshal Saxe invaded the Protestant Netherlands; revolution there; William IV. of Orange-Nassau declared Stadtholder (3 May) and the stadtholderate made hereditary in his family; Marshal Saxe defeated the English, Dutch and Austrians under Cumberland at Lauffeld (2 July); storm of Bergen-op-Zoom (16 Sept.) by Lowendal; defense of Genoa by Boufflers; battle of the Col d'Assiette (19 July).

Campaign of 1748: the Tsaritsa Elizabeth of Russia sent help to Maria Theresa; England and France determined upon peace.

Preliminaries of peace signed between England, France and the Dutch at Aix-la-Chapelle (30 April), and accepted by Austria (25 May), and by Spain and Genoa (28 June).

Definitive treaty of peace signed at Aix-la-Chapelle by England, France and the Dutch (18 Oct.), Spain (20 Oct.), Austria (23 Oct.), Modena (25 Oct.), Genoa (28 Oct.) and Sardinia (7 Nov).

Authorities: The best small book in English is Bright, Maria Theresa. The most recent and most thorough secondary books on the diplomatic history of this period are the Duc de Broglie, Frédéric II. et Marie Thérèse, 1740-42; Frédéric II. et Louis XV., 1742-44; Marie Thérèse impératrice, 1744-46; Maurice de Saxe et D'Argenson, 1746-48; and La paix d' Aix-la-Chapelle (1747-48); as a primary authority see Matscheg, Storia politica di Europa, 1740-41, studiata sui dispacci dei Veneti ambasciatori. For the Austrian side, see Coxe, History of the House of Austria: Villermont, Marie Thérèse: Arneth, Geschichte Maria Theresias, vols. 1-3; Podewils, Berichte über der Wiener Hofs (1746-48); A. Wolf. Esterreich unter Maria Theresia, and Aus dem Hofleben Maria Theresia nach den Memoiren des Fürsten J. Khevenhüller, and G. Wolf, Aus der Zeit der Kaiserin Maria Theresia; for the Emperor Charles VII., Heigel, Der oesterreichische Erbfolgestreit und der Kaiserwahl Karl's VII., and Das Tagebuch Kaisers Karl's VII; for Prussia, Droysen, Geschichte der preussischen Politik, vols. 11 and 12; Carlyle, History of Frederick the Great; Tuttle, History of Prussia; Koser, König Friedrich der Grosse; Preuss, Friedrich der Grosse; Preussische Staatschriften aus der Regierungszeit Friedrichs II. vols. 1, 2, ed. Koser, and Raumer, König Friedrich II. und seine Zeit, with the Politische Correspondenz Friedrichs des Grossen. and Frederick the Great, Histoire de mon temps; for Holland, Beer, Über Holland und der Æsterreichische Erbfolgekrieg (in the Sitzungsberichte des kaiserlichen -Akademie für Wissenschaft, vol. 1xvii.); for England, Ballantyne, Lord Carteret; and for France, Correspondance de Louis XV. et du maréchal de Noailles, ed. Rousset; the Mémoires of D'Argenson, ed. Rathery; Châteauroux, Correspondance; the Journal of Barbier; the Mémoires of Valory, Noailles, Duclos, and the Duc de Luynes; Taillandier, Maurice de Saxe; Karl Weber, Moritz, Graf von Sachsen: Vitzthum, Maurice, comte de Saxe et Marie Josèphe de Saxe, dauphine de France; Sinéty, Vie du maréchal de Lowendal; Ogle, The Marquis D'Argenson, and Zevort Le marquis d'Argenson et le ministère des affaires étrangères. For the military history of the war in western Europe consult Pajol, Les guerres sous Louis XV., vols. 2, 3; De Vault, Les guerres des Alpes; guerre de la succession d'Autriche, ed. Arvers; Crousse, La guerre de la succession d'Autriche dans les provinces Belgiques, avec une biographie du Maréchal de Saxe; Valfons Souvenirs; Moris, Opérations militaires dans les Alpes pendant la guerre de succession d'Autriche; and Thürheim, Graf von Khevenhüllen, and Graf von Abenberg und Traun; and of the first Silesian war, Grünhagen, Geschichte des ersten schlesischen Krieges; and Die Kriege Friedrichs des Grossen, ed. the Prussian General Staff, vols 1-3. The text of the treaties and other diplomatic documents are contained in Wenck, Codex juris gentium recentissimi (1735-1772).

LECTURE 38.

THE TREATY OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, AND THE AUSTRO-FRENCH ALLIANCE.

The first negotiations for peace: Conference of Breda (1746–1747); the Conference broken up by the refusal of Maria Theresa to negotiate with France; the dismissal of D'Argenson.

Negotiations resumed at Aix-la-Chapelle: the chief plenipotentiaries were for England, Sandwich; for France, Saint-Séverin; for Spain, Soto-Mayor; for the United Provinces, Bentinck, and for Austria, Kaunitz; Maria Theresa refused to surrender a principality in Italy for Don Philip; the negotiations broken off; after the defeat of Lauffeld, England resolved that peace should be made; on 30 April, 1748, England, France and the Dutch signed preliminaries of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle; Austria forced to assent, and by the end of 1748 the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was accepted by all the powers.

By the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle:

- (1) Austria: Francis I. acknowledged as Emperor; the Pragmatic Sanction again confirmed; the Catholic Netherlands recovered; Silesia, part of Lombardy, Parma and Piacenza lost.
- (2) France evacuated the Catholic Netherlands, which had been conquered by Marshal Saxe; acknowledged the Protestant succession in England, and undertook to expel the Pretender.
- (3) England received again the commercial advantages given by Spain by the Treaties of Utrecht [which were modified, 5 Oct., 1750], and the *status quo ante bellum* was restored in Asia and America; by this clause England recovered Madras, and France, Cape Breton.
- (4) Spain acknowledged the Emperor Francis I. and Don Philip received a principality in Italy.
- (5) The Dutch were confirmed in the right to garrison the barrier fortresses (see p. 67).
- (6) Don Philip of Spain, second son of Philip V. and Elizabeth Farnese, the younger brother of Don Carlos, King of Naples and Sicily, and son-in-law of Louis XV., received Parma, Piacenza and Guastalla, which were to revert to Austria on the failure of male heirs.

- (7) Charles Emmanuel III. recovered Savoy and Nice, and was confirmed in the possession of the districts of Lombardy ceded to him by the Treaty of Worms, with the exception of the duchy of Piacenza; this extended his eastern frontier to the Ticino.
- (8) Frederick the Great of Prussia was confirmed in the possession of Silesia.

The two states which profited most by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle were Prussia and Sardinia; France and Spain gained nothing; Austria lost less than might have been expected; England was saved from extinction in India.

After the close of the War of the Austrian Succession, Maria Theresa, dissatisfied with the sacrifice of Silesia, which England had imposed upon her, was ready to alter the policy of Austria; her one desire the recovery of Silesia.

Kaunitz (b. 1711, d. 1794): his character and policy; his suggestion of an alliance between France and Austria; sent to Versailles to accomplish this end (1749).

Louis XV. and his foreign policy: contrast between his avowed policy and his secret diplomacy; the influence of Madame de Pompadour (b. 1721, d. 1764); her dislike for Frederick the Great caused her to favor the new departure:

The relations between Austria and Spain: the character of Ferdinand VI. (1746-59); he entered into close alliance with Maria Theresa (1752); the relations between England and Austria; Maria Theresa attempted to revive the foreign commerce of the Catholic Netherlands, and thus offended the maritime powers of England and the United Provinces.

The relations between Austria and Russia: the Tsaritsa Elizabeth, owing to her dislike for Frederick the Great, allied herself with Maria Theresa.

The two issues which threatened to bring on a general war: (1) the desire of Maria Theresa to recover Silesia; (2) the rivalry between England and France in Asia and America.

The rivalry between France and England in India: the French and English supported opposing native princes in the Deccan and the Karnatik; the schemes of Dupleix; first successes of Clive; the defence of Arcot (1751); the recall of Dupleix (1754).

The rivalry between France and England in America: the defeat of Braddock (9 July, 1755).

Maria Theresa refused to assist England against France; Frederick the Great and George II., by the Convention of Westminster (16 January, 1756), made an alliance and guaranteed each other's territories.

Outbreak of war between England and France; Admiral Boscawen seized two French frigates (1755); attack on Minorca by the Duc de Richelieu (17 April, 1756); war formally declared by England (17 May); by France (9 June); surrender of Minorca (28 June).

Louis XV., disgusted at the alliance between Prussia and England, resolved to accept the propositions of Kaunitz; Madame de Pompadour assisted, and a secret treaty of alliance was signed between Austria and France (1 May, 1756).

Maria Theresa on this basis combined a general league against Frederick the Great, which was joined by the Tsaritsa Elizabeth of Russia, Augustus II. of Saxony and Poland, and other continental rulers.

Frederick the Great, hearing of these negotiations, invaded Saxony (26 Aug., 1756), and thus commenced the Seven Years' War.

The Emperor Francis declared that Frederick had exposed himself to penalties by thus attacking the Empire, and the Diet declared war against Prussia (January, 1757); the Tsaritsa Elizabeth made an offensive alliance with Austria against Prussia (2 Feb., 1757), and prepared an army; Sweden entered into alliance with France and Austria (21 Mar., 1757), and was promised eastern Pomerania; Bernis, who had made the secret treaty with Austria, concluded the second treaty of Versailles with Austria (1 May, 1757), and became Minister for Foreign Affairs of France (July).

Importance of the diplomatic revolution effected by Kaunitz; the classic policy of France from the time of Richelieu had been based on enmity against the House of Hapsburg; causes of this change of front; unpopularity of the Austro-French alliance in France; its effects upon Europe.

Authorities: The best secondary work on the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle is the Duc de Broglie, La paix d'Aix-la-Chapelle; for the diplomatic revolution see the Duc de Broglie, L'alliance autrichienne; R. Waddington, Louis XV. et le

renversement des alliances (1754-56), préliminaires diplomatiques de la guerre de sept ans; Von Arneth, Geschichte Maria Theresias, vol. iii., and Bernis, Mémoires et lettres, ed. Masson; for the struggle between the French and English in India, see Malleson, History of the French in India; and in America, Parkman, Half Century of Conflict; for the situation in Prussia, Carlyle, History of Frederick the Great, should be used with care, and more reliance can be placed on Tuttle, History of Prussia, vol. iii.; on Taysen, Zur Beurtheilung des siebenjährigen Krieges, and on Ranke, Der Ursprung des siebenjährigen Krieges; for Saxony, see Vitzthum, Die Geheimnisse des sächsischen Kabinets Ende 1745 bis Ende 1756; and for Russia, Vandal, Louis XV. et Elisabeth de Russie; for Austria, the works of Von Arneth, A. Wolf and G. Wolf, cited under Lecture 37, may still be used with Bentinck, Aufzeichnungen über Maria Theresia, mit einer Einleitung über die Æsterreichische Politik in 1749-55, ed. Beer; for Prussia, the works cited under Lecture 37, with Valory, Mémoires; and for France, with Barbier, D'Argenson, De Luynes, Duclos, and Rousset, Correspondance de Louis XV. et du maréchal de Noailles, should be consulted Madame de Pompadour, Correspondance, ed. Malassis; Campardon, Madame de Pompadour et la cour de Louis XV.; Goncourt, Madame de Pompadour; Broglie, Le secret du Roi; Rousset, Le comte de Gisors, and Boutaru, Correspondence secrète inédite de Louis XV.

LECTURE 39.

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.

The position of the powers of Europe at the outbreak of the Seven Years' War: difference of the aims of England and Prussia; the chief desire of Maria Theresa and the Tsaritsa Elizabeth was to humble Frederick the Great and to reduce the power of Prussia; the policy of France was not so much to defeat Prussia as to check the expansion of England.

The United Provinces, owing to the death of the Stadtholder, William IV. (1751), and the minority of his son, pursued a peace policy and declared neutrality.

England desired to fight at sea and in America and India, but was drawn into the continental war by the connection with Hanover; Pitt (b. 1707, d. 1778) perceived the solidarity of the struggle upon the Continent with the maritime and colonial war, and advocated vigorous

support of Frederick the Great; Prussia had to meet the assault of Austria, Russia, Sweden and France; excellence of the Prussian army; Frederick the Great as a statesman and a general.

The Seven Years' War: the campaign of 1756; Frederick the Great invaded Saxony (26 August) and occupied Dresden; the Saxon army surrounded at Pirna; the Austrians under Browne marched to their assistance; the battle of Lobositz (1 October); surrender of the whole Saxon army at Pirna (16 October); anger of Louis XV. at the attack on Saxony; capture of Oswego by Montcalm (14 August).

The campaign of 1757: scheme of an invasion of Prussia by the Austrians, French, Imperialists, Russians and Swedes; Frederick took the offensive and invaded Bohemia; he defeated the Austrians at Prague (6 May); Daun (b. 1705, d. 1766) advanced to the relief of Prague and defeated Frederick at Kolin (18 June); retreat of the Prussians from Bohemia; the French under D'Estrées defeated the Duke of Cumberland at Hastenbeck (26 July); Cumberland made the Convention of Kloster-zeven (10 September); the Russians under Apraxin defeated the Prussians under Lehwaldt at Gross-Jägerndorf (30 August) and conquered Ducal Prussia; the Imperialists with a French army under Soubise utterly defeated by Frederick the Great at Rossbach (5 November); the Russians retired and the Swedes were driven out of Pomerania; Frederick defeated the Austrians at Leuthen (5 December) and recovered the whole of Silesia; Pitt repudiated the Convention of Kloster-zeven, granted a subsidy to Frederick and placed an English and Hanoverian army under the command of Ferdinand of Brunswick (b. 1721, d. 1792); failure of an English expedition against Rochefort; Montcalm's capture of Fort William Henry (9 August).

Campaign of 1758: renewal of the alliances between England and Prussia, and between Austria, France and Russia; Choiseul (b. 1719, d. 1785) became chief minister of France and supported more strongly the Austro-French alliance; Fermor with a Russian army took Königsberg (21 Jan.); Frederick took Schweidnitz (16 April), and invaded Bohemia; forced to retreat to meet a Russian invasion; battle of Zorndorf (25 August) between Frederick and Fermor; Frederick defeated by the Austrians under Daun at Hochkirch (14 October); the Austrians retreated into Bohemia; Ferdinand of Brunswick drove the French out of Han-

over and Westphalia, crossed the Rhine, and defeated them at Crefeld (26 June); Amherst and Boscawen took Louisburg (26 July), but Abercromby was repulsed from Ticonderoga (8 July); occupation by the English of Fort Frontenac (27 Aug.) and of Fort Duquesne (25 Nov.); unsuccessful English attacks on the French coast at Saint-Malo, Cherbourg and Saint-Cast.

Campaign of 1759: the Russians under Soltikov defeated Wedell at Kay (23 July), took Frankfort-on-the-Oder, and were joined by the Austrian army under Loudon; Frederick utterly defeated at Kunersdorf by the Russians and Austrians (12 August); Saxony occupied by the Austrians and Imperialists; surrender of a Prussian army to Daun at Maxen (21 November); desperate position of Frederick the Great; Ferdinand of Brunswick defeated the French under Contades at Minden (1 August); English victories at sea: Boscawen defeated one French fleet at Lagos (17 August), and Hawke another off Quiberon (21 November); capture of Guadeloupe (20 April); Lally's failure to take Madras; the English took Fort Niagara (25 July) and Fort Ticonderoga (26 July); Wolfe defeated Montcalm, and took Quebec (18 September).

Campaign of 1760: Loudon (b. 1717, d. 1790) defeated the Prussians at Landeshut (23 June); defeated by Frederick at Liegnitz (15 August); the Russians and Austrians occupied Berlin; Frederick recovered his capital and defeated Daun at Torgau (3 November); Ferdinand of Brunswick kept the French out of Hanover and Westphalia, but his nephew was defeated by Broglie at Kloster-Camp (16 Oct.); Eyre Coote defeated the French at Wandewash (22 January), and overthrew the power of France in India; Amherst took Montreal (8 September), and completed the occupation of Canada; death of George II. of England (25 October).

Campaign of 1761: exhaustion of the nations engaged in the war; Loudon took Schweidnitz; Frederick fought no pitched battle; Ferdinand of Brunswick prevented Broglie from advancing; the Russians conquered Pomerania, but failed to take Stettin; the English captured Belle-Isle off the coast of France (7 June); capture of Pondicherry (15 Jan.); Choiseul signed the Pacte de Famille between France and Spain (15 Aug.); resignation of Pitt (5 Oct.).

Campaign of 1762: Spain declared war against England (16 January); the English took Martinique (13 Feb.); Grenada (4 March); Saint Vincent (Mar.); Havana (14 Aug.), and Manilla (6 Oct.); Bute became Prime Minister of England (26 May); he refused to continue paying subsidies to Frederick; death of the Tsaritsa Elizabeth of Russia (5 Jan.); her successor, Peter III., made an offensive and defensive alliance with Frederick (5 May); revolution at St. Petersburg (9 July); Peter III. overthrown by his wife, Catherine; she declared neutrality; Frederick took Schweidnitz (9 October); the Prussians invaded South Germany; the Diet of the Empire declared neutrality; negotiations for peace; a truce signed between Austria and Prussia.

The Seven Years' War concluded by the Treaties of Hubertsburg and Paris.

By the Treaty of Hubertsburg (15 February, 1763), the *status quo ante bellum* restored between Austria and Prussia; Silesia again guaranteed to Prussia; Frederick promised to vote for Joseph as King of the Romans and to evacuate Saxony.

By the Treaty of Paris (10 February, 1763), France ceded Canada, Cape Breton, Senegal, Tobago, Dominica, Saint Vincent, Grenada and the Grenadines, and restored Minorca, to England; Spain ceded Florida to England, in return for which France ceded Louisiana to Spain; the English restored Belle-Isle, Guadeloupe, Martinique and the settlements in India to France, and Havana and Manilla to Spain.

General results of the Seven Years' War; policy of Frederick the Great and its results; the policy of Pitt and its results.

Authorities: An excellent short book in English is Longman, Frederick the Great and the Seven Years' War; the volumes devoted to this period by Carlyle, in his History of Frederick the Great, are the most valuable in his book. For the military history of the war, see Geschichte des siebenjährigen Krieges, ed. the Prussian General Staff; Frederick the Great, Histoire de la guerre de Sept Ans; Lloyd, History of the late War in Germany; Jomini, Grand Military Operations; Tielcke, Beyträge zur Kriegskunst und Geschichte des Krieges von 1756 bis 1763; Archenholtz, Geschichte des siebenjährigen Krieges in Deutschland; Schöning, Der siebenjährige Krieg; Schäfer, Geschichte des siebenjährigen Krieges; Rambaud, Russes et Prussiens, guerre de Sept Aus; Hasenkamp, Ost-Preussen unter dem Doppelaar, historische Skizze der russischen Invasion in der Tagen des siebenjährigen Krieges; Immich, Die Schlacht bei Zorndorf; Malleson, Loudon;

ex.

Bernhardi, Friedrich der Grosse als Feldherr; Westphalen, Geschichte der Feldzüge des Herzogs Ferdinands von Braunschweig-Lüneburg; Renouard, Geschichte des Krieges in Hannover, Hessen und Westphalen; Valfons, Souvenirs; Rousset, Le comte de Gisors; Mention, Le comte de Saint-Germain, and Pajol, Les guerres sous Louis XV., vols. iv., v. For the diplomatic history of the war see the works cited under Lecture 38 with Duc de Broglie, Voltaire avant et pendant la guerre de Sept Ans; Filon, L'ambassade de Choiseul à Vienne en 1757-58; Bisset, Memoirs and Papers of Sir A. Mitchell; Bonhomme, Madame de Pompadour général d'armée; Ruville, Die Auflösung des preussisch-englischen Bundnisses im Jahre 1762, and Beaulieu-Marconnay, Der Hubertsburger Friede. For the policy of Pitt, see Stanhope, History of England from the Peace of Utrecht, vols. v.-vii. For the struggle in India, Malleson, History of the French in India, and in America Parkman, Montcalm and Wolfe.

LECTURE 40.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XV.

The internal government of France during the 18th century: the administrative machinery created in the 17th century retained without modification; the central government; the work of the intendants in the provinces; growth of the importance of the police; condition of Paris; introduction of lighting and fire-protection by Sartine.

The Court of Louis XV. and its influence on internal politics after the death of Fleury; its influence on foreign politics; the power of the king's mistresses; Madame de Châteauroux (1740-44); Madame de Pompadour (1745-64); the attempt of Damiens to murder the king (5 Jan., 1757); the Queen, Marie Leczinska (d. 1768); the Dauphin (b. 1729, d. 1765); his wives, Marie Thérèse of Spain and Marie Josèphe of Saxony; his three sons; the king's daughters; their circle and influence; typical courtiers; Richelieu, Maurepas, Nivernais.

The ministers of Louis XV.: their dependence on the Court and the mistresses; growth of ministerial families; constant changes of ministers; court intrigues; the most notable ministers from the death of Fleury to the dismissal of Choiseul; D'Aguesseau (1737-50) and La-

moignon (1750-68), Chancellors; Amelot (1737-44), René Louis, marquis d'Argenson (1744-47), Rouillé (1754-57), Bernis (1757-58), Choiseul (1758-61 and 1766-70), and Choiseul-Praslin (1761-66), Foreign Affairs; Machault (1745-54), Finances; Marc Pierre, comte d'Argenson (1742-57), Belle-Isle (1758-61), and Choiseul (1761-70), War; Maurepas (1723-49), Rouillé (1749-54), Machault (1754-57), Berryer (1758-61), Choiseul (1761-66), and Choiseul-Praslin (1766-70), Marine; Lieutenants-General of Police, Hérault (1725-40), Berryer (1747-57) and Sartine (1759-74).

The private foreign policy of the king, the "secret du Roi"; its conflict with the diplomacy of his ministers; the comte de Broglie.

The foreign policy of Choiseul: its chief features, the Pacte de Famille (1761) and the marriage of Marie Antoinette to the heir of France (16 May, 1770); popularity of the Spanish and unpopularity of the Austrian alliance in France; Favier; annexation of Lorraine on the death of Stanislas Leczinski (1766); purchase of Corsica from the Genoese (1768) and its conquest (1769); his policy in Poland and at Constantinople; the dismissal of Choiseul (24 Dec., 1770).

The weak points in the internal administration: confusion and mismanagement of the finances after the administrations of Orry and Machault; condition of the provinces; steady improvement in manufactures; prosperity of commerce with the West Indies; Bordeaux; success of the planters in San Domingo, the French Antilles and the Mauritius; abandonment of rivalry with the English in India; suspension of the French East India Company (1769); decline in the prosperity of agriculture; state control of the internal grain trade; the Pacte de Famine.

The part played by the Parlements and especially by the Parlement of Paris down to the time of the dismissal of Choiseul; exile of the Parlement (1753-54); the reforms of 13 Dec., 1756; the strength and weakness of the Parlements; their attempt to interfere in internal politics; their Jansenist proclivities cause them to support Choiseul against the Jc. Lits.

Affairs in Brittany: quarrels of the governor, D'Aiguillon, with the Estates of Brittany and the Parlement of Rennes; La Chalotais; resignation of the Parlement and arrest of La Chalotais (1765); triumph of the Estates and Parlement, and resignation of D'Aiguillon (1769).

The last mistress of Louis XV.: the career and character of Madame du Barry (b. 1746, d. 1793), and her influence; her presentation at Court (1769); the dismissal of Choiseul; France governed by D'Aiguillon, Terrai and Maupeou; the work of these ministers; D'Aiguillon, Minister of Foreign Affairs (1771–74); his foreign policy; position of France during the partition of Poland; its influence in the Russo-Turkish war; the financial policy of Terrai, Controller-General of the Finances (1769–74); he declared partial bankruptcy; Maupeou, Chancellor of France (1768), and the Parlements; he exiled the former judges and created the Parlements Maupeou (1771).

Degradation of the Court of France in the last days of Louis XV.;

his conduct destroyed the prestige of the French monarchy.

Condition of France during the reign of Louis XV.: its advance in material wealth; general improvement in education, the work of the Oratorians.

Rise of the French school of political economists known as the Physiocrats; their works drew attention to the importance of the agricultural interest; Quesnay; attempts made to improve agriculture; effect of the physiocratic theories on commerce; Vincent de Gournay; the works of the Marquis de Mirabeau.

Intellectual condition of France under Louis XV.: effect of the works of "the philosophes"; Voltaire and his influence; Diderot; the publication of the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*; Jean Jacques Rousseau; his influence on political and social ideas, and upon education; the *Contrat Social*, the *Profession de foi d'un Vicaire Savoyard*, the *Nouvelle Héloise* and *Émile*.

Position of affairs at the death of Louis XV. (10 May, 1774); weakness of the administrative machine: prosperity and intelligence of the middle classes; political insignificance of the nobility; condition of the Church; evil effect of privilege; general expectation of a new order of things inspired by the intellectual movement.

Authorities: Among secondary histories may be noted Voltaire, Siècle de Louis XV.; Lacretelle, Histoire de France pendant le XVIIIème siècle, 6 vols., and La France sous Louis XV., 6 vols., and Tocqueville, Histoire philosophique du règne de Louis XV. The memoirs dealing with the period are described in Aubertin, L'esprit public au XVIIIème siècle; among them may be particularly

noticed those of the Duc de Luynes, Président Hénault, D'Argenson, ed. Rathery, Barbier, Madame du Hausset, Pierre Narbonne, Dufort de Cheverny, Allonville, and Bachaumont (those of the Duc de Richelieu and the Souvenirs of Madame de Créqui are compilations) and Tilly, Souvenirs. Upon the finances, Stourm, Les Finances de l'ancien régime et de la Révolution, and Marion, Machault d'Arnouville, étude sur l'histoire du contrôle générale des finances de 1749 à 1754, may be consulted; on the Physiocrats, Higgs, The Physiocrats; Lavergne, Les économistes français au XVIIIième siècle; Schelle, Vincent de Gournay, and Dupont de Nemours et l'école physiocratique; Galiani, Correspondance, ed. Perey and Maugras: Turgot, Œuvres: and the writings of the Physiocrats, ed. Dupont de Nemours, 10 vols., or ed. Daire, 15 vols.; on the Pacte de Famine, Biollay, Le pacte de famine, and Afanassiev, Le commerce des céréales en France au XVIIIe siècle; on the secret diplomacy, Broglie, Le secret du Roi; Boutaric, Correspondance secrète de Louis XV.; Gaillardet, Mémoires sur la chevalière d'Éon, and Telfer, The Strange Career of the Chevalier d'Éon de Beaumont; on the policy of Choiseul, Soulange-Bodin, La diplomatie de Louis XV, et le Pacte de Famille, and Daubigny, Choiseul et la France d'Outre-mer après le traité de Paris; on local administration. Legrand, Senac de Meilhan et l'intendance du Hainaut; Dumas, La généralité de Tours au XVIIIe siècle; Carné, Les États de Bretagne; Carré, La Chalotais et le duc d'Aiguillon; Marion, La Bretagne et le duc d' Aiguillon (1753-1770); Mathieu, L'ancien régime dans la province de Lorraine, and D'Haussonville, Histoire de la réunion de la Lorraine à la France, vol. iv.; on the latter years of Louis XV., Vatel, Histoire de Madame Du Barry, and Flammermont, Le chancelier Maupeou et les Parlements; and on the king's court and his personality, Bonhomme, Louis XV. et sa famille; D'Armaillé, La reine Marie Leczinska; Emm. de Broglie, Le fils de Louis XV., Louis, Dauphin de France, (1729-1765); Barthélemy, Mesdames de France; Correspondance secrète entre Marie Thérèse et le comte de Mercy-Argenteau, ed. Arneth and Geffroy; Crétineau Joly, Histoire des trois derniers princes de la maison de Condé, and Maugras, Le duc de Lauzun et la cour intime de Louis XV.

X

LECTURE 41.

THE SUPPRESSION OF THE JESUITS.

The condition of the southern countries of Europe in the middle of the 18th century: their internal development under reforming kings or great ministers; influence exerted by the philosophic doctrines of the time towards religious toleration and general reform; altered attitude towards the Pope and the Church.

The Popes of the 18th century: Clement XI.—Albani—1700–1721; disputes with Victor Amadeus, King of Sicily; Innocent XIII.—Conti—1721–24; Benedict XIII.—Orsini—1724–30; he confirmed the condemnation of the Jansenists, and maintained the bull "Unigenitus" as an article of faith; his personal piety and amiability; rapacity and misgovernment of Cardinal Coscia; Clement XII.—Corsini—1730–40; punishment of Coscia; Renedict XIV.—Lambertini—1740–58; his skill as a statesman; his philosophical tendencies and moderation; his correspondence with Voltaire; his buildings at Rome; he died before the opposition to the Jesuits reached its height; Clement XIII.—Rezzonico—1758–69; his refusal to consent to the suppression of the Society of Jesus.

The general discontent in Roman Catholic countries caused by the commercial operations of the Jesuits; the Society ceased to be self-sacrificing and devoted to the Papacy; faults and virtues of the Jesuits in the 18th century.

The first attack on the Jesuits was directed by Pombal, who had become chief minister of Portugal under King Joseph; causes of Pombal's hatred of the Jesuits; they opposed his measures of reform; they monopolized what remained of Portuguese commerce with India, and they fought against the cession of Paraguay to Portugal; Pombal forbade the Jesuits to come to court without leave (1757); the Tavora plot (1758); Pombal deported the Jesuits to Italy (1759), and confiscated all their property in Portugal; Pope Clement XIII. defended the Jesuits; execution of Malagrida (1761).

The example of Pombal followed in other countries: (1) in France: discredit caused by the failure of Jesuit traders; Choiseul was supported by the Parlements, who remembered the persecution of the Jansenists; the Parlement of Paris condemned the constitutions of the Society (1761); abolition of the Society in France by a royal edict (1764); (2) in Spain: Charles III. banished the Jesuits from his kingdom (1767); (3) in Italy: the Jesuits expelled from Naples (1767) and Parma (1768).

Pope Clement XIII. defended the Society of Jesus; he attacked the weakest of their opponents, excommunicated the Duke of Parma, and

declared the duchy confiscated (1768); the Catholic powers supported Parma; the French occupied Avignon, and the Neapolitans Benevento and Ponte Corvo; Spain, the Two Sicilies, France and Portugal demanded the suppression of the Society of Jesus (Jan., 1769); death of Pope Clement XIII. (3 Feb., 1769).

Election of Pope Clement XIV.—Ganganelli—(19 May, 1769); his character and previous career; pressed by Cardinal Bernis on the part of France to suppress the Society of Jesus; difficulties of his position; reconciled to Parma and Portugal; the evacuation of Avignon and Benevento; eventually he issued a brief suppressing the Society of Jesus (27 July, 1773).

Effect upon Europe of the overthrow of the Jesuits; their suppression typical of the changed attitude of the Catholic powers towards the Pope and of the people towards the Catholic religion.

Attempts made to replace the Jesuits as a teaching organization; the Oratorians; Catherine II. protected and encouraged the Jesuits in the part of Poland which fell to her at the first partition; the Society continued to exist in Russia and Prussia.

Death of Clement XIV. (22 Sept., 1774); election of Pius VI.—Braschi (14 Feb., 1775).

Internal administration of the States of the Church under the Popes of the 18th century; condition of the Legations; Rome became the chief place of resort for wealthy travellers; effect upon Protestant countries of the increased tolerance of the Papacy.

Improved personal character of the Popes in the 18th century: decrease of personal and family ambition; disappearance of nepotism.

Significance of the suppression of the Society of Jesus as a typical act of the 18th century.

Authorities: For the suppression of the Jesuits see Crétineau-Joly, Histoire religieuse, politique et littéraire de la compagnie de Jésus, vols v., vi., and Le Pape Clement XIV.; Senac de Meilhan, Histoire abregée de l'expulsion des Jésuites; Saint-Priest, Histoire de la chute des Jésuites; Masson, Le cardinal de Bernis depuis son ministère (1758-94); Theiner, Histoire du pontificat de Clement XIV.; Von Reumont, Ganganelli, Papst Clemens XIV., seine Briefe und seine Zeit; Artaud, Histoire de Pie VI., and Crousaz-Crétet, L'Église et l'État (1715-89).

LECTURE 42.

THE FIRST PARTITION OF POLAND.

The internal history of Russia from the death of Peter the Great: formation of two opposing parties, of which one desired to continue the progress in Western civilization commenced by Peter, and the other desired to recur to the old Russian customs and system of government; the Church, the nobles and the mass of the population favored throughout the century a reaction against Peter's innovations; it was due to the personal character of successive rulers that Russia was further developed on Western lines.

Both the Tsaritsa Anne (1730), and the Tsaritsa Elizabeth (1741), were raised to the throne of Russia because they were believed to be in sympathy with old Russian ideas, and it was expected that they would leave the control of affairs to the Russian nobles, but both Tsaritsas, when firmly established, carried on the system of Peter the Great in internal government.

Although the Russians disliked the Western system and the employment of foreigners introduced by Peter the Great, they enthusiastically believed in his foreign policy and in the ideas he had formed for the expansion of Russia; the foreign policy of the government was popular or unpopular in so far as it adhered to or departed from the lines laid down by Peter the Great.

The foreign policy of the Tsaritsa Elizabeth (1741–62): influence of La Chétardie, the French ambassador (1741–44); her alliance with Maria Theresa (1746), to whom she sent an army (1748); her hatred for Frederick the Great of Prussia; the director of her policy, the Chancellor Bestushev (1744–58): his Austrian sympathies; part of Russia in the Seven Years' War; open partisanship of the Grand Duke Peter for Frederick the Great, and of his wife the Grand Duchess Catherine for England; overthrow of Bestushev (1758); the administration of the Chancellor Voróntsov (1758–67).

The internal government of the Tsaritsa Elizabeth: her character and her court; her lovers; Lestocq, Razumovski, Ivan Shuválov; intolerance and revival of religious persecution; French took the place of German influence at the Russian Court; the Grand Duchess Catherine and the Shuválovs and Voróntsovs; Ivan Shuválov founded the University of Moscow (1755).

The Tsaritsa Elizabeth succeeded by her nephew, Peter III., Duke of Holstein-Gottorp (5 Jan., 1762); unpopularity of Peter as a foreigner and adherent of foreign ideas; Peter III. overthrown by his wife Catherine (9 July, 1762).

Murder of Peter III. (17 July); the character of this revolution; character of Catherine (b. 1729); unsoundness of her title; attempt to bring forward the Tsar Ivan VI. from his prison (see p. 98); his murder (16 July, 1764).

The Tsaritsa Catherine II. desired to emphasize her belief in the-policy of Peter the Great; to satisfy the Old Russian party, she resolved to pursue an aggressive policy in Poland; the popularity of this policy in Russia; Catherine showed her intention of interfering in Polish affairs by reinstating Biren in Courland (Jan., 1763); Charles of Saxony, son of the King of Poland, who had been Duke of Courland since 1758, forced to retire (27 Apr., 1763).

Attitude of Frederick the Great towards Poland: /he desired to unite Royal Prussia to his dominions; this had been a keynote of Hohenzollern policy since the proposal of Frederick I. to Peter the Great to dismember Poland 2 further, Frederick was afraid that Saxony and Poland might be permanently united, and thus counterbalance the power of Prussia.

The attitude of Maria Theresa towards Poland: her determination that Russia and Prussia should not divide Poland without giving her a portion; she was urged in this direction by her son Joseph II., who had become Emperor in 1765.

Condition of Poland: its poverty and bad government under the Saxon kings; the Roman Catholic majority persecuted the Protestants and the Greek Church; non-Catholics excluded from sitting in the Diet (1719), and from all political rights (1733).

The two parties in Poland: the Pro-Saxon and the Anti-Saxon parties; Louis XV. supported the Pro-Saxon party owing to the marriage of the Dauphin to a Saxon princess; the candidature of Conti.

Death of Augustus II., King of Poland (5 Oct., 1763); his death fol-

lowed by that of his eldest son (17 Dec., 1763); Frederick Augustus, who succeeded as Elector of Saxony, was too young to obtain the throne of Poland.

Election of Stanislas Poniatovski (b. 1732, d. 1798) as King of Poland (7 Sept., 1764), by the influence of Russia and Prussia; Frederick and Catherine had made a defensive alliance for this purpose, in which they guaranteed the constitutions of Poland and Sweden (11 Apr., 1764).

The reign of Stanislas Poniatovski: he endeavored in vain to persuade the Diet to revoke the decree of 1733, and to admit non-Catholics to office (1766); the Confederation of Radom; the reforms of 1768; Catherine declared her intention of maintaining the Polish constitution.

Opposition to the interference of Russia: formation of the Confederation of Bar (28 Feb., 1769); Choiseul desired to support the Confederation of Bar, and incited the Turks to attack Russia; the Russians marched against the Confederates of Bar; resistance of Pulaski; war between the patriotic Poles and the Russians fighting in the name of King Stanislas (1768–72); help sent by Choiseul; the missions of Taulès (1768), Châteaufort (1769), Dumouriez (1770) and Viomesnil (1771); attempt to carry off the King (Nov., 1771); the Confederation of Bar overthrown by Russian, Prussian and Austrian troops.

The Russo-Turkish war; the Turks declared war against Russia (6 Oct., 1768); the Russians conquered Moldavia (1769); Wallachia (1770); and the Crimea (1771); a Russian fleet under Alexis Orlov sailed around into the Mediterranean and incited the Greeks to rebel; the Turkish fleet destroyed at Tchesmé (7–8 July, 1770).

Frederick the Great proposed the partition of Poland; his agreement with the Emperor Joseph II. at Neiss (Aug., 1769); the proposition made to the Tsaritsa Catherine.

The negotiations for the partition of Poland (1770-72); a final agreement made by the Treaty of St. Petersburg (25 July, 1772); the Polish Diet forced to consent to the partition treaty (18 Sept., 1773).

By the first partition of Poland: (1) Frederick received Royal Prussia, with the exception of Dantzig and Thorn, thus connecting his eastern dominions with Brandenburg; (2) Maria Theresa received the county of Zips, Lodomeria and Red Russia; (3) Russia received Polish Livonia

and Lithuania to the east of the Dwina and the Dnieper; while (4) Stanislas Poniatovski remained ruler of the diminished central district as King of Poland.

The respective advantages gained by the three powers in the first partition of Poland.

Conclusion of the Russo-Turkish war: campaign of 1773; death of the Sultan, Mustapha III. (25 Dec., 1773); campaign of 1774; victories of the Russians under Rumiantsov; Treaty of Kutschuk Kainardji (21 July, 1774); the Russians restored Moldavia and Wallachia, but retained Azov and Kinburn; the Tartars of the Crimea declared independent of Turkey; Russian ships allowed free passage through the Dardanelles and on the Danube; Russia acknowledged as the protector of the Danubian principalities; the Austrians occupied the Bukovina, which was ceded to them by the Turks (7 May, 1775).

Effect of the partition of Poland and of the Treaty of Kutschuk Kainardji upon the position of the Tsaritsa Catherine II.

Authorities: The best small book on this subject is Sorel, La Question d'Orient au XVIIIième Siècle. The most important secondary works are Karéef, Les causes de la chute de la Pologne (Revue Historique, 1891); Saint-Priest. Études diplomatiques, vol. i., Partage de la Pologne; Herrmann, Die oesterreichisch-preussische Allianz und die Theilung Polens; Beer, Die erste Theilung Polens, and Friedrich II. und Van Swieten; De Smitt, Frédéric II., Catherine et le partage de la Pologne; Michael, Englands Stellung zur ersten Theilung Polens: Von der Brüggen, Polens Auflösung; Schlözer, Friedrich der Grosse und Katharina die Zweite; Janssen, Zur Genesis der ersten Theilung Polens; Gross-Hoffinger, Die Theilung Polens; Röpell, Polen um die Mitte des XVIII. Jahrhunderts : Barral, Études sur l'histoire diplomatique de l'Europe ; Bonneville de Marsangy, Le Chevalier de Vergennes, son ambassade à Constantinople, and Broglie, Le secret du Roi. The celebrated work of Rulhière, Histoire de l'anarchie de Pologne et du démembrement de cette république, was lest unfinished and only goes to 1770; it was continued in much inferior style by Ferrand, Les trois démembrements de la Pologne. Among primary authorities see Stanislas Poniatovski, Mémoires secrètes et intimes, and Correspondance avec Madame Geoffrin, ed. De Mouy; Viomesnil, Lettres particulières sur les affaires de Pologne (1771-2), ed. Grimoard: Dumouriez, Mémoires, and Angeberg, Recueil des traités, conventions, et actes diplomatiques concernant la Pologne (1762-1862), in addition to the documents in the Shornik and the Politische Korrespondenz Friedrich's des Grossen.

LECTURE 43.

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

Interest taken in Europe in the struggle of the American colonists for independence: unpopularity of England on the Continent; France and Spain desired to revenge themselves for the humiliations of the Seven Years' War and the Peace of Paris; Austria was bound to France by the treaty of 1756; Frederick the Great of Prussia was disgusted by the way in which he had been deserted by England after the fall of Pitt; Catherine of Russia was jealous of the commercial pretensions of England; the republican party in the Protestant Netherlands, in its opposition to the House of Orange and to England, desired to help the American colonists.

Enthusiasm in France for the cause of American liberty: La Fayette and other volunteers joined Washington (1777); Vergennes, Minister of Foreign Affairs in France from 1774, took advantage of this enthusiasm against England; treaty of alliance signed between France and the United States (6 Feb., 1778); Turgot and Necker opposed to war for financial reasons; neglect of the effect which assistance to a republican movement might have in France itself; commencement of war between England and France (June, 1778).

Spain commenced war against England (June, 1779); causes for this action; influence of the Pacte de Famille.

The position in the United Provinces: war declared by England against the Dutch (20 Dec., 1780).

Attitude of the Tsaritsa Catherine: formation of the Armed Neutrality or Neutral League of the North; Catherine's declaration (9 Mar., 1780) acceded to by Denmark (9 July 1780), Sweden (1 Aug., 1780), the Dutch (4 Jan., 1781), Prussia (19 May, 1781), Austria (9 Oct., 1781), Portugal (24 July, 1782), and the Two Sicilies (21 Feb., 1783).

Complete isolation of England during the War of American Independence; her internal troubles; weakness of overnment; danger threatened in Ireland; England's fall from the great position she had occupied during the ministry of Pitt; England's only resources her

naval efficiency and wealth; her naval supremacy threatened by the new French and Spanish navies created by Choiseul and Sartine, by Aranda and O'Reilly.

England's efforts to extend the war against France to Europe, in connection with the question of the Bavarian Succession, frustrated by the policy of Vergennes and the Treaty of Teschen (13 May, 1779).

Owing to the absence of a base of operations on the Continent, the war was essentially naval.

Campaign of 1778: the battle off Ushant between Keppel and D'Orvilliers (27 July); a French fleet under D'Estaing came to the help of the American colonists; Bouillé took Dominica (8 Sept.); the English took Saint Lucia (14 Dec.) and Pondicherry (17 Oct.).

Campaign of 1779: Spain commenced war and a French and Spanish army and fleet laid siege to Gibraltar; Eliott's defence of Gibraltar; D'Estaing took Saint Vincent (19 June) and Grenada (4 July); defeated in an attack on Savannah (9 Oct.); D'Orvilliers with a French and Spanish fleet commanded the Channel, but failed to effect a landing in England; failure of Nassau-Siegen's expedition against Jersey (1 May); the French took Senegal (30 Jan.-6 Mar.), and the English took Goree, on the west coast of Africa; the English took Mahé, in India.

Campaign of 1780: Rodney relieved Gibraltar and defeated the Spaniards off Cape Saint Vincent (16 Jan.); Rochambeau arrived in America with a French army; naval battles in the West Indies between De Guichen and Rodney (17 April, 15, 19 May); Haidar Ali overran the Presidency of Madras and asked for French help.

Campaign of 1781: Rodney took Saint Eustatia (3 Feb.); Bouillé took Tobago (2 June); De Grasse by sea and Rochambeau on land coöperated with Washington in forcing the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown (19 Oct.); battle between the English and Dutch off the Doggerbank (5 Aug.); Bouillé took Saint Eustatia (26 Nov.); defeat of Haidar Ali by Eyre Coote at Porto Novo (7 July).

Campaign of 1782: the Spaniards took Minorca (5 Feb.); Bouillé took Saint Kitts (12 Feb.); Rodney (b. 1717, d. 1792) won a great victory over De Grasse (12 Apr.); Howe relieved Gibraltar (18 Oct.); series of battles between De Suffren and Hughes off the coast of India; Bussy took command of a French force in India; death of Haidar Ali (7 Dec.).

General weariness of the war: retirement of Lord North (20 March, 1782); the new English ministry resolved to recognize the independence of the American colonies; preliminaries of peace signed with the United States (30 Nov., 1782), with France and Spain (20 Jan. 1783); signature of the Treaty of Versailles (3 Sept., 1783), accepted later by the Dutch.

Terms of the Treaty of Versailles: England recognized the independence of the United States, restored Minorca and Florida to Spain, and ceded Tobago and Saint Lucia, Senegal and Goree, to France; the status quo ante bellum restored in India, except that England obtained Negapatam from the Dutch.

Results of the War of American Independence: weakening of England by her colonial losses and the belief that her naval supremacy had gone forever; increase in the confusion of the finances of France; spread of a current of opinion favorable to self-government and opposed to monarchy.

Foreign policy of the younger Pitt, who had become Prime Minister of England in 1784, during the first years of his administration.

Authorities: Stevens, Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives; the Diplomatic Correspondence of the American Revolution ed. Wharton; Franklin, Works; Adams, Works; Lecky, History of England in the 18th Century; Mahan, Influence of Sea Power in History; Doniol, Histoire de la participation de la France à la libération des États-Unis d'Amérique; Balch, Les Français en Amérique pendant la guerre de l'indépendance des États-Unis; Chevalier, Histoire de la marine française pendant la guerre de l'indépendance américaine; Fauchille, La diplomatie française et la ligue des neutres de 1780; Bergbohm, Die bewaffnete Neutralität (1780-3); Andrews, History of the War with America, France, Spain and Holland, in 1775-83; Mundy, Life of George, Lord Rodney; Drinkwater, The Three Sieges of Gibraltar; Sayer, History of Gibraltar, and Malleson, Final French Struggles in India.

LECTURE 44.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XVI.

Character of Louis XVI. (b. 1754): his attitude towards measures of internal reform; his interest in naval affairs; his attitude towards for-

eign politics; his personal relations with the Emperor Joseph; Marie Antoinette (b. 1755); her influence in internal and foreign politics.

Maurepas (b. 1701), Chief Minister (1774-81); his character and career; recall of the Parlements (12 Nov., 1774); the colleagues of Maurepas; Vergennes (1774-87), Foreign Affairs; Turgot (1774-76), Necker (1776-81), Finances; Saint-Germain (1775-77), Montbarrey (1777-80), Maréchal de Ségur (1780-87), War; Sartine (1774-80), Castries (1780-87), Marine.

The administration of the army: reforms of Saint-Germain; writings of Guibert; improvements in organization; the military schools; organization of the artillery by Gribeauval; formation of the general staff (1783); decree of 22 May, 1781, excluding all but nobles from commissions in the army.

The administration of the navy: the vigor of Sartine in ship building; foundation of Cherbourg (1779); the regulations of Castries.

The foreign policy of Vergennes (b. 1717): his attitude towards f the Spanish and the Austrian alliances.

Vergennes and the smaller states of Europe: Vergennes and Sweden; Vergennes and Italy; Vergennes and the Turks; embassies of Saint-Priest (1768-84), and of Choiseul-Gouffier (1784-92); the treaty of 1779 by which the Turks gave free navigation in the Black Sea to the Russians, and the Convention of 1784 by which they recognized the annexation of the Crimea to Russia.

Vergennes and Russia: joint mediation for the <u>Treaty of Teschen</u> (1779); the <u>Armed Neutrality (1780)</u>; visit of the Grand Duke Paul to Paris (1782); the embassy of Ségur (1784-89); the commercial treaty of 1787; Vergennes' attitude towards Joseph II. and Frederick the Great.

The part taken by France against England during the War of American Independence; Vergennes induced Spain to commence war against England; gains made by France by the Treaty of Versailles (1783); conclusion of a commercial treaty between England and France (1786).

Vergennes and the Dutch: his intervention in the dispute between Joseph II. and United Provinces; by his mediation the Treaty of Fontainebleau was signed (10 Nov., 1875); his attitude in the troubles between the Stadtholder and "the Patriots."

Death of Vergennes (13 Feb. 1787); ability shown by Vergennes in concealing the real weakness of France; Vergennes succeeded as Minister for Foreign Affairs by Montmorin.

Internal administration during the reign of Louis XVI.: influence of the Court; extravagance of Marie Antoinette; her unpopularity at Court and among the people.

The reforms of Turgot (b. 1727, d. 1781): his previous career and economic ideas; his attempts to reform the financial administration; opposition to his schemes; he established internal free trade in grain (13 Sept., 1774), and attacked all restrictions on freedom of labor and freedom of trade; his decrees replacing the corvée, or forced labor on the roads, by a tax and abolishing guilds passed in spite of the opposition of the Parlement of Paris (12 March, 1776); his desire to overthrow the relics of feudalism and to improve agriculture; his scheme of national education; the work of Malesherbes (1775–76); dismissal of Turgot (13 May, 1776).

The financial administration of Necker (b. 1732, d. 1804): his endeavors to draw up a balance sheet for France; his financial methods and proposed reforms; excitement caused by the publication of the Compte Rendu; dismissal of Necker (19 May, 1781).

Attempt at improving local administration; formation of Provincial Assemblies for Berry (1778), Upper Guienne (1779) and the Bourbonnais (1780).

The financial administrations of Joly de Fleury and D'Ormesson (1781-83).

The financial administration of Calonne (b. 1734, d. 1802): his system of loans; his propositions for increased taxation; increase of the deficit; convocation of the Assembly of Notables (1787); first mention of summoning a States-General; dismissal of Calonne (8 April, 1787).

Administration of Loménie de Brienne (b. 1727, d. 1794): his struggle with the Parlements; his measures of reform: excitement in France at the exile of the Parlements; the Assembly at Vizille (21 July, 1788); promise of a speedy convocation of the States-General; dismissal of Loménie de Brienne (25 Aug., 1788).

Second adminstration of Necker: his preparations for the elections to the States-General; second meeting of the Notables (Nov., 1788).

Attitude of the King, Queen and the Court during these years; growing unpopularity of the Queen; the affair of the Diamond Necklace (1784-85).

Increasing demand for reform in France: general desire to remodel the administrative system and submit it to some degree of popular control; the financial condition precipitated a political crisis; the King and his ministers looked upon the States-General as a financial expedient; the people, as the commencement of political and administrative reform.

Position of France at home and abroad on the eve of the French Revolution.

Authorities: Most histories of the French Revolution begin with a sketch of the reign of Louis XVI. and all studies of the causes of the French Revolution and accounts of the Ancien Régime describe the condition of France during his reign. Of general secondary works, reference may be made to Jobez, La France sous Louis XVI.; Droz, Histoire du règne de Louis XVI.; Chérest, La chute de l'ancien régime; Tratchevsky, La France et l'Allemagne sous Louis XVI., and Tocqueville, Coup d'œil sur le règne de Louis XVI. Of a more special character are: Correspondance secrète entre Marie Thérèse et Mercy-Argenteau, ed. Arneth and Geffroy; Mention, Le comte de Saint-Germain et ses réformes: Barral-Montferrat, Dix ans de paix armée entre la France et l'Angleterre (1783-93); Ségur-Dupeyron, Histoire des négociations commerciales et maritimes de la France, vol. iii : Lord Auckland, Journal and Correspondence ; Foncin, Essai sur le ministère de Turgot; Neymarck, Turgot et ses doctrines; Tissot, Étude sur Turgot; Condorcet, Vie de Turgot; Necker, Œuvres; Lavergne, Les Assemblées provinciales sous Louis XVI., and Loménie, Beaumarchais et son temps; La Rocheterie, Histoire de Marie Antoinette; Campardon, Marie Antoinette et le procès du collier : Renée, Louis XVI. et sa cour ; Louis XVI., Journal, ed. Nicolardot, and Lanzac de Laborie, Jean Jacques Mounier. Among primary authorities see the Memoires of Besenval, Weber, Augeard, Madame Campan, Montbarrey, Segur and Thiébault, and the Souvenirs of D'Hézecques.

LECTURE 45.

PRUSSIA UNDER FREDERICK THE GREAT.

Ruined condition of the dominions of Frederick the Great after the close of the Seven Years' War.

The internal administration of Frederick: his measures for restoring prosperity; paternal government; Frederick's attitude towards agriculture, manufactures and commerce; his attempt to improve farming; distribution of seeds and introduction of the potato; his encouragement of colonists; establishment of "land-banks"; his East India Company; Frederick regarded the material prosperity of his people as the chief end of the administration.

Frederick's conception of monarchy: his understanding of the "Aufgeklärte Despotismus"; he held that his absolutism could be justified only by earnest work for the good of his people.

The administrative machinery created by Frederick the Great: following his father's example, he confided the administration to a bureaucracy composed of men of the middle class and dependent entirely upon himself; comparison between the French and the Prussian bureaucracies: the former hindered, while the latter promoted, general prosperity at the close of the 18th century, because Prussia was more backward in civilization than France.

Frederick the Great's attitude towards his nobility: he employed nobles in the army rather than in the civil service, and formed them into a military caste.

Frederick the Great and serfdom: he maintained the authority of the nobles upon their estates as part of the compensation for excluding them from political power and as an inducement to them to continue their services in the army; but he endeavored to abolish or reduce the harshness of serfdom on the royal domains.

Frederick the Great and the Prussian army: he perceived that the very existence of Prussia depended upon the efficiency of the army; he therefore devoted his attention to the maintenance of a standing army of 200,000 men, a force disproportionate to the size and population of his dominions; the excellence and the weakness of the Prussian army during the latter years of Frederick's reign; his camps of exercise; perfection of drill and discipline maintained in the Prussian army; Frederick's system imitated in other countries.

Admiration felt in Germany for the administrative and military system of Frederick the Great; he was thus enabled to draw upon the whole of Germany for able servants, and the Prussian idea of government penetrated beyond the borders of Prussia.

Contrast between the absolutism of Louis XIV. of France and of Frederick the Great of Prussia: Louis XIV. said, "I am the State"; Frederick the Great said, "I am the first servant of the State".

Frederick the Great considered as a typical enlightened despot of the 18th century: (1) his great public works, as the making of canals and roads, the draining of marshes and the improvement of Berlin; (2) his endeavors to simplify and codify the system of laws in the Codex Fredericiana, the work of the Chancellor Cocceji; (3) he discouraged all idea of local or municipal self-government; (4) he insisted upon absolute toleration of religious worship while ready to pose as the protector of Protestantism; (5) he established a system of compulsory primary education.

Frederick the Great differed from the other enlightened despots in his neglect of national higher education and in his refusal to adopt sound economic ideas in collecting his revenue; no general advance in intellectual development or in material prosperity is therefore to be perceived during his reign.

The foreign policy of Frederick the Great may be considered as national and as German; after the close of the Seven Years' War he abandoned all hope of a close alliance with England and entered into intimate relations with Catherine II. of Russia; with her help he carried out the first partition of Poland, and thus united Prussia with Brandenburg territorially; close alliance with Russia the keynote of Frederick the Great's later national policy; Frederick the Great joined the Armed Neutrality started by the Tsaritsa Catherine against England (1781).

Frederick the Great's German policy: his relations with Maria Theresa and the Emperor Joseph II.; the War of the Bavarian Succession, or "Potato War"; on the death of Maximilian Joseph, Elector of Bavaria (30 Dec., 1777), the succession passed to the Elector Palatine, Charles Theodore, who was induced to cede eastern Bavaria to Austria in return for a guarantee of the rest; Frederick the Great intervened, basing his interference on the rights of the Princes of the Empire; a Prussian army invaded Bohemia (1778), but no battle took place; France, engaged in the War of American Independence against England, declined to interfere to help Austria, and eventually, under the mediation of France and Russia, the Bavarian question was settled by the Treaty of Teschen (13 May, 1779).

By the Treaty of Teschen, Charles, Duke of Zweibrücken, or Deux-Ponts, was recognized as heir to both the electorates of the childless Charles Theodore; Austria received the district between Passau and Salzburg, called "the Quarter of the Inn"; the Elector of Saxony was was given 6,000,000 florins; while Frederick the Great was guaranteed the succession to Anspach and Baireuth.

The schemes of Joseph II. upon Bavaria induced Fre 'erick the Great at the close of his reign once more to stand forth as defender of the rights of the Empire; Joseph II. proposed to cede the Catholic Netherlands to Charles Theodore in exchange for Bavaria; to thwart this scheme Frederick the Great in 1785 formed the Fürstenbund, or League of Princes, for the maintenance of the constitution of the Empire as established by the Treaties of Westphalia; Joseph II. forced to abandon his scheme.

Death of Frederick the Great (17 Aug., 1786).

Extension of the Hohenzollern dominions during his reign; annexation of Silesia (1742); succession to East Friesland (1744) under a grant of the Emperor Joseph I. to Frederick I., and acquirement of Royal Prussia at the first partition of Poland (1773).

Increase of the power of Prussia during his reign; Prussia ceased to be merely a German state and became an European power.

Prussia was, after the battle of Rossbach, the state to which believers in the unity of Germany looked for inspiration and guidance.

Character of Frederick the Great: he was the typical monarch of the 18th as Louis XIV. was of the 17th century.

Authorities: For the internal development of Prussia during the reign of Frederick the Great, see the general works by Berner, Stenzel, Droysen, Ranke, Philippson and Cavaignac, cited under Lecture 36, with the special works on Frederick by Koser and others, cited under Lectures 37, 38, 39 and 41, and Oncken, Das Zeitalter Friedrichs des Grossen; Lavisse, Études sur l'histoire de Prusse; Reimann, Abhandlungen zur Geschichte Friedrichs des Grossen. On his idministration see Bornhak, Isaacsohn, Stadelmaun, vol. ii, cited under Lecture 36; Grünhagen, Schlesien unter Friedrich den Grossen; Grünberg, Die Bauernbefreiung in Böhmen, Mähren, und Schlesien; Bornhak, Die Bauernbefreiung und die Gutsherrlichkeit in Preussen; Knapp, Die Bauernbefreiung und der Ursprung der Landarbeiter in den alteren Theilen Preussens: Trendelenburg, Friedrich der Grosse und sein Grosskanzler Samuel von Cocceji; Holtze, Geschichte des Kammer-

gerichts in Brandenburg-Preussen, and Ring, Asiatische Handlungscompagnien Friedrichs des Grossen. The primary authorities are Frederick's own Works, his Politische Korrespondenz, ed. Koser, etc., and the State Papers published by the Prussian government. For his latter years see Reimann, Geschichte des Bairischen Erbfolgekrieges; Beer, Zur Geschichte des Bairischen Erbfolgekrieges (Historische Zeitschrift, vol. xxxv.); Saint-Priest, Études diplomatiques, vol. i. Le Congrès de Teschen; Taysen, Die militärische Thätigkeit Friedrichs des Grossen während seines letzten Lebensjahres; Ranke, Die Deutschen Mächte und der Fürstenbund (in his Werke, vols. xxxi, xxxii); G. Wolf, Esterreich und Preussen, 1780-90; Schmidt, Geschichte der Preussisch-Deutschen Unionsbestrebungen; Erdmannsdörffer, Aus den Zeiten des Deutschen Fürstenbundes, and C. W. von Dohm, Denkwürdigkeiten, and Über den Deutschen Fürstenbund. For his personality, see in addition to Carlyle, History of Frederick the Great; Lavisse, La jeunesse du grand Frédéric, and Le grand Frédéric avant l'avénement; Rigollot. Frédéric II., philosophe; Zeller, Friedrich der Grosse als Philosoph; Cauer, Friedrichs des Grossen Gedanken über die fürstliche Gewalt; Thiébault, Mes souvenirs de vingt ans de séjour à Berlin; Margravine of Baireuth, Memoirs; Pöllnitz, Memoirs; De Catt, Memoiren, ed. Koser, and Desnoiresterres, Voltaire et Frédéric II. For a contemporary account of the actual condition of Prussia and the working of the government, see Mirabeau (and Mauvillon), De la Monarchie prussienne sous Frédéric le Grand.



LECTURE 46.

RUSSIA UNDER CATHERINE THE GREAT.

Catherine the Great's administration of the Russian Empire: she followed the ideas of Peter the Great in ruling through a bureaucratic system entirely dependent upon the will of the ruler and consisting chiefly of foreigners, but she preserved the attachment of the Russian people by meeting the national wishes for territorial expansion.

Catherine summoned an assembly from all parts and all classes of the Empire to draw up a code of laws (1766-68), but Russia was not sufficiently advanced in civilization for such a benefit.

Catherine's reforms in internal administration; the Empire divided into forty-four governments, in the place of the eight of Peter the

Great; subdivision into districts; the assemblies of the nobility; liberal treatment of the towns, which were given muncipal independence; formation of courts of justice for the nobles, the bourgeois and the free peasants in each district and government, with final appeal to the Senate; resumption of the lands and serfs of the Church, the profits from which, after payment of the monks, were used for educational and charitable purposes; general religious tolerance shown even to Muhammadans and Jesuits.

Catherine's great public works: she made canals and improved agriculture and means of communication; she encouraged commerce and manufactures; her commercial treaties with England and France; establishment of German colonies; foundation of new cities.

Catherine and the intellectual development of Russia: she founded the Russian Academy (1783) and encouraged foreigners to visit and describe her country; like Frederick the Great, she kept in touch with the intellectual movement of Western Europe; her friendship with Diderot and correspondence with Grimm.

Attitude of Catherine towards serfdom: she endeavored to regulate but not abolish it; she forbade the public sale of serfs or the separation of families; the case of Daria Soltikov.

Catherine's method of government: she kept the direction of affairs in her own hands; her diligence and insight; her attitude towards her ministers and her lovers.

Catherine and her Court: she made use of her discarded lovers in the management of affairs; the importance of the Orlovs (1762-72), and of Potemkin (1774-76); her wisdom in selecting her lovers from among the Russians and not from foreigners; her last lover, Zubov (1789-96).

Catherine's zeal in carrying out the plans of Peter the Great and in fulfilling the ambitions of the Russian people in foreign politics kept the Russians, and even the members of the Old Russian party, faithful to her in spite of her being a German and of her maintenance of Western ideas; her adherence to Russian ideals necessary for the maintenance of her power.

The foreign policy of Catherine the Great (1762-80) marked by alliances with England and Prussia; treaty of commerce with England (1766); the administration of Panin; the partition of Poland (1773),

and first Turkish war (1768-74); Catherine remained on good terms with Frederick the Great, and expected the assistance of Prussia in the further partition of Poland, but she began to look to Austria for assistance in the final overthrow of the Turks.

Catherine and Germany: first interference of Russia in a purely German matter at the time of the War of the Bavarian Succession (1778); Catherine declared for the maintenance of the rights of the Princes of the Empire; her joint mediation with France brought about the Treaty of Teschen (13 May, 1779).

Catherine's change of attitude towards England and France; the Armed Neutrality (1780); administration of foreign affairs entrusted to Bezborodko (1781); the embassy of Ségur (1784-89); treaty of commerce with France (1787).

Catherine and Joseph II.: the interview at Mohilev (May, 1780); Catherine, believing the Turkish question more pressing than the Polish question, entered into a close alliance with Austria; Joseph II. agreed, in the hope of separating Russia from Prussia; gradual alienation of Catherine from Prussia; effect of the death of Frederick the Great (1786).

The policy of Potemkin (b. 1736, d. 1791): after being the lover of Catherine from 1774 to 1776, he became her chief executive agent and practically independent ruler of southern Russia; he desired to overthrow the Turks and conquer Constantinople; the Turks, by the intervention of Vergennes, permitted the Russians free navigation in the Black Sea (1779).

Potemkin put down the rising of Cossacks and Tartars under Pugatchev (1774), and in 1783 conquered the Crimea, which had been declared an independent state by the Treaty of Kutschuk Kainardji; the annexation of the Crimea to Russia recognized by the Turkish Sultan, through the influence of the French ambassador at Constantinople (11 Jan. 1784); Catherine's famous journey to the Crimea (1787); Catherine proposed a Quadruple Alliance of Russia, Austria, France and Spain.

The Turks declared war against Russia (16 Aug., 1787); Joseph II. came to the help of Russia (9 Feb., 1788).

Campaign of 1787: Suvórov (b. 1729, d. 1800) repulsed the Turkish attack on the Crimea.

Campaign of 1788: the Austrians under Loudon took Dubitza and Novi-Bazar (3 Oct.), and under Coburg, with the help of the Russians, occupied Moldavia and took Choczim (19 Sept); defeat and flight of the Austrian army commanded by the Emperor Joseph (14, 20 Sept.); the Russians under Potemkin and Suvórov stormed Ochákov (17 Dec.); Pitt prepared an English fleet; Gustavus III. of Sweden declared war against Russia and invaded Russian Finland (July).

Campaign of 1789: death of the Sultan Abdul Hamid I. and accession of Selim III. (7 Apr.); the Turks defeated by the Austrians and Russians under Coburg and Suvórov at Foksany (1 August) and on the Rymnik (22 Sept.); the Austrians under Loudon took Belgrade (9 Oct.) and under Coburg took Bucharest; the Russians under Potemkin defeated the Turks at Tobac and took Bender (14 Nov.); the Russian fleet under Nassau-Siegen defeated the Swedes (24 Aug.).

Campaign of 1790: Clerfayt took Orsova (16 Apr.) and defeated the Turks at Kalafat (26 June); armistice was made between the Austrians and Turks at Giurgevo (19 Sept.); the Russian fleet defeated by the Swedes at Svenska Sound (28 June), and the Treaty of Verela signed between Sweden and Russia (14 Aug.); the Russians under Suvórov stormed Ismail (22 Dec.).

Campaign of 1791: the Austrians made peace with the Turks at Sistova (4 Aug.); Catherine continued the war alone; the Russians under Repnin defeated the Turks at Matchin (9 July); negotiations for peace; death of Potemkin (16 Oct., 1791).

By the Treaty of Jassy (9 Jan., 1792), peace was made between Russia and the Turks, by which Russia retained Ochákov and the coast line between the mouths of the <u>Bug</u> and the <u>Dniester</u>.

Political history of the war with the Turks; the Swedish war; the attitude of Frederick William II. of Prussia, and of England under Pitt; the "Russian Armament"; change in the position of affairs caused by the death of Joseph II. and the accession of Leopold II. (1790); Catherine made peace with the Turks in order to have her hands free to deal with Poland.

Importance of Catherine's foreign policy in maintaining her position in Russia; she brought Russia forward more prominently as a European power; changing phases of the Eastern question.

Catherine's claim to be considered one of the typical enlightened despots of the 18th century; her difficulties and advantages.

authorities: For short accounts of the reign of Catherine see Morfill, Story of Russia, and Rambaud, Histoire de la Russie, translated by Lang; and, for a lively account of her personality and life, Waliszewski, Le roman d'une impératrice, and Autour d'un trône. A good small book in English is Spalding, Suvóroff. Among secondary works should be noticed, in addition to those cited under Lecture 41, Brückner, Katharina die Zweite; Bilbassoff, Geschichte Katharina II., and Herrmann, Geschichte des russischen Staates; also D' Aragon, Le Prince Charles de Nassau-Siegen (1784-89). Of primary authorities, Ségur, Mémoires; Malmcsbury, Diaries and Correspondence; Arneth, Joseph II. und Katharina von Russland; ihr Briefwechsel; Catherine, Correspondance avec Grimm, are most accessible; Beer, Die orientalische Politik Esterreichs seit 1774, analyzes the policy of Austria during the latter part of Catherine's reign, and the Turkish side can be read in Von Hammer, Histoire de l'empire ottoman, and Zinkeisen, Geschichte des osmanischen Reichs. The documents relating to the reign of Catherine, published in the Sbornik, are numerous and important, and a full bibliography of works on the period is contained in Bilbassoff, Katharina II., Kaiserin von Russland, im Urtheile der Weltliteratur, 2 vols.

LECTURE 47.

Jan 31

THE EMPEROR JOSEPH II.

The administration of the Austrian dominions under Maria Theresa: her maintenance and even encouragement of local liberties and local self-government so long as they did not interfere with the ascendancy of the Catholic Church; for this reason the Catholic Netherlands and the Milanese were given greater independence than Bohemia, where Czech ideas were identified with Protestantism; contentment of the scattered provinces of the House of Hapsburg under the rule of Maria Theresa; personal admiration and enthusiasm felt for her character; attempt to substitute dynastic for national loyalty.

The conservatism of Maria Theresa in administration: progress of centralization; her husband, the Emperor Francis, aided by Kinsky, Chotek and Haugwitz, regulated the finances; abolition of exemptions

from taxation; Kaunitz managed foreign affairs; organization and encouragement of education; improvement of the condition of the serfs on the royal domain; attempt made to codify the laws; encouragement of foreign commerce; revival of the Ostend Company with Trieste for its headquarters (1759).

Foreign policy of Maria Theresa: her hatred of Frederick the Great; the Austro-French alliance; its results for Austria; her share in the partition of Poland; her Italian policy; she made use of her family to support Austrian influence abroad; thus her second son, Leopold, became Grand Duke of Tuscany; the third, Ferdinand, Governor-General of Lombardy and by marriage heir to the duchy of Modena; the fourth, Maximilian Elector-Archbishop of Cologne; while of her daughters Maria Carolina married Ferdinand IV., King of Naples and Sicily; Maria Amelia, Don Ferdinand IV., Duke of Parma; Marie Antoinette, Louis XVI. of France; and Maria Christina, Albert, Duke of Saxe-Teschen, third son of Augustus II. of Saxony and Poland, through whom she governed the Austrian Netherlands. (See Appendix VII.)

On the death of the Emperor Francis I. (18 Aug., 1765) his eldest son, Joseph II., was elected Emperor, while his second son, the Archduke Leopold, succeeded him as Grand Duke of Tuscany.

Character and training of Joseph II.: for fifteen years he held the position of Emperor without being ruler of the Austrian dominions; difficulties of this position; his endeavors to make the power of the Emperor more of a reality; his interference in foreign affairs; his admiration for Frederick the Great followed by a still greater admiration for the Tsaritsa Catherine; his share in the first partition of Poland and in the War of the Bavarian Succession.

Death of Maria Theresa (29 Nov., 1780) and accession of Joseph II. to the Austrian dominions.

The Emperor Joseph II. in many ways the most typical of the enlightened despots; his personality; his ardent desire to improve the condition of his people; the three vices which led to the failure of his schemes for reform: (1) his desire to do everything for the people and not by the people; (2) his wish to weld the Austrian dominions into a homogeneous realm like France, or an administrative entity like Prussia and Russia; (3) the rapidity with which he forced his reforms on the people without any preparation.

Joseph II.'s national reforms: his attempts to unify and centralize the administration; he made German the official language in the home dominions of the House of Hapsburg; he endeavored to destroy all local franchises and to establish the same system throughout his dominions; his efforts for administrative and judicial unity and regularity; he divided his dominions into thirteen governments, subdivided into circles; in each government he established a court of justice with two chambers, one for the nobility and one for the bourgeoisie; in each circle there was appointed an official to execute justice and protect the peasants.

Joseph II.'s religious reforms: he issued an edict of toleration, permitting freedom of thought and worship (1781); the visit of Pope Pius VI. to Vienna (1782); Joseph II. suppressed numerous convents and religious orders, and endeavored to reform the administration of the Church; he freed the Jews from their disabilities and permitted them to enter the army; he endeavored to make education secular and to take it out of the hands of the Church.

Joseph II.'s attack upon infringements of personal liberty: he abolished serfdom in Bohemia (1781), in Carinthia, Carniola and the Breisgau (1782), and in Hungary (22 Aug., 1785), and inaugurated a system for removing feudal burdens and forced labor; he abolished all guilds and corporations interfering with freedom of labor.

Joseph II.'s efforts to improve the intellectual condition of his people: he established a system of primary education and freed the press from the censorship (1781).

Joseph II.'s encouragement of public works and improvement of means of communication." You possession "

Joseph II.'s encouragement of trade and commerce: his endeavors to obtain from the Dutch the freedom of the River Scheldt.

Joseph II.'s fiscal reforms: his endeavors to introduce the physiocratic principles of taxation.

The result of Joseph II.'s reforms was to rouse discontent and even rebellion throughout his dominions; the Hungarian magnates were disgusted at his freeing the serfs and all the Magyars at his attempts at Germanization; the Czechs in Bohemia were apprehensive that his reforms would crush them further; the Tyrolese were in a ferment at his

measures against the Church, and the Belgians were forced into open rebellion, both by his interference with their local government and by his measures against the Catholic Church.

In spite of the seething discontent in his own dominions, Joseph II. pursued an active German and foreign policy.

The German policy of Joseph II.: he endeavored to make the Empire a reality; fears of the German princes at this action; his attempt to create a German Church practically independent of the Papacy; the suspicion created that his German policy was to promote only the power of Austria heightened by his proposal to exchange the Austrian Netherlands for Bavaria; this scheme thwarted by the formation of the Fürstenbund by Frederick the Great (1785).

Joseph II's Dutch policy: he endeavored, while the Protestant Netherlands were torn by the struggle between the Stadtholder and the "Patriots," to induce the Dutch to give up the barrier fortresses and to free the Scheldt to commerce; by the Treaty of Fontainebleau (10 Nov., 1785) the barrier fortresses, which Joseph had seized in 1781–82, were confirmed to him by the mediation of France, but the closing of the Scheldt was maintained; effect of Joseph II.'s Dutch policy on England; it led to the hearty support of the House of Orange and indirectly to the formation of the Triple Alliance between England, Prussia and the United Provinces (1788).

Joseph II.'s Russian policy: his admiration for the Tsaritsa Catherine led him to engage, while his dominions were in almost open insurrection, in war with the Turks.

Position of the Eastern Question during the reign of Joseph II.: attitude of the Triple Alliance towards the schemes of Joseph and Catherine.

Importance of the reign of Joseph II. his activity and endeavor to promote internal reforms contrasted with the attitude taken in France by his brother-in-law, Louis XVI. - with another or for Romand by tenugal report

Authorities: The best small books in English are Bright, Maria Theresa, and Bright, Joseph II. Among secondary works on the period are A. Wolf and Zwiedeneck-Südenhorst, Œsterreich unter Maria Theresia, Joseph II. und Leopold II., and Beidtel, Geschichte der oesterreichischen Staatsverwaltung, vol. i, 1740-92. On the policy and government of Maria Theresa see the books cited under Lec-

ture 37, especially Arneth, Geschichte Maria Theresias, 10 vols; A. Wolf, Esterreich unter Maria Theresia, with Piot, Le règne de Marie Thérèse dans les Pays-Bas autrichiens; Meynert, Kaiser Franz. I., and the invaluable collections of letters contained in Arneth, Maria Theresia und Joseph II.: Ihre Correspondenz sammt Briefen Joseph's an seinem Bruder Leopold, 3 vols, and Briefe der Kaiserin MariaTheresia an ihre Kinder und Freunde, and in Arneth and Geffroy, Correspondance secrète entre Marie Thérèse et le Comte de Mercy-Argenteau avec les lettres de Marie Thérèse et de Marie Antoinette. For the reign of Joseph II. see Huber, Geschichte Josephs II.: Gross-Hoffinger, Lebens und Regierungsgeschichte Josephs II.: Paganel, Histoire de Joseph II.; Von Hock and Bidermann, Der Esterreichische Staatsrath (1760-1848); G. Wolf, Esterreich und Preussen, 1780-1790, Das Unterrichtswesen in Æsterreich unter Josef II., and Josefina; Ramshorn, Kaiser Joseph II. und seine Zeit; Meynert, Kaiser Joseph II.; Wendrinsky, Kaiser Josef II.; Jäger, Kaiser Joseph II. und Leopold II., Reform und Gegenreform; Ritter, Kaiser Joseph II. und seine kirchlichen Reformen; Zieglauer von Blumenthal, Die politische Reformbewegung in Siebenbürgen zur Zeit Josefs II. und Leopolds II.; Frank, Das Toleranz-Patent Kaiser Joseph II.; Gachard, Études sur l'histoire des Pays-Bas, vols. ii, iii; Hubert, De Charles-Quint à Joseph II., étude sur la condition des Protestants en Belgique, édit de tolérance de 1781; Schlitter, Die Reise des Papstes Pius VI. nach Wien (Fontes rerum Austriacarum, vol. xlvii); Beer, Die orientalische Politik Esterreichs seit 1774; Lindner, Die Aufhebung der Klöster in Deutsch-Tirol, 1782-87; A. Wolf, Die Aufhebung der Klöster in Inner-æsterreich, 1782-90; Lustkandl, Die Josephinischen Ideen und ihr Erfolg, and Brunner, Joseph II.: Charakteristik seines Lebens, seiner Regierung, und seiner Kirchenreform. For this reign there are also several invaluable collections of letters: Arneth, Joseph II, und Leopold von Toscana: Ihr Briefwechsel von 1781-90; Joseph II. und Katharina von Russland: Ihr Briefwechsel; and Marie Antoinette, Joseph II. und Leopold II.: Ihr Briefwechsel; Arneth and Flammermont, Correspondance secrète du Comte de Mercy-Argenteau avec l'empercur Joseph II. et le prince de Kaunitz; Beer, Joseph II., Leopold II. und Kaunitz; Ihr Briefwechsel, and Brunner, Correspondances intimes de l'empereur Joseph II. avec le comte de Cobenzl et le prince de Kaunitz.

LECTURE 48.

THE NORTHERN COUNTRIES OF EUROPE TO 1789.

Condition of the Protestant Netherlands during the 18th century: their commercial and financial prosperity, but decline of their naval and

military power; the two parties—the Republican burghers and the supporters of the House of Orange; the French invasion caused William IV. of Orange to be declared hereditary Stadtholder (1747); William IV., and, after his death (1751), his widow, Anne of England, daughter of George II., to 1759, and Louis Ernest of Brunswick to 1766, pursued a policy of close alliance with England, but remained neutral during the Seven Years' War.

William V. (b. 1748) undertook the Stadtholderate in 1766, but Louis of Brunswick remained his chief adviser; growth of the "Patriot" party, which embraced the doctrines of the French writers, and was opposed to the semi-royal authority of the Stadtholder and the oligarchical power of the burghers; this party, especially in Holland, desired to help the insurgents in America, while commercial interests caused the adhesion of the Dutch to the principles of the Armed Neutrality; their conduct caused England to declare war (1780); by the Treaty of Versailles the Dutch ceded Negapatam, their chief factory in India, to England.

The Dutch Revolution: William V. accused of favoring the English during the war; Louis of Brunswick forced to resign (1784); riots in the cities; William V. driven from the Hague (1785); the Dutch "Patriots" appealed for help to France; excitement in the cities; insurrection of the provinces of Holland and Utrecht against the Stadtholder (1786–87); Vergennes, and after him Montmorin, afraid to send regular troops for fear of renewing the war with England, but permitted the raising of a body of French volunteers, the Legion of Maillebois.

Pitt resolved to restore the power of the Stadtholder: Wilhelmina, Princess of Orange, arrested by the "Patriots" (28 June, 1787); Harris, afterwards Lord Malmesbury (b. 1746, d. 1820), induced Frederick William II. of Prussia to restore his brother-in-law, William V.; a Prussian army under Charles William Ferdinand. Duke of Brunswick (b. 1735, d. 1806) occupied Amsterdam (10 Sept., 1787); the "Patriot" leaders exiled; Van de Spiegel made Grand Pensionary; Malmesbury concluded the Triple Alliance between England, Prussia and the United Provinces (15 April, 1788).

History of Denmark and Norway during the 18th century: growth of commercial prosperity, and literary and scientific development, under the autocracy of enlightened kings and ministers; struggle between

Germanizing and national tendencies; steady improvement in internal administration; foreign policy based on a close alliance with England; close relationship between the royal families of England and Denmark; territorial policy aimed at the absorption of Holstein.

Reign of Christian VI. (1730-46): his Puritanism; Germanizing policy of the Queen, Sophia Magdalen of Baireuth; his encouragement of commerce and of the navy; the Danish East India Company; chance of uniting Denmark with Sweden lost in 1743 by the election of Adolphus Frederick of Holstein to be heir to the throne of Sweden, instead of the Crown Prince of Denmark.

Reign of Frederick V. (1746-66): reaction from Germanism and Puritanism; his two wives, Louisa of England and Juliana of Brunswick; ministry of John Bernstorff (1751-70); danger threatened to Danish independence by the accession of Peter of Holstein to the throne of Russia as Peter III. in 1762; threats of the Tsar to destroy Denmark; Catherine, on usurping the throne of Russia, made peace with Denmark and allowed Holstein to be exchanged for the bishopric of Lübeck and the duchy of Oldenburg, which were granted to the House of Holstein-Gottorp (1767).

Reign of Christian VII. (1766–1808): <u>Struensee</u> (b. 1737) made chief minister (1770); his character; his philosophical ideas and use of his power; he represented the <u>German</u>, philosophical and <u>sweeping reform</u> party; he suppressed the censorship of the press, abolished the Council of State, reorganized the army, established religious toleration, simplified the collection of the revenue, encouraged education and reformed the law and the judicial administration; Struensee accused of being too intimate with the Queen, Caroline Matilda, sister of George III. of England; a conspiracy formed against him; he was arrested (17 Jan., 1772) and executed (28 April, 1772).

Andrew Bernstorff (b. 1735, d. 1797), chief minister: in foreign affairs he maintained the English alliance; in internal affairs he carried out gradual reforms; insanity of the King; the Queen Dowager forced Bernstorff to resign (1780), and called Guldberg to office; Denmark joined the Armed Neutrality (1780); the Crown Prince Frederick seized the government (1784) and recalled Bernstorff to office; the reforms of Bernstorff; he prohibited the negro slave trade and (20 June, 1788)

finally abolished serfdom in Denmark; the Jews allowed the rights of citizens; by an arrangement with Russia, Denmark attacked Sweden in 1788, but peace was made the same year by the intervention of the Triple Alliance.

Sweden in the 18th century: her losses by the treaties which concluded the Northern War, and especially by the Treaty of Nystadt (1721), reduced her to a second-rate power; the election of Ulrica Eleanor, younger sister of Charles XII., to the throne of Sweden (1719), instead of the Duke of Holstein-Gottorp, transferred all power to the Senate, composed of the nobles, which was answerable to the Estates, or Diet; powerlessness of the Swedish monarchy; concentration of executive, legislative and judicial authority in the hands of the nobles; their poverty, rapacity and want of patriotism; rivalry of two parties—the "Hats," relying on France, bribed by France, looking for the reconquest of Finland and Stettin, and desirous of keeping in touch with Western Europe, and the "Caps," bribed by Russia, and hoping by Russian help to conquer Denmark and Pomerania.

Reign of Ulrica Eleanor (1719–41) and of her husband Frederick of Hesse-Cassel, Frederick I. of Sweden (1720–51): rule of the "Caps" (1721–38); administration of Count Arvid Horn; the "Hats" obtained the mastery and declared war against Russia at the request of France (4 Aug., 1741); the Swedes defeated at Wilmanstrand (3 Sept., 1741) and Helsingfors (1742); by the Treaty of Abo with Russia (23 Jan., 1743) a small cession of territory was made to Russia, and Adolphus Frederick of Holstein, Bishop of Lübeck, was elected heir to the Swedish throne at the request of the Tsaritsa Elizabeth, in the place of his cousin, Peter of Holstein-Gottorp, the heir to the Russian throne; defeat of the plan to choose the Crown Prince of Denmark and thus to unite the Scandinavian countries; personality of Frederick I.; his code of civil law (1736); his patronage of Linnæus and foundation of the Academy of Stockholm.

Reign of Adolphus Frederick (1751-71); he was married to Louisa Ulrica, sister of Frederick the Great; the "Hats" remained in power during the greater part of his reign; attempts of the King, spurred on by the Queen, to restore the royal authority; execution of Horn and Brahe (1756); at the demand of France and Russia, the Swedes took

C. mathers

part in the Seven Years War and attacked Prussia; their part in the war; after the death of the Tsaritsa Elizabeth, Adolphus Frederick made peace with Frederick the Great at Hamburg (20 May, 1762); the "Caps" recovered power (1765); at the instigation of his son, Gustavus, the King made a vain attempt to overthrow the power of the nobles and the Senate by an appeal to the Estates of Sweden (1769).

Schemes of Russia, Prussia and Denmark for the partition of Sweden (1764, 1766, 1769).

Reign of Gustavus III. (1771-92): his character and education; his travels; his attachment to France; his adoption of the theory of enlightened despotism; supported by Vergennes, the French ambassador to Sweden, by a coup d'état (19 Aug., 1772) he destroyed the power of the Senate and assumed all executive authority, leaving the control of taxation to the Estates; his internal policy; sweeping reforms; he abolished torture, encouraged commerce, improved the administration and suppressed the censorship of the press; his difficulties with the Estates; his autocratic actions.

The foreign policy of Gustavus III.: he joined the Armed Neutrality (1780); to win national support he attacked Russia (1788); misbehavior of the Swedish army in Finland; the malcontents led by the king's brother, Charles, Duke of Sudermania; Sweden attacked by Denmark (1788); coup d'état of 1789 (20 Feb.); Gustavus declared a new fundamental law of Sweden, that i' the King shall administer the affairs of State as he thinks best i'; victory won by the Swedish navy at Svenska Sound (9 July, 1790); Treaty of Verela signed with Russia (14 Aug., 1790) establishing the status quo ante bellum.

Claims of Gustavus III. to be considered a typical enlightened despot of the 18th century.

Authorities: For the Dutch Revolution see Ellis, History of the Late Revolution in the Dutch Republic; Caillard, Mémoire sur la Révolution de Hollande, published in Ségur, Décade Historique, vol. iii; De Witt, Une invasion prussionne en Hollande en 1787; Böhllingk, Die holländische Revolution 1787 und der deutsche Fürstenbund; Schenk. Wilhelm der Funfte; Nijhoff, De Hertog van Brunswijk (1750-84); Colenbránder, De Patriottentijd (1776-1786); Pfau, Geschichte des preussischen Feldzugs in der Provinz Holland im Jahre 1787, and as primary authorities, Malmesbury, Diaries and Correspondence; William V., Brieven aan Baron van Lijnden van Blitterswijk, ed. De Bas; Hogendorp, Brieven en

Sollinger - Some Ement of Brunawich

Gedenkschriften; Van de Spiegel, Zijne Tijdgenooten, ed. Vreede, vols. i-iii, and De Jonge, Documents politiques et diplomatiques sur les révolutions de 1787 et 1795 dans la république des Provinces-Unies. For Danish history see Allen, Histoire de Danemark; Vedel, Correspondance ministérielle du comte J. H. E. Bernstorff, 1751-70; Correspondance entre Bernstorff et Choiseul, 1758-66; Höst, Graf Struensee und sein Ministerium; Falkenskjold, Mémoires à l'époque du ministère et de la catastrophe du comte de Struensée; Lagrèze, La reine Caroline Mathilde et le comte Struensee; Wraxall, Life and Times of Caroline Matilda, Queen of Denmark, and Wittich, Struensee. For Swedish history see Malmström, Sveriges politiska historia (1718-1772); Heidenstam, Une sœur du grand Frédéric, Louise Ulrique, reine de Suède; Bain, Gustavus III. and his Contemporaries; Geffroy, Gustave III. et la cour de France; Bonneville de Marsangy, Le comte de Vergennes, son ambassade en Suède (1771-74); Posselt, Geschichte Gustavs III., and Sheridan, History of the Late Revolution in Sweden. As a primary authority see the papers of Gustavus III., ed. Geijer.

LECTURE 49.

THE SOUTHERN COUNTRIES OF EUROPE TO 1789.

Decreasing commercial importance of the Mediterranean during the 18th century, and consequent decreasing political importance of the countries surrounding it: the civilization of Europe began to center in the northwest of the continent, in England, France and the United Provinces; causes of this change.

The condition of the Mediterranean in the 18th century: ravages of the Barbary corsairs; the trade of the Levant absorbed by the English; effect of their occupation of Gibraltar and Minorca; Venice monopolized the trade of the Adriatic; government of Malta by the Knights of Saint John of the Hospital.

Portugal in the 18th century: its commercial and political dependence on England after the Methuen Treaty (1703); its attempts to get free from the English alliance and to enter into close relations with Spain; Spain's desire to annex Portugal; internal government; the monarchy dependent upon Brazil for its revenue; misgovernment of Brazil; disappearance of the Portuguese power in Asia.

Pombat.

145

The reign of John V. (1706-50): his endeavors to imitate Louis XIV.; the reign of Joseph (1750-77); the earthquake at Lisbon (1 Nov., 1755); the administration of Pombal (b. 1699, d. 1782), one of the enlightened ministers of the 18th century; his internal policy and reforms; his belief in autocracy; Pombal took the lead in the suppression of the Society of Jesus; he abolished slavery in Portugal (25 May, 1773), but maintained negro slavery in Brazil; he reformed the administration and the judicial system; he encouraged trade and manufactures; he promoted higher education, founded more than 800 schools, and reorganized the University of Coimbra; Pombal's foreign policy; he desired to throw off the yoke of England; the Spaniards invaded Portugal under the terms of the Pacte de Famille; they were defeated with the assistance of England; peace signed between Spain and Portugal (10 Feb., 1763); reign of Maria I. (1777-1816) and Pedro III. (1777-86); dismissal of Pombal; maintenance of his system; Portugal joined the Armed Neutrality (1782); insanity of Maria I. (1788) and assumption of the government by Prince John (1792).

Spain in the 18th century: poverty and exhaustion, material and intellectual, of the country; character of the government of the Bourbon kings of Spain; the royal revenue derived from the Spanish colonies in America; their misgovernment; attempts made to maintain a strong navy; abandonment of commerce.

The latter years of the reign of Philip V. (1700-46): the administrations of Patiño (1726-36), the successor of Ripperda, and of Campillo (1741-43); the reign of Ferdinand VI. (1746-59); the influence of Farinelli; administrations of La Ensenada (1743-54) and of Wall (1754-63).

The reign of Charles III., formerly King of Naples and Sicily (1759-38): Charles III. one of the enlightened despots; his efforts to improve the condition of Spain; his difficulties; excellence of his ministers; administrative reforms of Squillacci (1759-66); their unpopularity; forced from office by a riot at Madrid; Aranda (b. 1718, d. 1799) and the expulsion of the Jesuits; his internal administration (1766-73); its spirit of progress carried on by Florida Blanca (1773-92); their belief in autocracy and centralization; O'Reilly reformed the army and rebuilt the navy; Campomanes established a national system of education, and with Jovellanos reformed the judicial system and introduced the ideas

of the political economists; Cabarrus founded the Bank of St. Charles, (1782), and established a national system of credit; revival of commerce after throwing open to all Spanish ports trade with America; reform of the currency; encouragement of public works and improvement of agriculture; endeavor of Olavide to restore prosperity in Andalusia; his overthrow by the Inquisition (1776).

The foreign policy of Charles III.: its keynotes—the recovery of Gibraltar and the conquest of Portugal; Spain attempted to achieve these ends by the signature of the Pacte de Famille with France (15 Aug., 1761); Spain declared war against England (1762) and invaded Portugal; defeat of the Spaniards, and loss of Havana and Manilla; by the Treaty of Paris (1763) Spain ceded Florida to England and recovered Havana and Manilla; France ceded Louisiana to Spain in compensation for the loss of Florida; Grimaldi, Minister for Foreign Affairs (1763–76) and Florida Blanca (1776–92); Spain joined France against England in the War of American Independence; the siege of Gibraltar; part played by the Spanish navy during the war; by the Treaty of Versailles (1783) Spain recovered Minorca and Florida; expeditions made by Spain against the Barbary corsairs (1775, 1785).

Death of Charles III. (14 Dec., 1788); importance of his reign; accession of Charles IV.

Italy in the 18th century: Austrian influence practically supreme; the House of Savoy, which ruled in Sardinia and Piedmont, the only national dynasty in Italy.

I. The Papacy: Pope Pius VI.—Braschi (1775-99); his administration; his endeavor to drain the Pontine marshes; foundation of the Clementine Museum; his difficulties with the Emperor Joseph II., the Grand Duke Leopold and Tanucci; his visit to Vienna (1782).

II. The Two Sicilies: the government of Don Carlos, afterwards Charles III. of Spain (1735-59); the administration of Tanucci (b. 1698, d. 1783), one of the most enlightened ministers of his time; he abolished feudalism in Naples; his attempt to reform the laws; his encouragement of art and education; his action against the power of the Church; Charles on his accession to the throne of Spain gave Naples and Sicily to his third son, Ferdinand IV. (1759-1825); during the minority of the young king, Tanucci remained in power; he con-

tinued his reforms; he coöperated in the suppression of the Jesuits and occupied Benevento and Ponte Corvo (1769); his struggle with the Papacy and suppression of useless bishoprics; as a result of his marriage (1768) with Maria Carolina, daughter of Maria Theresa, the king dismissed Tanucci (1776); supremacy of the Queen; influence of Acton (b. 1736, d. 1811); backwardness of the island of Sicily; its "Parliament"; failure of the attempted reforms of Domenico Caracciolo (1781).

III. Tuscany: the administration of the Grand Duke Leopold, second son of Maria Theresa (1765–90); his reforms; his code of laws; he reduced the number of bishoprics and monasteries; he improved the material condition of Tuscany; his administrative reforms; his judicial reforms; he adopted the economic ideas of the Physiocrats and abolished all restrictions on industry and commerce; his patronage of higher education; he founded the prosperity of Leghorn; he disbanded his army; the Grand Duke Leopold the most enlightened of the benevolent despots.

IV. Parma: the reign of Don Philip (1749-65); the administration of <u>Du Tillot</u>, Marquis of Felino (b. 1711, d. 1774); his reforms; his patronage of higher education; his action against the monasteries; his encouragement of manufactures; the reign of Don Ferdinand (1765-1802); Du Tillot's scheme of marrying him to the heiress of Modena foiled; Du Tillot's struggle with the Papacy and suppression of the Jesuits; he abolished the Inquisition and reorganized the University of Parma (1768); Don Ferdinand married Maria Amelia, daughter of Maria Theresa (1769); dismissal of Du Tillot by the influence of the Duchess (1771); greatness of Du Tillot; "a great minister of a little state".

V. Modena: reign of Francis III. (1737–80); he supported France in the War of the Austrian Succession, but after the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) became Governor-General of Lombardy for Maria Theresa; reign of Hercules III. (1780–1803); his avarice and unpopularity; his heiress, Maria Beatrice, married the Archduke Ferdinand, third son of Maria Theresa (1771).

VI. Lombardy: the Milanese and Mantua governed as possessions of Austria by the Duke of Modena (1748-80) and by the Archduke Ferdinand (1780-96); enlightened administration of Count Firmian (1759-82); his reforms and encouragement of higher education; intel-

lectual development in Milan; the great Lombard writers and men of science, Beccaria, Verri, Spallanzani and Volta.

VII. Kingdom of Sardinia: abdication of Victor Amadeus II. (1730); the reign of Charles Emmanuel III. (1730–73); he pursued the traditional policy of the House of Savoy; his territorial gains in the War of the Polish Succession and in the War of the Austrian Succession; the the reign of Victor Amadeus III. (1773–96); his close alliance with France; influenced by the enlightened spirit of the century; his buildings at Nice; improvement of his army on the Prussian model; absence of serfdom in Piedmont.

VIII. The Republic of Venice: its mastery of the Adriatic and government of the Ionian Islands; conservatism of its administration; Venice, "the holiday city of Europe"; splendor of its festivals.

IX. The Republic of Genoa: its decline in prosperity during the 18th century; insurrection in Corsica (1729); Corsica declared its independence (1733); election of Theodore, Baron von Neuhof, as King of Corsica (1736); the Genoese requested the assistance of France; the French under Maillebois conquered the Corsicans (1739); the French evacuated Corsica (1743); the second insurrection of the Corsicans, headed by Paoli (b. 1726, d. 1807), also suppressed by French troops (1753–56); third insurrection under Paoli (1759); the Republic of Genoa ceded Corsica to France (1768); conquest of the island by the French (1769).

X. The petty states of Italy: the republics of Lucca and San Marino; the principalities of Piombino and Monaco.

The Turks during the 18th century: steady decline of their power; the relations of the Sublime Porte with France; the wars of the Turks with Austria and Russia closed by the Treaties of Passarowitz (1718), Belgrade (1739), Kutschuk Kainardji (1774), Sistova (1790) and Jassy (1792); causes of the decay of the Turkish power; the dismemberment of the Turkish dominions becomes one of the two problems of the Eastern question.

Authorities: For Malta, Boisgelin, Ancient and Modern Malta. For Portugal, Morse Stephens, Story of Portugal; Oliveira Martins, Historia de Portugal; Latino Coelho, Historia de Portugal desde os fins do XVII. Seculo até 1814; Smith, Memoirs of the Marquis of Pombal; Moore, Alberoni, Ripperda and Pombal; with the anonymous Administration du Marquis de Pombal, 4 vols., and the

so-called Mémoires du Marquis de Pombal, 4 vols. For Spain, Coxe, Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon; Rosseeuw-Saint-Hilaire, Histoire d'Espagne, vols. 12, 13; Lafuente, Storia general de España, vols. 19-21; Ferrer del Rio, Historia del reinado de Carlos III., 4 vols.; Danvilla y Collado, Reinado de Carlos III., 6 vols; Muriel, Gobierno de Señor Rey Don Carlos III: Rodriguez Villa, El Marques de la Ensenada; Lavalle, Don Pablo Olavide; Colmeiro, Historia de la Economia politica en España; Campomanes, Obras; Jovellanos, Obras: with the chapters on Spain in Schlosser, History of the Eighteenth Century, translated by Davison. For Italy, Botta, Histoire d'Italie depuis 1789 à 1814; Cantú. Histoire des Italiens; Brosch, Geschichte des Kirchenstaats; Orsi, Storia degli ultimi quattro secoli della Chiesa; Arlaud, Vie du pape Pie VI.; Colletta, Storia del Reame di Napoli dal 1734 sino al 1825; L'auria, Di Bernardo Tanucci e dei suoi tempi : Gagnière, La reine Marie Caroline de Naples ; Helfert, Maria Karolina, Königin von Neapel; Zobi, Storia civile della Toscana dal 1737 al 1848, 6 vols.: Potter, Vie et mémoires de Scipion de Ricci, evêque de Pistoie, 4 vols.; Nisard, Du Tillot; Cantú, L'abate Parini e la Lombardia nel secolo passato; Bianchi. Storia della Monarchia Piemontese, 1773–1861; Belgiojoso, Histoire de la maison de Savoie; Costa-Beauregard, Mémoires historiques sur la maison royale de Savoie; Carutti, Storia del regno di Carlo Emanuele III.; Daru, Histoire de la république de Venise; Jacobi, Histoire générale de la Corse; Renucci, Storia di Corsica; Gregorovius, Corsica; Arrighi, Histoire de Pascal Paoli; and Boswell, Account of Corsica and Memoirs of Paoli. For the Turks, Creasy, History of the Ottoman Turks; Von Hammer, Histoire de l'empire ottoman; Zinkeisen, Geschichte des osmanischen Reichs; with Saint-Priest, Mémoires sur l'ambassade française en Turquie ; Bonnac, Mémoire historique sur l'ambassade de France à Constantinople, ed. Schefer (with Bonnac's correspondence, 1716-24); Vandal, Une ambassade française en Orient sous Louis XV., la mission du marquis de Villeneuve (1728-41); Bonneville de Marsangy, Le chevalier de Vergennes, son ambassade à Constantinople (1755-69); Pingaud, Choiseul-Gouffier (1784-92); and Baron de Tott, Memoirs concerning the War of Turkey with Russia.

LECTURE 50.

GERMANY TO 1789.

The condition of Germany in the 18th century: the establishment of the independence of the states of the Empire by the Treaties of Westphalia had destroyed the sense of German nationality; looseness of the bonds which held the Empire together.

History of the Holy Roman Empire in the 18th century: conditions produced during the War of the Austrian Succession; the weakness of the Emperor Charles VII.; innovation at the election of 1745, when the envoy of Maria Theresa, as Queen of Bohemia, was permitted to vote; war of execution declared against Frederick the Great (1756), under which an army of imperial troops was defeated with the French at Rossbach, but when it was proposed to place Frederick under the ban of the Empire, in 1758, the Protestant princes threatened to secede; election of Joseph II. as King of the Romans (1764); he became Emperor (1765).

Impotence of the Diet of the Empire, which since 1663 had remained in perpetual session and consisted only of envoys: in 1788 only four-teen princes of the Empire and eight free cities maintained representatives at Ratisbon; the Imperial Diet had thus ceased to be an operative bond of federal union.

The judicial authority of the Empire: scandalous inefficiency of the Imperial Tribunal at Wetzlar; Joseph II. commenced a visitation of the Tribunal (1767-76), but effected no valid reform; greater vigor of the Aulic Council, especially during the reign of Joseph II.; while the Imperial Tribunal neglected appeals laid before it, the Aulic Council dealt more promptly than before with cases against princes for misuse of power.

Utter inadequacy of the executive power of the Empire: mismanagement and inefficiency of the Circles; inability of the Empire, as such, to carry on war proved in the campaign of Rossbach; disputes as to raising, commanding and paying imperial troops; a Jew contracted for the raising of the quota of soldiers demanded from the Bishop of Paderborn.

Efforts of Joseph II. to make the imperial power a reality: besides trying to reform the Imperial Tribunal and punishing bad rulers, he tried to take a more active part in the Imperial Diet; jealousy aroused by this action among the Princes of the Empire; the project of exchanging the Austrian Netherlands for Bavaria increased the apprehension of the ambitions of Austria; Frederick the Great seized the opportunity to form the Fürstenbund, or League of Princes (23 July, 1785); importance of this movement; it accentuated the rivalry between Prussia and Austria for the leadership of Germany; Joseph's idea of uniting Germany under the Emperor effectually thwarted.

Joseph II. stood forth as the champion of the German Church: the interference of the Rota at Rome with the metropolitan court at Mayence in the case of an appeal from Spires caused a clause to be inserted in the capitulation of 1765 declaring it necessary to check all encroachments on the liberties of the Church in Germany; the action of Joseph caused the Pope to withdraw his claims; effect of Joseph II.'s action minimized by his persistence in interfering with the rights of German ecclesiastical Princes of the Empire in Austria.

Imitation of the splendor and despotism of Louis XIV_almost universal among German princes during the first half of the 18th century; followed during the second half by a general adherence to the ideas of enlightened despotism; influence of Frederick the Great in bringing about this change.

The situation in Prussia at the death of Frederick the Great (1786): the character of his nephew and successor, Frederick William II. (b. 1744); the internal policy of the new king; he maintained the administrative system of his uncle, but in the place of personal supervision left the direction to ministers of mediocre capacity; both the army and the civil service suffered from the change of monarchs; the Prussian Court; influence of favorites, male and female; Frederick William II.'s attitude towards religion; he departed from the toleration which his uncle had established; influence of the mystics, Rosicrucians, etc.; his extravagance; he spent the treasures accumulated by his uncle; difficulty experienced in raising an adequate revenue.

The foreign policy of Frederick William II.: the management of foreign affairs left to Hertzberg (b. 1725, d. 1795), who had been minister under Frederick the Great; he desired to renew the former friendship with England; the opportunity afforded by the Dutch Revolution of 1785–87; signature of the Triple Alliance between England, Prussia and the United Provinces (15 April, 1788); Hertzberg, supported by the Triple Alliance, prepared to intervene in the settlement of the Eastern question.

The most remarkable enlightened despot in Germany was Charles Frederick (b. 1728, d. 1811), Margrave of Baden-Baden and Baden-Durlach; his writings on political economy and attempt to put economic ideas into practice; he abolished serfdom (23 July, 1783) and

established a scheme of primary education; among other princes similarly enlightened may be noted Maximilian Joseph, Elector of Bavaria, a great law reformer and codifier, and Charles Theodore, Elector Palatine and Elector of Bavaria, who suppressed many convents, and, with the help of Count Rumford (b. 1753, d. 1814), promoted reforms, but who persecuted the Protestants; Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony; Clement Wenceslas of Saxony, Elector-Archbishop of Trèves, and the Archduke Maximilian, Elector-Archbishop of Cologne, who were both tolerant rulers, and Fürstenberg, who administered the bishopric of Münster for many years; against these enlightened princes may be set the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, who sold his subjects to England for the American war, the Duke of Würtemberg and the Duke of Zweibrücken, or Deux-Ponts.

Although government in the larger states of Germany was administered on enlightened principles towards the close of the 18th century, the government of the smaller principalities was generally oppressive.

In spite of its unfavorable political condition, Germany during the 18th century began to recover from the effects of the Thirty Years' War; material improvement; intellectual development; increase in the number and efficiency of German universities; foundation of the University of Göttingen (1734); German literature; the Court of Weimar.

Distant prospect in the 18th century of German unity; Frederick the Great, the national hero; distrust of the schemes of Joseph II.; admiration felt for the Prussian system of government; Germany hampered in its development by the existence of the Holy Roman Empire and the ideas of the Treaties of Westphalia.

Authorities: Many of the books cited under Lectures 45 and 47 describe the attitude of Frederick the Great and Joseph II. towards the Empire. A bright and concise account of the political and social condition of Germany on the eve of the French Revolution is given in Rambaud, Les Français sur le Rhin. For the condition of the Empire during the 18th century see Pütter, Historical Development of the Political Constitution of the Germanic Empire, translated by Dornford. Among the general works on Germany may be noted Biedermann, Deutschlands politische, materielle, und sociale Zustände im 18ten Jahrhundert; Haüsser, Deutsche Geschichte vom Tode Friedrichs des Grossen bis zur Gründung des deutschen Bundes; Heigel, Deutsche Geschichte vom Tode Friedrichs des Grossen bis zur Auflösung des alten Reichs; Perthes, Politische Zustände und Personen in

Deutschland zur Zeit der französischen Herrschaft, and Geismar, Die politische Literatur der Deutschen im 18ten Jahrhundert; among books on individual German states, see Philippson, Geschichte des preussischen Staatswesens vom Tode Friedrichs des Grossen bis zu der Freiheitskriege; Cassel, Friedrich Wilhelm II.; Massenbach, Memoiren; Voss, Neunundsechzig Jahre am preussischen Höfe; Mirabeau, Histoire secrète de la cour de Berlin; Haüsser, Über die Regierung Karl Friedrichs von Baden; Kleinschmidt, Karl Friedrich von Baden; Erdmannsdörffer, Politische Korrespondenz Karl Friedrichs von Baden; Charles Frederick of Baden, Brieflicher Verkehr mit Mirabeau und Dupont, ed. Knies; Haüsser, Geschichte des rheinischen Pfalz; Strippelmann, Beiträge zur Geschichte Hessen Cassels; Normann-Ehrenfels, Königliche Württemburgischer Staatsminister, 1756–1817, Denkwürdigkeiten, ed. Roth von Schreckenstein; Schreiber, Geschichte Baierns, and Count Rumford, Memoirs.

LECTURE 51.

THE ENLIGHTENED DESPOTS.

The most characteristic feature in government of the 18th century was the existence and the work of the Enlightened Despots; though differing in the degrees of their enlightenment, these rulers showed a common tendency to use their authority for the good of their people.

The three most important enlightened despots, not because they were most enlightened, but because of their political power, were the Emperor Joseph II., the Tsaritsa Catherine II. and Frederick the Great; their example had much to do with changing the conception of the duties of monarchy in Europe, but they did not originate the movement, and were its most illustrious rather than its most thoroughgoing representatives.

Some of the enlightened despots, like the three rulers above mentioned, carried on the work of government themselves; others, like Joseph of Portugal, Charles III. of Spain and Christian VII. of Denmark, showed their sympathy with the spirit of the times by supporting enlightened ministers, like Pombal, Tanucci, Aranda and Bernstorff.

The origin of the conception of enlightened despotism is to be found

in the works of the political philosphers, political economists and jurists of the century.

The enlightened despots and their ministers were very sensitive to the criticism of the men of letters of their time, and European public opinion had much to do with initiating and encouraging schemes of internal reform; the chief leaders of the intellectual movement in Europe during the century were Frenchmen, and it was to French writers who were practically unable to influence their own country that foreign monarchs looked for advice and applause.

In the 17th century there was a general movement towards giving autocratic power or despotism to monarchs because they best realized the State with its ideals of internal peace and national independence or aggression; in the 18th century autocratic government sought to justify its further existence on the ground that it could do more good for the people than any other system.

The following points are common to all the enlightened despots or enlightened ministers of the 18th century: (1) their belief that autocracy logically implied extreme centralization; (2) their indifference to racial, national or local characteristics, looking on their subjects as people to be governed according to system for their own good whether they liked it or not; (3) their disregard of class distinctions, which led them to select servants from the most suitable persons and finally destroyed the political power of the aristocracies of the Continent; (4) their freedom from religious intolerance, most of them being sceptics and regarding religion from an impersonal standpoint.

The enlightened despots and ministers paid special attention to the following subjects; some of them distinguished themselves more in one line than another; but their claim to be enlightened rests upon their zeal in more than one of the following particulars:

(1) Attempts to soften or abolish serfdom and other feudal abuses: in this line Joseph II. was the most thoroughgoing of the enlightened despots, but before his time Pombal abolished slavery in Portugal (25 May, 1773) and Tanucci deprived the nobility of Naples of their feudal power, while afterwards Charles Frederick, Margrave of Baden, abolished serfdom in his dominions (23 July, 1783), and Andrew Bernstorff did the same thing in Denmark (20 June, 1788).

- (2) Projects of legal and judicial reform: promulgation of codes of law, in which work Frederick the Great of Prussia, the Grand Duke Leopold of Tuscany, Maximilian Joseph of Bavaria, and Frederick Augustus, Elector of Saxony, were especially distinguished; reforms in judicial administration by the abolition of torture and the introduction of more humane methods of punishment; improvement in this respect was shown in the work of all the enlightened despots, owing chiefly to the influence of Voltaire and Beccaria; effect of the publication of Beccaria's Dei delitti e della pene (1764), Montesquieu's Esprit des lois (1748), and Filangieri's Scienza della legislazione (1780).
- (3) Efforts to promote material prosperity by the undertaking of public works, such as draining marshes, making roads and improving harbors: in these directions Frederick the Great, Catherine II. in Russia, Aranda and Florida Blanca in Spain, Pope Pius VI. and Victor Amadeus III., King of Sardinia, did the most.
- (4) Adoption of the ideas of the political economists in collecting their revenues and encouraging manufactures and commerce: some of the enlightened despots were themselves distinguished members of the Physiocratic school, like Charles Frederick, Margrave of Baden, and the Grand Duke Leopold of Tuscany, while the Emperor Joseph II. in Austria, Gustavus III. in Sweden, Pombal in Portugal, Campomanes and Jovellanos in Spain, and the Bernstorffs in Denmark, were partisaus of the new school of political economy.
- (5) Encouragement of education, and especially of higher education: all the enlightened despots established academies of literature, science and art in their capitals, and encouraged learned men; many universities were established or reorganized, notably in Italy, Germany, Denmark and Portugal; systems of national primary education were attempted by Frederick the Great, Charles Frederick, Margrave of Baden, and Campomanes in Spain.
- (6) Freedom of the press established, for instance, by Struensee in Denmark (1770), Gustavus III. in Sweden (1784), and by the Emperor Joseph II. (1783), but their example was not universally followed, though the power of the censorship was everywhere diminished.
- (7) Extension of ideas of religious toleration, embracing not only the different forms of Christianity, but also Judaism: the Emperor Joseph

II., and Bernstorff in Denmark, specifically abolished the disabilities of the Jews; Frederick the Great showed himself tolerant to all varieties of Christians; but the most famous declarations of toleration, permitting both liberty of thought and liberty of worship, were issued by Catherine II. in her instruction for the making of a new code (1766), which even permitted the Muhammadans to build mosques, and by Joseph II. in his Edict of Toleration (13 Oct., 1781).

(8) Deliberate steps taken to diminish the wealth and power of the Church in Roman Catholic states: illustrated by the combined attack upon the Jesuits, and by the suppression of the Inquisition in Parma (1768), in Lombardy (1775), in Tuscany (1782), in Sicily (1782), and its modification in Portugal (1769), and by the measures taken for reducing the number of bishops and monks, by the Emperor Joseph II., the Grand Duke Leopold of Tuscany, Tanucci, and the Elector Charles Theodore of Bavaria.

The essential weakness of the enlightened despots was their attempt to do everything without considering whether the people were prepared for reform; further, there could be no guarantee for the continuance of their work.

Great services rendered by the enlightened despots of the 18th century to the cause of civilization and progress in Europe.

Authorities: There exists no single book devoted to the history and the work of the enlightened despots of the 18th century in Europe, but reference may be made to *Morse Stephens*, European History, 1789-1815, chapter i., for a brief sketch of their position, and to *Sorel*, L'Europe et la Révolution française, vol. i.

LECTURE 52.

LITERATURE AND PHILOSOPHY IN THE 18TH CENTURY.

Characteristics of 18th century literature: it is an age of polished prose rather than of poetry; dominated at first by severe classicism, it is later affected by sentimentalism, and ends with a return to simple naturalism.

Importance of 18th century literature: its influence on politics; its effect on the enlightened despots; its share in paving the way for the ideas of the French Revolution; the epoch of patrons; the position held by men of letters.

Services rendered by 18th century literature in making known the discoveries of experimental science; the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*.

French literature in the 18th century: decline of poetry; the drama; tragedy; Voltaire (1694-1778); comedy; Marivaux (1688-1763); Crébillon (1674-1762); dramatic criticism; Diderot; importance of the French stage; epic poetry; its decline: Voltaire's Henriade; other poets; Gresset (1709-1777); prose writers; historians; Vertot (1655-1735), Voltaire, Rulhière (1735-1791); fiction; Lesage (1668-1747), Gil Blas; Prevost (1697-1763), Manon Lescaut; Bernardin de Saint-Pierre (1737-1814), Paul et Virginie; theology; the preacher Massillon (1663-1742); the chief French writers turned their attention to political, philosophical and social questions; Montesquieu (1689-1755), Esprit des lois; Holbach (1723-1789); Helvétius (1715-1771); Raynal (1713-1796); Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778); his political philosophy, the Contrat Social; his theory of education, Émile; his sentimentality, the Nouvelle Héloise; the Encyclopædists; Diderot (1713-1784); D'Alembert (1717-1783); the typical man of letters of the 18th century, Voltaire; his character, literary merits and influence.

English literature in the 18th century: influence of classicism; the Age of Anne; Pope (1688–1744); Swift (1667–1745); Addison (1672–1719), Steele (1671–1729), and the *Spectator;* Bolingbroke (1678–1751); Defoe (1663–1731); the middle period of the century; sentimentalism; Sterne (1713–1768); Johnson (1709–1784), and his influence; Goldsmith (1728–1774); poetry; Gray (1716–1771); return to nature; Cowper (1731–1800); Burns (1759–1796); fiction; Richardson (1743–1814), Fielding (1707–1754), Smollett (1721–1771); history; Robertson (1721–1793); Hume (1711–1776); Gibbon (1737–1794); classical scholarship; Bentley (1662–1742); Porson (1759–1808).

Italian literature in the 18th century: its decadence; influence of the academies; poets and play-wrights; Metastasio (1698–1782); Goldoni (1707–1793); Gozzi (1713–1786); Parini (1729–99); Alfieri (1749–1803); prose writers; Beccaria (1738–1794); Filangieri (1752–1788); the study of history; Muratori (1672–1750); Giannone (1676–1748).

Spanish literature in the 18th century: Isla (1703-1781), Fray Gerundio; its revival under Charles III; the work of academies and literary societies; Campomanes (1723-1802); Jovellanos (1744-1811).

Portuguese literature in the 18th century: revival of Portuguese poetry; Nascimento (1734–1819).

Danish literature in the 18th century: Holberg (1684-1754).

German literature in the 18th century: its beginning and development; the importance of Lessing (1729–1781) as poet and critic; Klopstock (1724–1803); Wieland (1733–1813); Herder (1744–1803); German literature reaches its height with Schiller (1759–1805) and Goethe (1749–1832); causes of the rise of German literature; its significance; its characteristics; the Court of Weimar; the German universities; classical scholarship; Heyne (1729–1812).

Relation of literature to philosophy in the 18th century.

Attitude of philosophical writers toward religion: the French school; Voltaire; Rousseau; D'Alembert; Holbach; Helvétius; the more rigid philosophical thinkers; Condillac (1715–1780); Condorcet (1743–1794); the English Deists; Bishop Butler (1692–1752) and the *Analogy*; the speculative philosophy of Berkeley (1684–1753); Hume (1711–1777); the German philosophers; Wolff (1679–1754); the importance of Kant (1724–1804).

The 18th century writers of political philosophy; influence of Locke and the English thinkers; importance of Montesquieu, Rousseau, and Voltaire; Beccaria and Filangieri; the Abbé de Saint-Pierre (1658–1743).

Political economy and its development in the 18th century: Quesnay (1694-1774); the Marquis de Mirabeau (1715-1789); Adam Smith (1723-1790) and the publication of the Wealth of Nations (1776).

Characteristic features of the literary and philosophical movements of the 18th century.

LECTURE 53.

ART AND SCIENCE IN THE 18TH CENTURY.

The tendency noticed in the 17th century towards the decadence of art, under the influence of conventionality and sentimentalism, increases

in the 18th century, while the development of experimental science led to startling discoveries and their application.

Decline of art in the 18th century: its causes; extended study of the theory of art; Diderot (1713-1784); Reynolds (1723-1792); improvement of education in art; importance of Rome in this respect; revival of the study of ancient Greek art; Winckelmann (1717-1768); development of the arts of engraving and etching; general diffusion of knowledge of the great works of art; royal and noble patronage of art; the formation of the great galleries of Europe; Düsseldorf, Dresden; dilettantism.

The Italian school of painting: the Roman school; Battoni (1708–1787); Raphael Mengs (1728–1779), though German by birth, belonged to this school; the Venetian school: Canaletto the elder (1697–1768); Canaletto the younger (1724–1780); Guardi (1712–1793).

The French school of painting: its representatives in the 18th century; Boucher (1703-1770), and classicism; Watteau (1684-1721), and graceful conventionality; Greuze (1726-1805), and sentimentalism; new ideas introduced by David (1748-1825); his greatness as a draughtsman; his influence on the French school of art.

The English school of painting: Hogarth (1697-1764); his merits and faults; foundation of the Royal Academy (1768); the great English portrait painters; Reynolds (1723-1792); Gainsborough (1727-1788); Romney (1734-1802).

Sculpture: the one great sculptor of the 18th century; Canova (1757-1822); his unique position.

Effect of the increased study of Greek and Roman art: the excavations at Herculaneum and Pompeii; the antiquarians; the Clementine Museum; Visconti the elder (1722-1784); the great collections of gems and of classical antiquities.

Architecture: it continued at first to be dominated by 17th century ideals and pseudo-classicism; imitations of Versailles in Germany and elsewhere; influence of more correct knowledge of classical architecture; Salvi (1699–1751) and Fuga (1699–1780) in Italy; Blondel (1705–1774) and Chalgrin (1789–1811) in France; James Stuart (1713–1788) and Robert Adam (1728–1792) in England.

Gardening: reaction from the classical style of Le Nôtre and from the

formal Dutch garden; cultivation of natural beauty; introduction of landscape gardening; the "English garden"; Kent (1684–1748); "Capability" Brown (1715–1783).

Music in the 18th century: while the graphic arts decline in originality and vitality, music with improvement of musical instruments, the growth of the orchestra, and the better understanding of its theory and principles, became the most original and characteristic expression of 18th century civilization; importance of music as a civilizing agent; immense popularity of the opera; Italy was the home of the opera, which absorbed all minds there; the opera in France, Austria, England; invention and growth of the oratorio in England; development of German music; harmony; the age of the great masters, culminating in Beethoven (1770–1827).

Music in Italy: development of the opera, the mass and the song; melody; the great singers of the 18th century; Farinelli (1705–1782); Caffarelli (1758–1826); the composers of the Neapolitan school; Leo (1694–1742); Piccini (1728–1800); Paisiello (1741–1816); Cimarosa (1749–1801); the Venetian school; the teaching of singing; Porpora (1687–1767).

Music in France: Rameau (1683-1764); the opera in France; the rivalry between Gluck and Piccini; cultivation of musical taste in France in the direction of theatrical music; Grétry (1741-1813); Méhul (1763-1817).

Music in England: the opera; rivalry between Handel and Bononcini; the greatness of Handel (1684–1759); development of the oratorio; church music in England.

Music in Germany: the first great master, Johann Sebastian Bach (1685–1750); the opera in Germany; Gluck (1714–1787); Mozart (1756–1791); Mozart and his influence on the development of music; his operas and masses; his orchestral compositions; music and its head-quarters at Vienna; Haydn (1732–1809); importance of music in German civilization.

Popularity of experimental science in the 18th century: men of science occupied with the application and extension of the scientific knowledge and of the discoveries made in the 17th century; application of science to industrial development.

The great mathematicians: Euler (1707-1783); De Moivre (1667-1754); D'Alembert (1717-1783); Lagrange (1736-1813): Laplace (1749-1827); the *Mécanique céleste*; Monge (1746-1818) and descriptive geometry.

The great biologists: Morgagni (1682–1771) and anatomy; Spallanzani (1719–1799) and his discoveries on the nature of blood; introduction of vaccination; Jenner (1749–1823).

The great naturalists: Buffon (1707–1788); Daubenton (1716–18∞); Lacépède (1756–1825); Lamarck (1744–1829).

The great botanists: Linnæus (1707-1778) and his classification of plants; Jussieu (1747-1836) and the natural order.

The great mineralogists and geologists: Werner (1750–1817); Haüy (1743–1822) the founder of mineralogy; Dolomieu (1750–1801).

The great astronomers: Clairaut (1713–1765); Maupertuis (1698–1756); Bradley (1692–1762); Herschel (1738–1822) and the discovery of Uranus; Lalande (1732–1807); Bailly (1736–1793) and the history of astronomy.

The great physicists: influence of Newton (1642-1727); Franklin (1706-1790) and electricity; Volta (1745-1827) and the voltaic pile; Galvani (1737-1798) and galvanism; Réaumur (1683-1757) and the improvements in the thermometer; Fontana (1730-1803); influence of the discoveries of Priestley and Lavoisier on physics.

The great chemists: Cavendish (1731–1810); Lavoisier (1743–1794) and Priestley (1733–1805), and the resolution of air and water into their component parts; Berthollet (1748–1822); Scheele (1742–1786).

The first balloons (1783); Étienne Montgolfier (1740-1799; Joseph Montgolfier (1745-1810); Pilâtre de Rozier (1756-1785).

Application of scientific discoveries: Watt (1736–1819), and the steam engine; Boulton (1728–1809); Hargreaves (d. 1770), Arkwright (1732–1792), Crompton (1753–1827) and Cartwright (1743–1823) and the development of textile industry.

Improvements in civil engineering: extension of canals; the Duke of Bridgewater (1736–1803) and Brindley (1716–1772) in England; the Ladoga canal in Russia; Münnich (1683–1767); other canals; draining of marshes; harbour improvements; lighthouses; Smeaton (1724–1792); foundation of the École des ponts et chaussées (1747); the work of Perronet (1708–1794).

The practical character of the 18th century is to be seen in its application of science to human needs.

et

LECTURE 54.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The elections to the States-General: Mounier (b. 1758, d. 1806) and Sieyès (b. 1748, d. 1836); "the revolt of the curés"; the cahiers.

Meeting of the States-General (5 May, 1789): the struggle between the Orders; the States-General declared to be the National Assembly (17 June); the Oath of the Tennis Court (20 June); the séance royale (23 June); Mirabeau (b. 1749); concentration of troops around Paris; capture of the Bastille (14 July); visit of Louis XVI to Paris (17 July); Bailly (b. 1736, d. 1793) appointed Mayor and La Fayette (b. 1757, d. 1834) Commander of the National Guard of Paris.

Anarchy in France: breakdown of the administrative system; the "great fear"; restoration of order by local effort.

The Constituent Assembly at Versailles: the Declaration of the Rights of Man; the night of 4 August; the questions of royal veto on legislation and of one or two houses in the legislature; approach of national bankruptcy; Necker and Mirabeau.

The King and royal family brought to Paris (6 Oct., 1789), followed by the Assembly; character and policy of La Fayette.

The work of the Constituent Assembly: the Constitution of 1791; division of France into departments; establishment of elective local government; abolition of the old law courts, and creation of a new judicial system; the civil constitution of the clergy and its results; the mania for election; weakening of the central executive authority; abolition of the relics of feudalism; the financial situation and its results; first issue of assignats.

Political history of the Constituent Assembly: effective authority passes from the King to the Assembly; its refusal to undertake openly the responsibility of executive government; decree of 7 Nov., 1789; disorganization of the civil administration, of the army and the navy;

repression of the military mutiny at Nancy by Bouillé (31 Aug., 1790); the advice to the Court and the plans of Mirabeau; death of Mirabeau (2 Apr., 1791); nature of the opposition to the Revolution; attitude of the Court; attitude of the Church; the émigrés; enthusiasm of the people for the Revolution; the Federation of 14 July, 1790.

The foreign policy of the Constituent Assembly: the debate on the declaration of peace and war (May, 1790); danger of foreign war; Mirabeau, reporter of the Diplomatic Committee; the three questions which gave rise to foreign complications: (1) the affair of Avignon; (2) the affair of Nootka Sound, involving the maintenance of the Pacte de Famille; (3) interference with the rights of the Princes of the Empire in Alsace.

Endeavors of Mirabeau to avoid foreign war; the Queen, Marie Antoinette, looked to her brother, the Emperor Leopold II, for help; the people believed the Court desirous of suppressing the Revolution by calling in foreign aid.

The flight to Varennes (21 June, 1791): its effect; definite and open breach between the King and the Revolution; the massacre of the Champ de Mars (17 July, 1791); the Manifesto of Padua issued by the Emperor Leopold (6 July); the Declaration of Pilnitz, signed by the Emperor Leopold and Frederick William II. of Prussia, threatening France (27 Aug.); the Constitution of 1791 accepted by Louis XVI.; dissolution of the Constituent Assembly (21 Sept.).

Growth of public opinion: means of influencing it; importance of the newspaper press; the journalists; Marat (b. 1744, d. 1793), Camille Desmoulins (b. 1762, d. 1794), and Loustalot (b. 1762, d. 1790); importance of the clubs; the Jacobin Club; the Cordeliers Club; the provincial clubs.

The Municipality or Commune of Paris.

The Legislative Assembly: influence of the Girondin orators; their war policy; Brissot (b. 1754, d. 1793); their decrees against the émigrés; Louis XVI.'s demands of the Rhenish Electors; French armies raised and directed to the frontier under Rochambeau, La Fayette and Lückner; debates on the expediency of war with Austria in the Legislative Assembly and in the Jacobin Club; declared opposition to the alliance with Austria; attitude of the Emperor Leopold; his death (1 March

1792); war declared by France against Austria (20 Apr., 1792); the policy of Dumouriez (b. 1739, d. 1823); position of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette.

Europe and the French Revolution: contemptuous views originally held by foreign rulers who believed that the Revolution would destroy the position of France among the nations; apprehension felt, as time went on, in the states bordering on France of the contagion of democratic principles; admiration at first felt in England for the French Revolution; effect of Burke's writings; attitude towards the French Revolution of the Tsaritsa Catherine, Frederick William II. of Prussia, and Gustavus III. of Sweden.

Effect of the outbreak of war on the development and internal history of the French Revolution.

Authorities: The best small books on the French Revolution are Mignet, Histoire de la Révolution française, translated into English; Carnot, La Révolution française; and B. M. Gardiner, The French Revolution; Morse Stephens. Europe, 1789-1815, lays special weight on the European relations of the Revolution. Among secondary histories, Carlyle, The French Revolution, is a prose epic but not a trustworthy history; Michelet's history is likewise rather a rhapsody than a history; Louis Blanc and Thiers are out of date; Taine, La Révolution, is able and interesting, but prejudiced; Morse Stephens, History of the French Revolution, vol. 1 (1789-91), vol. 2 (1791-1793) is an attempt to summarize the latest authorities. Among secondary works of a special character may be noted; for the elections to the States-General, Chassin, Le génie de la Révolution; for the cahiers, Champion, La France de 1789 d'après les cahiers; for Mirabeau, Loménie. Les Mirabeau, 5 vols., Mézières, Vie de Mirabeau, and Stern. Das Leben Mirabeaus: for the financial history, Stourm, Les finances de l'Ancien Régime et de la Révolution: for the ecclesiastical history, Sciout, Histoire de la constitution civile du clergé: for the army, Duruy, L'armée royale en 1789, Iung, Dubois-Crancé, and Maire, Histoire de l'affaire de Nancy; for the flight to Varennes, Fournel, L'événement de Varennes, and Browning, The Flight to Varennes; and for a careful and modern sketch of the statesmen of the period, Aulard, Les Orateurs de l'Assemblée Constituante, and Les Orateurs de la Législative et de la Convention. Numerous volumes on the Revolution in the provinces have been published, among which may be noted Seilhac, Scènes et portraits de la Révolution en Bas-Limousin, Desmasures, Histoire de la Révolution dans le départment de l'Aisne, Bouvier, Les Vosges pendant la Révolution, Lecesne, Arras sous la Révolution, Babeau, Troyes pendant la Révolution, and the numerous volumes on Auvergne published by Mège. Upon the foreign policy of the Revolution and the relations of Revolutionary France with Europe all earlier books have been superseded by Sorel, L'Europe et la Révolution française; but reference may also be made to Sybel. Geschichte der Revolutionszeit von 1789 bis 1800, 5 vols., of which the first 3 vols, have been translated into English by Perry. With regard to primary authorities, notice must first be taken of such contemporary histories as Rabaut Saint-Étienne, Précis historique de la Révolution française, Lameth, Histoire de l'Assemblée constituante, "Deux Amis", Histoire de la Révolution française, and of the files of contemporary newspapers, especially the Moniteur, of which a reprint was published in 1850. Many valuable collections of documents, very carefully edited, have recently been published at the expense of the French government, of the municipality of Paris, etc., among which should be noted the Archives Parlementaires ed. Mavidal and Laurent; Recueil des actes relatifs à la convocation des États Généraux de 1789, ed. Brette; Assemblée électorale de Paris, ed. Charavay; Les élections et les cahiers de Paris en 1789, ed. Chassin, and La Société des Jacobins, ed. Aulard. Many documents of value have likewise been published by the Société de l'histoire de la Révolution française, and by the Société d'histoire contemporaine, and have appeared in the special periodicals devoted to Revolutionary History, namely the Revue de la Révolution, which came to an end in 1889, and the Révolution Française, ed. Aulard, which is still in course of publication. Numerous memoirs have been published in the collections edited by Berville and Barrière, and by Barrière and Lescure, among which may be specially noted those of Bailly, Bouillé, Ferrières, Brissot and Weber; not published in these collections may be noted the Mémoires of Malouet, Mallet du Pan, Beugnot and Bertrand de Moleville. Of primary importance for Mirabeau's policy is his Correspondance avec La Marck, ed. Bacourt. Mirabeau's most important speeches have been published in Morse Stephens, Orators of the French Revolution.

For the attitude of foreign countries towards the French Revolution, see in addition to Sorel, Burke, Reflections on the Revolution in France; Mackintosh, Vindiciæ Gallicæ; Romilly, Memoirs; Gower, Despatches from Paris 1790-92. ed. Browning; Jefferson, Writings, ed Ford and Memoir, Correspondence and Miscellanies, ed. Randolph; Gouverneur Morris, Memorial, and Diary and Letters; Geffroy, Gustaye III. et la cour de France, and Larivière, Catherine II. et la Révolution française.

LECTURE 55.

THE BELGIAN REVOLUTION, AND THE POLICY OF THE EMPEROR LEOPOLD II.

The extent of insurrectionary feeling in the Austrian dominions in 1789: contrast between the popular movements in the Austrian dominions and in France; causes of this contrast.

The opposition to the policy of Joseph II. reached its height in the Austrian Netherlands.

The Belgian Revolution of 1789: Maria Theresa's government of the Austrian Netherlands; the administrations of Charles of Lorraine (1744–81) and of the Archduchess Maria Christina (1781–93); Joseph's policy in the Austrian Netherlands; he enraged the Belgians, (1) by his political measures infringing their local liberties and rights of local self-government; (2) by his religious policy and attempts to introduce secular education; the clerical opposition led by Cardinal Frankenberg, Archbishop of Malines; stern suppression of riots in the Belgian cities; Joseph abolished the constitution of Hainault (31 Jan., 1789), and of Brabant (18 June, 1789); the Belgian exiles, encouraged by the Triple Alliance, raised an army at Breda.

The army of Belgian patriots under Van der Mersch crossed the frontier (23 Oct.): general insurrection; evacuation of Brussels (12 Dec.), and abandonment of the Catholic Netherlands by the Austrian troops; meeting of a general convention at Brussels; constitution promulgated for the Belgian Republic (10 Jan., 1790); formation of the United States of Belgium; influence of Van der Noot (b. 1735, d. 1827); independence declared; death of the Emperor Joseph (20 Feb., 1790).

The two parties in Belgium—the Van der Nootists or Statists, and the Vonckists or Democrats: the Statists persecuted the Democrats, and drove their leaders from the country; jealousy felt of Van der Noot; the Emperor Leopold offered to restore the government of the Austrian Netherlands as it had existed under Maria Theresa; the offer rejected by the Belgian leaders; the country entirely re-occupied by the Austrians without a blow (Nov.—Dec., 1790).

Comparison of the Belgian with the French Revolution.

The Revolution in Liége: the people of Liége rose in insurrection and expelled the Prince-Bishop (16–18 Aug., 1789); the Prussians restored the authority of the Bishop (Nov., 1789); the Austrians eventually occupied Liége, at the request of the princes of the neighboring Circle, and restored the Bishop (13 Jan., 1791).

The Emperor Leopold II (b. 1747): condition of Austrian affairs at the time of his accession (20 Feb., 1790); his character and previous career as Grand Duke of Tuscany; succeeded in Tuscany by his second son, the Archduke Ferdinand.

Internal policy of Leopold: his concessions to the insurgents and malcontents in the different provinces of the House of Hapsburg; he gave up Joseph's schemes of unification and restored local government and liberties to provinces not in open insurrection; he maintained Joseph's edict of religious toleration and many other reforms, and quieted the fear among the people of further innovations.

Leopold's foreign policy: first period; he determined to make peace with the Turks and to frustrate the schemes of Prussia by breaking up the Triple Alliance; the relations between Prussia and Poland; the Treaty of 29 March, 1790, by which the Poles agreed to cede Thorn and Dantzig to Prussia in exchange for the retrocession of Austrian Galicia: Leopold convinced England and the Dutch that he would hand over the Austrian Netherlands to France if they supported Prussia in its schemes against Austria; the Prussians concentrated an army in Silesia and Leopold an army in Bohemia; the Conference of Reichenbach (June, 1790); by the Convention of Reichenbach (27 July), Austria engaged to make peace with the Turks, the Triple Alliance guaranteed the restoration of Austrian authority in the Netherlands. and Prussia promised to withdraw its support from the malcontents in Hungary and Belgium, and to support Leopold's candidature for the imperial throne; great diplomatic victory thus won by Leopold; dismissal of Hertzberg from the Prussian foreign office.

Leopold and the Turks: the Armistice of Giurgevo (19 Sept., 1790); by the Treaty of Sistova (4 Aug., 1791) Austria obtained from the Turks Old Orsova and part of Croatia.

Leopold and the Hungarians: the position in Hungary consequent on the measures taken by Joseph; the Magyar nobles assumed semi-independence, and sent envoys to Reichenbach; Leopold marched an army to Pesth; he refused to grant semi-independence to Hungary and appointed his fourth son, Alexander Leopold, to be Palatine of Hungary (12 Nov., 1790); submission of the Magyars; Leopold crowned King of Hungary (15 Nov.); concessions made to the national pride of the Magyars.

Leopold and the Empire: crowned Emperor (9 Oct., 1790); his steps to win back the leadership of the German princes, which Prussia had secured by the formation of the Fürstenbund in 1785; he availed him-

self of the opportunity afforded by the disgust of the German princes at the measures taken by the French Constituent Assembly with regard to the rights of the Princes of the Empire in Alsace.

Position of Leopold in 1791: success of his diplomacy; he had restored Austria to the position she had lost under Joseph II.; he had won the support of the Triple Alliance; his attitude towards France.

Leopold's foreign policy: second period; his sister Marie Antoinette appealed to him for armed help; Leopold's dislike for war; the Manifesto of Padua (6 July, 1791); Leopold desired to maintain the power of Louis XVI. because the Franco-Austrian alliance-depended upon it; he persuaded the King of Prussia to issue the Declaration of Pilnitz with him (27 Aug., 1791); he protested, as Emperor, against the violation of the rights of the Princes of the Empire in Alsace (3 Dec.) and defended the Rhenish princes for sheltering French émigrés (14 Dec.); in this position he was heartily supported by the Diet of the Empire; signature of an offensive and defensive alliance with Frederick William II. of Prussia (7 Feb., 1792); death of Leopold (1 March).

Assassination of Gustavus III. of Sweden (29 March, 1792); his brother Charles, Duke of Sudermania, regent during the minority of Gustavus IV., pursued a neutral policy.

Parties at the Court of Prussia: Frederick William II. determined to adhere to the alliance with Austria, and after the death of Leopold became the leader of the alliance.

Francis II., eldest son of Leopold, crowned Emperor (14 July, 1792): the last Holy Roman Emperor.

Victor Amadeus III., King of Sardinia, entered into an alliance with Austria against France (July, 1792).

Conditions under which the war with France commenced.

Authorities: On Belgium in the 18th century and the Belgian Revolution, see Juste, Histoire de la Belgique; Discailles, Les Pays-Bas sous le règne de Marie Thérèse; Piot, Le règne de Marie Thérèse dans les Pays-Bas autrichiens; Borgnet, Histoire des Belges à la fin du XVIIIème siècle; Gachard, Études sur l'histoire des Pays-Bas, and Documents sur la révolution belge de 1790; Poullet, Mémoire sur l'ancienne constitution brabançonne; A. Wolf, Maria Christina, Erzherzogin von Esterreich, and Leopold II. und Maria Christina, ihr Briefwechsel; Magnette, Joseph II. et la liberté de l'Escaut, 1781-85; Delplace, Joseph II. et la révolution brabançonne; Juste, La révolution brabançonne, Les Vonckistes, La république

belge, and Le comte de Mercy-Argenteau et l'abandon de la Belgique; Verhägen, Le cardinal de Frankenberg; Theiner, Jean-Henri, comte de Frankenberg, cardinal-archévêque de Malines et sa lutte pour la liberté de l'Eglise ; Lorenz, Kaiser Joseph II. und die Belgische Revolution, nach den Papieren des Grafen Murray, in his Drei Bücher Geschichte und Politik; Zeissherg, Zwei Jahre Belgischer Geschichte (in the Sitzungsberichte des kaiserlichen Akademie zur Wissenschaft, 1801): Arneth and Flammermont, Correspondance secrète du Comte de Mercy-Argenteau avec l'empereur Joseph II. et le prince de Kaunitz ; Discailles, Le général Van der Mersch avant la révolution brabançonne, and Alexandre de Bronx; Galesloot, Chronique des événements les plus remarquables arrivés à Bruxelles (1780-1827); Gérard, Rapedius de Berg, mémoires et documents pour servir à l'histoire de la révolution brabanconne; Van de Spiegel, Zijne Tijdgenooten, ed. Vreede, and Staes. De Belgische Republiek van 1790. On the revolution in Liége, see Borgnet, Histoire de la révolution liégeoise de 1789; C. W. von Dohm, Die Lütticher Revolution von 1789, and Chestret, Papiers de Jean Remi de Chestret pour servir à l'histoire de la révolution liégeoise. For the policy of Leopold, see Schels, Geschichte Æsterreichs unter der Regierung Leopolds II.; Zeissberg, Kaiser Leopold II. (in Allgemeine Deutsche Biographie); Sorel, L'Europe et la Révolution française; Von Sybel, Geschichte der Revolutionszeit; Vivenot, Quellen zur Geschichte der deutschen Kaiserpolitik Esterreichs während der Französischen Revolutionskriege; Hüffer, Diplomatische Verhandlungen aus der Zeit der Französischen Revolution: Beer, Joseph II., Leopold II. und Kaunitz, and Leopold II., Franz II. und Catharina, ihre Correspondenz, nebst einer Einleitung zur Geschichte der Politik Leopolds II.; Vivenot, Die Politik des æsterreichischen Staatskanzlers Fürsten Kaunitz-Rietberg unter Kaiser Leopold II., and Creux, Pitt et Frédéric Guillaume II., l'Angleterre et la Prusse devant la question d'Orient en 1790 et 1791,

LECTURE 56.

THE WAR OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC AGAINST EUROPE.

French reverses at the commencement of the war: the invasion of the Tuileries (20 June, 1792); the proclamation of the Duke of Brunswick; the plan of campaign; the Austrians invaded French Flanders, and the Prussians, Lorraine and Champagne; rapid advance of the invaders; excitement in Paris; general belief in France that the Court sympathized with the invaders; capture of the Tuileries and suspension of the King (10 Aug.); summons of a National Convention.

Desperate efforts made for the defense of France: the work of Danton (b. 1759, d. 1794) and of Vergniaud (b. 1759, d. 1793); desertion of La Fayette (20 Aug.); capture of Verdun by the Prussians (2 Sept.); the massacres in the prisons of Paris (2-6 Sept.); the Prussians repulsed by Dumouriez at Valmy (20 Sept.); retreat of the Duke of Brunswick; gallant defense of Lille.

Meeting of the National Convention (20 Sept., 1792); declaration of the French Republic; parties in the Convention; the Girondins and the Mountain; the Marsh or Plain; Louvet's attack on Robespierre (29 Oct.) and Robespierre's reply (5 Nov.).

Successes of the French armies: attack made upon the King of Sardinia; Montesquiou occupied Savoy, and Anselme, Nice (Sept., 1792); Custine invaded Germany and took Spires (1 Oct.), Worms (4 Oct.) and Mayence (21 Oct.); Dumouriez invaded the Austrian Netherlands, defeated the Austrians at Jemappes (6 Nov.), and occupied the whole of Belgium and Liége; excitement and delight caused in France by these successes; the Revolutionary Propaganda; decree of 19 November; Savoy declared annexed to the French Republic (27 Nov.), and Belgium (15 Dec.).

The debates in the Convention; trial of Louis XVI.; his execution (21 Jan., 1793).

Dumouriez's plan for conquering the United Provinces: France declared war against King George III. and the Stadtholder William V. (1 Feb., 1793); other countries joined in the war against France, namely, Spain, Portugal, Tuscany, the Two Sicilies, and eventually, on 22 March, the Holy Roman Empire; Sweden, Denmark, Switzerland, Geneva, Genoa, Venice, the Turks and the United States of America remained neutral; attitude of the Tsaritsa Catherine.

Change in the character of the war: want of discipline in the French army and navy; England became the paymaster of the coalition; the policy of Pitt and Grenville in England; Thugut (b. 1734, d. 1818) became chief minister in Austria, and Haugwitz (b. 1752, d. 1832) in Prussia.

Campaign of the spring and summer of 1793: failure of Dumouriez's military operations (Feb.-March); the Austrians under the Prince of Coburg defeated Dumouriez at Neerwinden (18 March), and, with the

help of the English under the Duke of York, drove the French out of Belgium; desertion of Dumouriez (5 April); the English and Austrian army invaded France and took Condé (15 July) and Valenciennes (28 July); Custine driven from Germany (March); the Prussians under Brunswick took Mayence (23 July), crossed the frontier (August) and defeated the French at Pirmasens (14 Sept.); the Austrians and Imperialists under Wurmser invaded Alsace, laid siege to Landau, and carried the lines of Wissembourg (13 Oct.); French attacks repulsed by the Sardinians; Toulon occupied by the English and Spaniards under Hood and Langara (28 Aug.); the Spaniards invaded France at both ends of the Pyrenees.

Effect of these disasters on the Convention: decree for the levy of 300,000 men (24 Feb.); establishment of the Revolutionary Tribunal (9 March) and of the first Committee of Public Safety (7 Apr.); struggle between the Girondins and the Mountain; overthrow of the Girondins (31 May-2 June).

Outbreak of civil war: the insurrection in the Vendée; the rising in Normandy; revolt of Bordeaux, Lyons, Marseilles and Toulon.

The Constitution of 1793; formation of the Great Committee of Public Safety (July-Sept., 1793); it established the Reign of Terror.

The Reign of Terror in France: the Law of the Maximum; the Law of the Suspects (17 Sept.); suspension of the Constitution of 1793 and autocracy of the Great Committee; causes of the power of the Great Committee; its chief means for maintaining its authority: (1) the Revolutionary Tribunal; executions in Paris; (2) the Representatives on Mission; their repression of internal disturbances; the Great Committee restored discipline in the army and navy, and concentrated the resources of France for the foreign war; incidents of the Reign of Terror; the Worship of Reason; the Novades at Nantes.

Campaign of the fall and winter of 1793: plans of Carnot (b. 1753. d. 1823); Houchard raised the siege of Dunkirk and defeated the Duke of York at Hondschoten (8 Sept.); Jourdan (b. 1762, d. 1833) raised the siege of Maubeuge and defeated the Prince of Coburg at Wattignies (16 Oct.); Hoche (b. 1768, d. 1797), after being defeated by the Prussians at Kaiserslautern (28–30 Nov.), combined operations with Pichegru (b. 1761, d. 1804); battle of the Geisberg (26 Dec.); relief of

Landau (28 Dec.); retreat of the Prussians to Mayence; the Austrians and Imperialists driven across the Rhine; Toulon recovered by Dugommier (19 Dec.); the Spaniards driven across the Pyrenees; capture of Lyons (9 Oct.) and defeats of the Vendéans at Le Mans (12 Dec.) and Savenay (22 Dec.).

Opposition to the Great Committee of Public Safety and to the Reign of Terror in the Convention and in Paris; execution of the Hébertists (24 March, 1794) and of the Dantonists (5 April); increased stringency of the Reign of Terror; the position of Robespierre (b. 1758); decree establishing the Worship of the Supreme Being (7 May).

Naval operations: occupation of Corsica by the English under Hood and Graham (May-June, 1794); George III. offered the throne of Corsica (June); conquest of the French West Indies by Grey and Jervis; Martinique (22 March, 1794), Tobago and Guadeloupe (April, 1794); the situation in San Domingo; occupation of the French settlements in India (1793); attempt of Jeanbon Saint-André to revive the French navy; defeat of the Brest fleet by Howe (b. 1722, d. 1799) in the Battle of the First of June (1794).

Campaign of 1794: organization of the volunteer army; work of Dubois-Crancé; victories of the French armies; Jourdan defeated the Austrians at Fleurus (26 June), and with Pichegru occupied Belgium; René Moreaux (b. 1758, d. 1795) defeated the Prussians near Kaisers-lautern (12–14 July) and occupied Trèves (9 Aug.); the French defeated the Sardinians on the Italian frontier and occupied the passes of the Alps (May); invasion of Spain by Dagobert and Muller at both ends of the Pyrenees (May–June).

With the French victories and the repulse of the invaders the necessity for submitting to the Reign of Terror ceased; identification of Robespierre and his friends with the Reign of Terror; the Revolution of 9 Thermidor (27 July); execution of Robespierre and his friends (28 July); end of the Reign of Terror.

Characteristics of the Reign of Terror in France; triumph of the French Republic over the powers of Europe.

Authorities: In addition to the general works cited under Lecture 54 should be noted the following special secondary works: For the summer of 1792 and the overthrow of the monarchy, Mortimer-Ternaux, Histoire de la Terreur; for

the Girondins. Vatel. Verguiaud: Dauban, Madame Roland: Guadet. Les Girondins, and Biré, La légende des Girondins, which explodes the fancies of Lamartine and others; for the overthrow of the Giroudins, Wallon, La Révolution de 31 Mai, and for the wandering of the escaped deputies, Vatel, Charlotte Corday et les Girondins; for the Committee of Public Safety, Gros, Le Comité de salut public : for the Revolutionary Tribunal, Campardon, Histoire du Tribunal révolutionnaire. and Wallon, Histoire du Tribunal révolutionnaire de Paris, and for the deputies on mission, Wallon, Les Représentants du peuple en mission; for the worship of Reason, Aulard, Le culte de la Raison et le culte de l'Être Suprême : for the army, Rousset, Les volontaires (1791-94), and Iung, Dubois-Crancé; for the navy. Chevalier, Histoire de la marine française sous la première République; James, Naval History of Great Britain (1793-1820); Jollivet, Les Anglais dans la Méditerranée (1794-97), un royaume Anglo Corse; Mahan, Influence of Sea-Power upon the French Revolution and Empire; for the war upon the frontiers, Chuquet, Les guerres de la Revolution, 9 vols.; Krebs and Moris, Campagnes des Alpes pendant la Révolution; Fervel, Campagnes de la Révolution française dans les Pyrénées orientales, and Ducéré, L'armée des Pyrénées occidentales; and for the Vendéan war, Chassin, La préparation de la guerre de Vendée, and La Vendée Among biographies should be specially noted Robinet, Danton: Hamel, Histoire de Robespierre, and Histoire de Saint-Just; Chevremont, Marat: Avenel, Anacharsis Cloots; Claretie, Camille et Lucile Desmoulins, and Reynaud. Merlin de Thionville. To the primary authorities cited under Lecture 54 should be added Aulard, Recueil des actes du Comité de salut public, and Charavay, La correspondance générale de Carnot; and to the memoirs cited under Lecture 54, the Mémoires of Dumouriez, Madame Roland, Sénart, and Choudieu. together with Lacretelle, Dix années d'épreuves.

LECTURE 57.

7

THE SECOND AND THIRD PARTITIONS OF POLAND.

The reign of Stanislas Poniatovski (b. 1732, elected King of Poland 1764, d. 1798).

The designs of the Tsaritsa Catherine for the further partition of Poland: the Poles after the death of Frederick the Great began to look for help to Prussia, which desired to annex Thorn and Dantzig; the Treaty of Warsaw (29 March, 1790); the action of the Polish en-

12

voys at the Conference of Reichenbach (June, 1790); the independent attitude of Poland in 1790.

Internal reforms effected in Poland during the reign of Stanislas: attempts made to create a national army to take the place of the feudal army, to establish a national system of finance, and to provide a national scheme of education; the aims of the Polish patriots; they desired to make Poland a state instead of a loose confederation of nobles; attitude of Russia, Prussia and Austria towards the reform party in Poland.

Meeting of the Constituent Diet (6 Oct., 1788); it appointed a committee to draw up a new constitution for Poland, raised the national army to 60,000 men, and decreed a large levy of taxes.

The Polish Constitution of 1791: accepted by the Diet (3 May,1791); mainly the work of Kollontai (b. 1752, d. 1812); it abolished the elective monarchy, the liberum veto, the right to confederate and the capitulations; it declared the throne of Poland hereditary in the House of Saxony after the death of Stanislas; it created a regular government conferring the legislative authority on the king, senate and elected chamber, and the executive authority on the king aided by six ministers responsible to the legislature; the middle classes of the cities were admitted to political rights and allowed to elect deputies to the legislature; the nobility agreed to pay taxes to the extent of ten per cent. of their income: serfdom was not abolished, but the Diet declared its willingness to give all arrangements, made between a lord and his serfs for the benefit of the latter, the sanction of the law.

Comparison between the French and the Polish constitutions of 1791. Prussia and Austria at Pilnitz acknowledged the new Polish Constitution, but Catherine of Russia, fearing it would make Poland a strong state, determined to overthrow it; formation of the Confederation of Targovitsa, which protested against the Constitution of 1791, and the abolition of the liberum veto; request of the Confederates to Catherine to aid them; her manifesto declaring herself the guarantor of the ancient Polish Constitution (18 May, 1792); a Russian army under Suvórov invaded Poland; the Russians defeated Joseph Poniatovski at Zielencé (18 June) and Kosciuszko (b. 1746, d. 1817) at Dubienka (17 July); Kollontai and the Polish constitutional leaders driven into exile; a Diet summoned and forced to abrogate the Constitution of 1791.

Frederick William II. of Prussia refused to aid the Polish patriots and sent a Prussian army into Poland; it was owing to his interests in Poland that he decreased his efforts against France after the campaign of Valmy.

Second treaty of partition signed by Catherine and Frederick William (4 Jan., 1793), and agreed to by Stanislas and the Polish Diet at Grodno under the pressure of Russian troops (24 Sept., 1793); by this second partition Russia annexed Minsk, Podolia, Volhynia and Little Russia, while Prussia received Posen, Gnezen, Kalisch and the cities of Dantzig and Thorn; disgust of the Emperor Francis II. and of Thugut at Austria's receiving no share in the second partition of Poland; their resolution that the war with the French Republic should not prevent them from looking after Austrian interests in Poland.

The Polish insurrection of 1794: the standard of national independence raised by Kosciuszko at Cracow (23 March); general insurrection throughout Poland; Kosciuszko defeated the Russians at Raclawice (4 Apr.) and occupied Warsaw (19 Apr.); the Prussians besieged Warsaw (July-Sept., 1794); retirement of the Prussians; invasion of Poland by a Russian army under Suvérov; Kosciuszko defeated and taken prisoner at Macejowice (12 Oct.); capture of Warsaw (9 Nov.); complete overthrow of the patriots.

Third and final partition of Poland (3 Jan., 1795): Prussia received Warsaw and the neighboring provinces; Austria received Cracow and the rest of Galicia; Russia rectified its frontier as arranged in 1793; extinction of Poland as an independent state.

Stanislas Poniatovski removed from Poland (7 Jan., 1795); his abdication (25 Nov., 1795).

Causes of the failure of Poland to maintain her independence; comparison between the Polish insurrection of 1794 and the successful national resistance of France to foreign invaders in the same year.

Influence of Polish affairs upon the progress of the war against France: weakening of the Prussian and Austrian armies upon the French frontier; commencement of dissensions between Prussia and Austria.

Authorities: In addition to Sorel, Von der Brüggen, Ferrand, and Angeberg, cited under Lecture 42, see Lelewel, Geschichte Polens unter Stanislaus Augustus,

translated into German, and his Analyse et parallèle des trois constitutions polonaises de 1791, 1807 et 1815, translated into French; Kalinka, Der vierjährige Polnische Reichstag (1788–1791); Kollontai, Vom Entstehen und Untergange der Polnischen Konstitution vom 3 May, 1791, translated into German by S. B. Linde; Bain, The Second Partition of Poland (Eng. Hist. Rev., vol. 6); Adam Czartoryski, Mémoires et Correspondance; Oginski, Mémoires sur la Pologne et les Polonais de 1788 à 1815; Smitt, Suworrow und Polens Untergang; Herrmann, Die Esterreichisch-Preussische Allianz von 7 Feb., 1792, und die zweite Theilung Polens; Zeissberg, Geschichte der Raümung Belgiens und des Polnischen Aufstandes, 1794 (in the Archiv für Esterreichische Geschichte, Vol. lxxii.); Vivenot, Quellen zur Geschichte der deutschen Kaiserpolitik Esterreichs während der Französ schen Revolutionskriege, vol. v.; Sybel, Geschichte der Revolutionszeit; and Sorel, L'Europe et la Révolution française.

LECTURE 58.

THE TREATIES OF BASLE.

The government of the Thermidorians in France: they continued the system of vigorous organization and centralization initiated by the Great Committee of Public Safety, but discontinued the bloodshed of the Reign of Terror.

The internal policy of the Thermidorians: they retained the supremacy of the Committees of Government and the power of the Deputies on Mission; rising cry for vengeance against the Terrorists; execution of Carrier (16 Dec., 1794); decree closing the Jacobin Club (12 Nov., 1794) and repeal of the Law of the Maximum (24 Dec., 1794); readmission to the Convention of most of the proscribed Girondins (8 Dec., 1794), and of the remainder (8 March, 1795).

Foreign policy of the Thermidorians: the continued victories of the republican armies changed the attitude of France from that of a nation fighting for existence to that of a conqueror; Merlin of Douai (b. 1754, d. 1838) defined the bases on which France might honorably make peace (4 Dec., 1794), and the Convention finally abandoned the idea of the Revolutionary Propaganda.

Campaign of 1794-5:

The French under Pichegru conquered the Protestant Netherlands: occupation of Amsterdam and capture of the Dutch fleet in the Texel (20 Jan., 1795); withdrawal of the English army to England; the Thermidorians refused to annex the Protestant Netherlands; return of the Dutch "Patriots" who had been exiled in 1787; organization of the Batavian Republic; the mission of Sieyès and Reubell; alliance signed between the French and Batavian Republics (16 May, 1795).

Jourdan defeated the Austrians at Aldenhoven (2 Oct., 1794), and occupied Aix-la-Chapelle, Bonn, Cologne (9 Oct.) and Coblentz (22 Oct.); two French armies invaded Spain, that of the Eastern Pyrenees under Dugommier took Figuéras (27 Nov., 1794) and under Perignon took Rosas (3 Feb., 1795) and that of the Western Pyrenees under Moncey took Vittoria (17 July, 1795) and Bilbao (19 July); defeat by Hoche of the émigrés landed at Quiberon Bay from English ships (July, 1795).

Result of French victories at home and abroad.

Increasing vehemence of the attacks on the Terrorist leaders; the Thermidorians ousted from power by the returned Girondins and deputies of the Marsh; influence of the Jeunesse Dorée in Paris; popular insurrections and attacks on the Convention on 12 Germinal (1 April, 1795), and on 1 Prairial (20 May); disarmament of the Faubourg Saint-Antoine; execution of Fouquier-Tinville (8 May) and abolition of the Revolutionary Tribunal (31 May); reaction in the provinces against the Terrorists; the "White Terror" in the South; preparations made for drawing up a new constitution for France; death of the Dauphin, de jure Louis XVII. (8 June).

Changed attitude of Europe towards France: general readiness to make peace with France, now that she had abandoned the Revolutionary Propaganda and had shown herself too formidable to be conquered; commencement of negotiations for peace; treaty of peace signed with Tuscany (9 Feb., 1795); the French Republic thus received into the comity of nations.

The negotiations at Basle between Barthélemy (b. 1750, d. 1830) for France and Hardenberg (b. 1750, d. 1822) for Prussia: the demands made by the French Republic; the question of the natural limits of

France; treaty of peace signed with Prussia (5 April, 1795); line of demarcation established, protecting the Northern States of Germany from French invasion; importance of this provision, which placed North Germany under obligations to Prussia; by a secret article Prussia recognized the river Rhine as a natural boundary of France, and promised to cede all her possessions on the left bank in exchange for ecclesiastical states to be secularized in Germany.

The Treaty of Basle with Prussia followed by other treaties signed at the same place: the most important, the treaty of peace with Spain (22 July); the political situation in Spain; power of Godoy (b.1767, d. 1851), the Queen's lover, who was created Prince of the Peace.

Other treaties signed at Basle: with Hesse-Cassel (28 Aug.), and other German states.

Importance of the Treaties of Basle in the history of Europe: Prussia's assent to the proposition that the French boundary should be the Rhine, thus diminishing the Empire, and her readiness to further break up the Empire by annexing ecclesiastical territory.

Austria's reasons for continuing the war: the policy of Thugut; negotiations for the exchange of Madame Royale, daughter of Louis XVI., for certain deputies of the Convention held prisoners by Austria.

Persistence of England in continuing the war; influence of the advice of the French émigrés; popular feeling in England with regard to the French Republic; Pitt and Grenville refused to believe in the stability of the government in France.

Work of the Thermidorians: sudden change in the position of France from an invaded country, seemingly on the point of dissolution, to a victorious and triumphant nation.

Authorities: No authoritative work exists upon the government of the Thermidorians and hardly any documents of importance have been published on this period. The most useful secondary work on the period is contained in the various articles by Sorel in the Revue Historique, with the same author's more exhaustive treatment of the foreign policy in his L'Europe et la Révolution française, vol. 4. The most accessible primary authorities are Fain, Manuscrit de 1' an III.; Aulard, Paris pendant la réaction thermidorienne et sous le Directoire, and Schmidt, Tableaux de la Révolution française, which contains the reports of the spies on the condition of Paris. The material collected by Schmidt was worked up by him in his Pariser Zustände während der Revolutionszeit, which has

been translated into French by Viollet. For the rising of Prairial, see Claretie, Les derniers Montagnards, and Wallon, Les Représentants du peuple en mission, vol. 5; for the royalist risings, Daudet, La réaction royaliste au Midi en 1795: for the affair at Quiberon, Thomas de Closmadeuc, Quiberon, 1795, and Chassin, Le général Hoche à Quiberon; and for the conquest and reorganization of Holland, Legrand, La Révolution française en Hollande la République batave; and of Belgium, Lanzac de Laborie, La Domination francaise en Belgique (1795-1814). For the Treaties of Basle and the events leading to them, see Sorel, L'Europe et la Révolution française and La Paix de Bale (Revue Historique, vols. 5-7); Häusser, Deutsche Geschichte vom Tode Friedrichs des Grossen bis zur Gründung des deutschen Bundes: Heigel. Deutsche Geschichte vom Tode Friedrichs des Grossen bis zur Auflösung des alten Reichs; Philippson, Geschichte des preussischen Staatswesens vom Tode Friedrichs des Grossen; Sybel, Geschichte der Revolutionszeit; Gentz, Über den Ursprung und Charakter des Kriegs gegen die französische Revolution; Zeissberg, Zur deutsche Kaiserpolitik Esterreichs: ein Beitrag zur Geschichte des Revolutionsjahre, 1795 (Stzungberichte der Kaiserlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften 1889); Hüffer, Diplomatische Verhandlungen aus der Zeit der französischen Revolution; Vivenot and Zeissberg, Quellen zur Geschichte der deutschen Kaiserpolitik Esterreichs während der französischen Revolutionskriege; Vivenot, Vertrauliche Briefe des Freiherrn von Thugut (1790-1801), Herzog Albrecht von Sachsen-Teschen als Reichsfeldmarschall, Thugut, Clerfait und Wurmser (1794-97). and Zur Geschichte des Baseler Friedens; Witzleben, Prinz Friedrich Josias von Coburg-Saalfeld, Herzog zu Sachsen; Combes, Mémoire sur la correspondance officielle de Merlin de Thionville relativement aux négociations de Bâle; and above all, Kaulek, Papiers de Barthélemy, ambassadeur de France en Suisse, 1792-97.

LECTURE 59.

THE FRENCH DIRECTORY, AND THE FIRST VICTORIES OF BONAPARTE.

The Constitution of the Year III. (1795): its most important feature, the attempted separation of the executive and legislative authority, the former being vested in five Directors, the latter in two Chambers, the Council of Ancients and the Council of Five Hundred.

The Convention resolved that two-thirds of the first legislature, under the new constitution, should be elected from among themselves;

discontent expressed among those who wished for further reaction against the Terrorists at this resolution; insurrection of 13 Vendémiaire (5 Oct., 1795) in Paris, and its suppression.

The first Directors: Barras (b. 1755, d. 1829), Reubell (b. 1746, d. 1810), Revellière-Lépeaux (b. 1753, d. 1824), Carnot (b. 1753, d. 1823) and Letourneur (b. 1751, d. 1817).

The foreign policy of the first Directors: adoption of the principles of the Thermidorians; readiness to make peace on the terms of receiving the natural boundaries of France; the only enemies of the Republic left were England, Austria and Sardinia; the treasonable intrigues of Pichegru; the activity of the émigrés; exchange of Madame Royale (20 Dec., 1795); attitude of Austria, England, Prussia, Spain and the smaller states of Europe towards the French Republic; endeavors of the Directors to form an alliance with Prussia and Spain.

Failure of the French armies upon the Rhine in the winter campaign of 1795, owing to the treachery of Pichegru; Pichegru succeeded by Jean Victor Moreau (b. 1763, d. 1813).

The condition and military situation of the Army of Italy: Schérer pushed forward and by the victory of Loano (23–25 November, 1795) opened communications with the Republic of Genoa, which was well affected to France.

Napoleon Bonaparte (b. 1769, d. 1821) in command of the Army of Italy (27 March, 1796); his previous career.

Campaign of 1796 in Italy: first stage: Bonaparte turned the Maritime Alps and separated the Sardinian from the Austrian army; he defeated the Sardinians under Colli at Montenotte (12 April), Millesimo (13 April), Dego (15 April), Ceva (16 April) and Mondovi (22 April); Victor Amadeus III. of Sardinia signed the Armistice of Cherasco (28 April), and made peace with the French Republic, ceding Savoy and Nice to France (15 May).

Campaign of 1796 in Italy: second stage: Bonaparte crossed the Po, and (10 May) forced the passage of the Adda at the bridge of Lodi; the Austrians evacuated Lombardy; Bonaparte occupied Milan and laid siege to Mantua; the Dukes of Parma and of Modena forced to sue for peace; Bonaparte occupied the Legations of Ferrara and Bologna; Pope Pius VI. signed the Armistice of Foligno (23 June).

Campaign of 1796 in Italy: third stage: an Austrian army under Wurmser invaded Italy for the relief of Mantua; Bonaparte broke up the siege and defeated the Austrians at Castiglione (5 Aug.); Wurmser retreated, but in the following month entered Italy by the valley of the Brenta, and reinforced the garrison of Mantua; delegates from the whole of northern Italy summoned by Bonaparte to meet at Milan.

Campaign of 1796 in Italy: fourth stage: renewed effort made by the Emperor Francis II. for the recovery of Lombardy; his appeal to his people; the Austrian army under Alvinzi invaded Italy by the Brenta; the French repulsed at Caldiero (12 Nov.); Bonaparte victorious in the battle of Arcola (16 Nov.); retreat of the Austrians.

Campaign of 1796 in Italy: fifth stage: the Austrians made a last effort to relieve Mantua by way of Lake Garda; Bonaparte defeated Alvinzi at Rivoli (14 Jan., 1797); surrender of Mantua (2 Feb., 1797); advance of Bonaparte on Rome; Pope Pius VI. signed the Treaty of Tolentino (19 Feb., 1797).

Effect of the campaign of 1796 on Italy, on Austria and on Europe; its effect on the position of the Directors in France.

Campaign of 1796 in Germany: Jourdan and Moreau invaded Southern Germany, but were out-manœuvred and driven back by the Archduke Charles (b. 1771, d. 1847); battle of Altenkirchen (27 Sept.) and death of Marceau (b. 1769); famous retreat of Moreau; effect of this campaign on Germany; Frederick William II. of Prussia signed a secret supplement to the Treaty of Basle (5 Aug., 1796); Baden, Würtemberg and Bavaria entered into negotiations with the French Republic.

Charles IV. of Spain, under the influence of Godoy, signed an offensive and defensive alliance with the French Republic at San Ildefonso (19 Aug., 1796), and declared war against England (8 Oct.); withdrawal of the English from Corsica (Oct.); Sir John Jervis defeated the Spanish fleet off Cape Saint-Vincent (14 Feb., 1797); an English army under Sir Charles Stuart (b. 1753, d. 1831) sent to defend Portugal against Spain.

The Directory and England: Lord Malmesbury sent to Paris to discuss bases of peace (Nov.-Dec., 1796); Hoche's expedition for the invasion of Ireland foiled by stormy weather (Dec. 1796).

Internal policy of the first Directors: pacification of Brittany and the Vendée by Hoche; conspiracies of Babeuf (May, 1796) and of the camp of Grenelle (Sept., 1796); financial condition of France.

Death of the Tsaritsa Catherine II. of Russia (17 Nov., 1796); accession of the Tsar Paul; his character.

Campaign of 1797: Bonaparte invaded the Tyrol and approached Vienna; preliminaries of peace between France and Austria signed at Leoben (18 April, 1797), by which Austria agreed to recognize the Rhine as the frontier of France, which involved the cession of Belgium, and to take Venetia in exchange for Lombardy; a congress was fixed to meet at Rastadt to arrange terms of peace between the French Republic and the Holy Roman Empire.

The elections of 1797 in France: Barthélemy elected a Director in the place of Letourneur; the majority of the legislature opposed to the majority of the Directors; fresh negotiations for peace with England, which had been commenced at Lille, broken off; the majority of the Directors were supported by Hoche and Bonaparte.

The coup d'état of 18 Fructidor (4 Sept., 1797); Merlin of Douai and François de Neufchâteau elected Directors in the place of Carnot and Barthélemy; death of Hoche (18 Sept.).

Bonaparte's policy in Italy: occupation of Venice (16 May); dissolution of the ancient government of Genoa and formation of the Ligurian Republic (14 June, 1797); formation of the northern Italian states, except Piedmont, into the Cisalpine Republic (9 July); annexation of the Ionian Islands to the French Republic; effect of Bonaparte's Italian policy.

Signature of the Treaty of Campo-Formio between Austria and France (17 Oct., 1797): the Preliminaries of Leoben followed; its open and its secret clauses; capture of Mayence by Hatry (29 Dec., 1797).

Critical position of England in 1797: she remained the only nation in arms against the French Republic; the mutiny of the Nore and other naval mutinies; Duncan defeated the Dutch fleet in the battle of Camperdown (11 Oct., 1797).

Arrival of Bonaparte in Paris (5 Dec., 1797); his reception by the Directors; appointed to the command of an army intended to invade England; finding this impracticable, he suggested and prepared an expedition to Egypt.

Authorities: There is no complete and satisfactory history of the Directory; Barante, Histoire du Directoire, is out of date, and the modern work of Sciout, Le Directoire, only comes down to Fructidor. On special points the following secondary works may be noted; on Vendémiaire, Zivy, Le treize vendémiaire, an IV .; on the conspiracy of Babeuf, Advielle, Histoire de Babeuf et du Babouvisme ; on the coup d' état of Fructidor, Larue, Histoire du 18 Fructidor, and Pierre, La Terreur sous le Directoire, and Le Dix-huit Fructidor; for the society, Goncourt, Histoire de la Société française pendant le Directoire; on the expedition to Ireland, Guillon, La France et l' Irlande sous le Directoire, and Escande, Hoche en Irlande; on the plots of the émigrés, Lebon, L'Angleterre et l'émigration française de 1794 à 1800; for the finances, Stourm, Les finances de l'Ancien Régime et de la Révolution; together with Sorel, Bonaparte et Hoche en 1797. Primary authorities on these subjects are: Réal, Essai sur les journées de 13 et 14 vendémiaire; Danican, Les brigands demasqués, for the 13th vendémiaire; Buonarotti, Conspiration pour l'égalité, dit de Babeuf; Bailleul, Rapport sur le Dix-huit Fructidor; Carnot, Réponse au rapport de Bailleul; Barbé-Marbois, Journal d' un deporté, and Ramel, Journal, for the coup d'état of Fructidor; for the conduct of foreign affairs, Bailleu, Preussen und Frankreich von 1795-1807, containing the correspondence of the Prussian ministers at Paris; Mallet du Pan, Correspondence inédite avec la cour de Vienne, and Wickham, Correspondence (1794-99); for the condition of Paris, Schmidt, Tableaux de la Révolution française, vol. 3; and among memoirs, those of Revellière-Lépeaux, Barras, and Talleyrand, with Thibaudeau, Mémoires sur la Convention et le Directoire. For Napoleon's campaign in Italy the account given by Thiers, Histoire de la Révolution française, is unsurpassed for graphic power and substantial accuracy; see also Sargent, Napoleon Bonaparte's First Campaign; Iung, Bonaparte et son temps (1769-99); Silvagni, Napoleone Buonaparte e i suoi tempi ; Lanfrey, Histoire de Napoléon, and Pommereul, Campagnes du général Bonaparte en Italie; while the primary authority is Napoléon, Correspondance; for the resettlement of Italy, Gaffarel, Bonaparte et les républiques italiennes, and Bigorri, La caduta della Republica di Genova nel 1797. Jomini, Histoire critique et militaire des campagnes de la Révolution de 1792 à 1801, describes the campaigns in Germany as well as those in Italy; upon the former see also Jourdan, Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de la campagne de 1796; Saint-Albin, Vie de Hoche; Parfait, Le général Marceau; Pajol, Kléber, sa vie, sa correspondance ; Martha-Beker, Le général Desaix ; Bonnal, Histoire de Desaix: Philippart, Life of General Moreau, and Rambaud, Les Français sur le Rhin (1792-1804). For the naval war see Chevalier and James, cited under Lecture 56, with Brenton, Life of Lord St. Vincent; Tucker, Memoirs of Lord St. Vincent, and Camperdown, Admiral Duncan.

LECTURE 60.

THE SECOND COALITION AGAINST THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt (1798): capture of Malta (10-17 June); after landing in Egypt (1 July) he occupied Alexandria (2 July), won the battle of the Pyramids (21 July) and occupied Cairo (24 July); Nelson (b. 1758, d. 1805) destroyed the French fleet in Aboukir Bay at the Battle of the Nile (1 Aug.); Bonaparte and his army thus prevented from leaving Egypt.

Treilhard elected a Director in the place of François de Neufchâteau (May, 1798).

Foreign policy of the Fructidorian Directors: their efforts against England; the expedition to Egypt intended for the overthrow of England's power in Asia; the intrigues of the Directors in Ireland; a force under Humbert, sent to assist in the Irish insurrection of 1798, surrendered to Cornwallis (8 Sept., 1798).

Pitt's endeavors to form a new coalition against the French Republic. The position in Prussia: death of Frederick William II. and accession of Frederick William III. (16 Nov., 1797); character and training of the new king; he dismissed his father's favorites, undertook reforms, endeavored to put the finances in order and appointed trustworthy ministers; in foreign politics he resolved to maintain absolute neutrality between France and England in spite of the special missions of Thomas Grenville and Sieyès; policy of Haugwitz.

The position in Austria: detestation felt for the French; popularity of the Emperor Francis II.; riot in Vienna (13 April, 1798) against the French ambassador, Bernadotte (b. 1764, d. 1844); the Emperor entertained the proposals of Pitt for a new coalition.

The position in Russia: character of the Tsar Paul; his readiness to abandon the policy of Catherine and to interfere in the affairs of Western Europe; his wrath with the French Republic for seizing Malta and the Ionian Islands and for interfering in the affairs of the Eastern Mediterranean by invading Egypt; his agreement to join the coalition and to send armies to coöperate with the Austrians and the English against the French Republic.

The position in the smaller states of Europe: Sweden and Denmark maintained an attitude of friendly neutrality towards France; Fortugal requested the withdrawal of the English army under Stuart, who then occupied Minorca (15 Nov., 1798); Spain remained in close alliance with France; the Turks declared war against the French Republic (1 Sept.) after the invasion of Egypt.

Change in the constitution of the Batavian Republic; establishment of a Directory of five members (22 Jan., 1798); promulgation of a constitution modelled on that of the Year III. in France (17 March).

Revolution in Switzerland: intervention of the French; formation of the Helvetic Republic (April, 1798); occupation of Geneva and the Valais by French troops.

The French in Italy: murder of Duphot in Rome (28 Dec., 1797); occupation of Rome by Berthier (15 Feb., 1798); departure of Pope Pius VI., who was eventually carried prisoner to France and died at Valence (29 Aug., 1799); formation of the Roman Republic (20 March, 1798); Ferdinand IV., King of Naples and Sicily, after the news of Nelson's victory of the Nile, drove the French from Rome; Championnet re-occupied Rome (15 Dec., 1798), defeated the Neapolitan army, occupied Naples (Jan., 1799) and established the Parthenopean Republic (23 Jan.); the French troops occupied Piedmont (Dec., 1798) and Tuscany (March, 1799).

General indignation in Europe at the aggressions of the French Directory: the Second Coalition, freed from the fear of Bonaparte, resolved to act; commencement of war; the French defeated at Stockach (25 March, 1799), and at Magnano (5 April); the negotiations at Rastadt broken off and two of the French plenipotentiaries murdered (28 April).

Campaign of 1799 in Italy: a Russian army under Suvórov defeated Moreau at Cassano (27 April), occupied Milan (29 April) and Turin (27 May), and laid siege to Genoa; the Russians defeated the French under Macdonald (b. 1765, d. 1840) at the Trebbia (17–19 June); Ferdinand IV. re-occupied Naples (June); the Austrians under Kray occupied northern Italy and, with the Russians under Suvórov, defeated the French under Joubert at Novi (15 Aug.); the Austrians under Melas defeated Championnet at Genola (4 Nov.).

Campaign of 1799 in Switzerland: Masséna (b. 1758, d. 1817) defeated

the Russians under Korsákov at Zurich (26 Sept.); Suvórov's army destroyed in crossing the Alps (Sept.); the Archduke Charles compelled by Masséna's victory to abandon his scheme of invading France.

Campaign of 1799 in Holland: the English under Sir Ralph Abercromby (b. 1734, d. 1801) and Admiral Mitchell seized the remnant of the Dutch fleet in the Texel (27 Aug.); an English army under the Duke of York (b. 1763, d. 1827), and a Russian army under Hermann, landed in Holland; the invaders defeated by General Brune (b. 1763, d. 1815); by the Convention of Alkmaar (18 Oct.) the invaders agreed to evacuate Holland.

Capture of Corfu by a Russian expedition (2 March, 1799); organization of a Republic of the Ionian Islands, under the protection of the Tsar, but tributary to the Sultan; blockade of Malta by an English squadron (1798–1800); surrender of the French garrison to the English (5 Sept., 1800).

Bonaparte's campaign in Syria: he invaded Palestine (Feb., 1799) and laid siege to Acre; defeat of the Turks at Mount Tabor (16 Apr.); abandonment of the siege of Acre (20 May) and retreat into Egypt; he defeated a Turkish army which had been landed from English ships in Egypt (25 July) and re-established French supremacy there; his resolution to abandon his army and return to France.

Effect of the campaign of 1799 upon the allied Powers: wrath of the Tsar Paul with the English and the Austrians; his negotiations with France.

Effect of the campaign of 1799 on the position in France: struggle between the Legislature and the Directory; reversal of the condition of affairs in 1797; Sieyès succeeded Reubell as Director (May, 1799); Coup d'état of 30 Prairial (18 June, 1799); Gohier, Roger Ducos and Moulin succeeded Treilhard, Merlin of Douai and Revellière-Lépeaux as Directors; the policy of Sieyès and of Talleyrand.

Bonaparte escaped the English cruisers in the Mediterranean and reached France (9 Oct.), and Paris (16 Oct.); his determination to overthrow the government of the Directory.

Revolution of 18 Brumaire (9 Nov., 1799); Bonaparte, Sieyès and Roger Ducos declared provisional Consuls.

Effect of the Revolution of 18 Brumaire on France and on Europe.

Authorities: Among secondary authorities, Barante, Goncourt, Guillon and Lebon, cited under Lecture 59, and Haüsser, Heigel, Philippson, Legrand. Sybel and Hüffer, cited under Lecture 58, are still useful; and among primary authorities. Bailleu, Mallet du Pan, Wickham, Schmidt, Revellière-Lépeaux, Barras, Talleyrand, Thibaudeau, Jomini and Napoléon, Correspondance, cited under Lecture 59, and Vivenot and Zeissberg, cited under Lecture 58. To them should be added for general and diplomatic history, Hüffer, Diplomatische Verhandlungen aus der Zeit der französische Revolution; Vivenot, Zur Geschichte des Rastadter Kongresses; Helfert, Der Rastadter Gesandtenmord; Masson, Les diplomates de la Révolution : Hugou de Bassville à Rome, Bernadotte à Vienne; Wertheimer, Erzherzog Karl und die Zweite Koalition bis zum Frieden von Lunéville (Archiv für Æsterreichische Geschichte, vol. 67); for events in Italy, see Franchetti, Storia d'Italia dal 1789 al 1799; Tivaroni, Storia critica del Risorgimento Italiano: Carutti, Storia della corte di Savoia durante la Rivoluzione è l'Impero Francese; Baldassari, Histoire de l'enlèvement et la captivité de Pie VI.; Artaud, Histoire de Pie VI.; Helfert, Königin Karolina von Neapel und Sicilien im Kampfe gegen die französische Weltherrschaft, and Fabrizio Ruffo; Revolution und Gegen-Revolution von Neapel, Nov., 1798 bis Aug., 1799; Hüffer, Die neapolitanische Republik des Jahres 1799; and the Memoirs of Miot de Melito, Macdonald and Thiébault; for the Swiss revolution see Tillier, Histoire de la république helvétique (1798-1803); Rochette, Histoire de la révolution helvétique de 1797 à 1803; Roverea, Mémoires; for the military history in Europe, see Jomini. Mathieu Dumas, Précis des événements militaires sur la campagne de 1799; Michailowski-Danilewski and Miliutin, Geschichte des Krieges Russlands mit Frankreich im Jahre 1799; Macready, Sketch of Suwarow and his Last Campaign; Reding-Biberegg, Der Zug Suworoff's durch die Schweiz; Günther, Der Feldzug der Division Lecourbe im Schweizerischen Hochgebirge, 1799; Bonnal, La guerre de Hollande, and L'affaire du Texel, and Bunbury, Some Passages in the Great War with France; for the campaign in Egypt, in addition to Lanfrey and Iung, see Bertrand, Relation des campagnes du général Bonaparte en Egypte et en Syrie; Boulay de la Meurthe, Le Directoire et l'expédition d'Egypte ; Gall, Bonaparte en Egypte and Guitry, L'armée de Bonaparte en Egypte (1798-99); for the Revolution of 18 Brumaire, see Lucien Bonaparte, Révolution de Brumaire, and Mémoires, and Gohier, Mémoi es.

LECTURE 61.

THE TREATIES OF LUNÉVILLE AND OF AMIENS.

Constitution of the Year VIII. (1799): executive power assumed by Bonaparte as First Consul; Cambacérès (b. 1753, d. 1824) and Le Brun (b. 1739, d. 1824) appointed Second and Third Consuls.

The foreign policy of Bonaparte as First Consul: his negotiations with Russia; the Tsar Paul's admiration for Bonaparte; he ordered Louis XVIII. to leave Russia and proposed that Bonaparte should make himself King of France; Bonaparte's negotiations with Prussia; Frederick William III. expressed personal admiration for Bonaparte, but refused to abandon his attitude of neutrality; Bonaparte's negotiations with the new Pope, Pius VII.—Chiaramonti; his resolution to continue the war with Austria and with England.

Bonaparte's campaign of 1800 in Italy: the defence of Genoa by Masséna; surrender of Genoa (4 June); Bonaparte's passage of the Alps by the Great St. Bernard; battle of Montebello (9 June); utter defeat of the Austrians under Melas at Marengo (14 June), and death of Desaix (b. 1768); the French reoccupied the whole of Northern Italy without further fighting; reëstablishment of the Cisalpine and Ligurian Republics.

Campaign of 1800 in Germany: manœuvres of Moreau and the Archduke Charles; Moreau at Munich; Moreau ordered to continue the campaign into the winter; his defeat of the Archduke John (b. 1782, d. 1859) at Höhenlinden (3 Dec.); Macdonald crossed the Splügen and with Brune threatened Vienna; Moreau's advance on Vienna; the Emperor Francis II. obliged to make peace.

Signature of the Treaty of Lunéville (9 Feb., 1801) by Joseph Bonaparte (b. 1768, d. 1844) and Cobenzl (b. 1753, d. 1808), the French and Austrian plenipotentiaries: by this treaty the Emperor Francis, both as Holy Roman Emperor and as ruler of Austria, acknowledged the Rhine to be the frontier of France and recognized the Cisalpine Republic; Austria again received Venice; the Duke of Modena, whose heiress had married the Austrian Archduke Ferdinand, received the Breisgau in exchange for his duchy, now absorbed in the Cisalpine Republic; Tuscany converted into the Kingdom of Etruria and conferred upon the son of the Duke of Parma, a relative of the King of Spain, and the Grand Duke Ferdinand promised a principality in Germany; Ferdinand IV., King of Naples and Sicily, allowed to retain his dominions, and the Pope received back the States of the Church, with the exception of Bologna and Ferrara; agreement made for the re-constitution of the Holy Roman Empire and the secularization of the German ecclesi-

astical principalities; Thugut succeeded by Cobenzl in charge of Austrian foreign affairs.

Further arrangements in Italy: the Cisalpine Republic reorganized on the model of the new form of government in France, and Bonaparte declared President of it, as the Italian Republic (Jan., 1802); Melzi (b. 1753, d. 1816) appointed Vice-President; the Ligurian Republic reëstabblished, with the provision that its Doge be appointed by France.

The Batavian Republic reorganized (6 Oct., 1801); the Directory abolished and replaced by the "government of state" of twelve members.

The Tsar Paul of Russia: his proposals to Bonaparte for a joint campaign against England; his mad freaks and unpopularity in Russia; his assassination (23 March, 1801).

Bonaparte's action against England: his desire to strike at her commerce; reëstablishment of the Armed Neutrality, or Neutral League of the North, originally established by the Tsaritsa Catherine in 1780; the English, under Parker and Nelson, bombarded Copenhagen and destroyed the Danish fleet (2 April, 1801).

War between Spain and Portugal: Bonaparte ordered that the Portuguese ports should be closed to English trade and certain cessions made to Spain; Prince John of Portugal, who was formally declared Prince Regent in 1799, refused; the Spaniards invaded Portugal and defeated the Portuguese armies; by the Treaty of Badajoz (6 June, 1801) Portugal ceded Olivenza to Spain; occupation of Madeira and Goa by the English.

The campaign in Egypt (1800–1801): victory of Kléber (b. 1753) at Heliopolis (20 March, 1800); assassination of Kléber (14 June, 1800); landing of an English army under Abercromby in Egypt (8 March, 1801): battle of Alexandria (21 March); surrender of Cairo and Alexandria; the French agreed to evacuate Egypt (2 Sept., 1801).

Desire for peace in both England and France; resignation of Pitt, who was succeeded by Addington (March, 1801); negotiations for peace; the Treaty of Amiens signed by Joseph Bonaparte and Lord Cornwallis (25 March, 1802); by the terms of this treaty England restored Martinique and Guadeloupe to France, but retained Trinidad, conquered from Spain, and Ceylon, conquered from the Dutch; England promised

to restore Malta to the Knights of St. John, if their independence was guaranteed by the Great Powers.

By the Treaties of Lunéville and Amiens, Europe was for the first time entirely at peace, since France declared war against Austria in 1792; position of the powers of Europe towards each other; France had come out of the struggle not only with undiminished power, but with a general recognition of the Rhine as her frontier; commanding position of Bonaparte as First Consul.

Attitude towards France of England, Austria, Prussia, Russia and Spain.

Authorities: For the drawing up of the government of the Consulate see the Registre des déliberations du Consulat provisoire (II Nov.-24 Dec., 1799), ed. Aulard; for the campaign of Marengo in addition to Jomini, cited under Lecture 59. see the excellent account given in Thiers, Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire, and Sargent, The Campaign of Marengo; for the campaign in Egypt, see Wilson, History of the British Expedition to Egypt; for the Treaty of Lunéville, Krones, Geschichte Esterreichs im Zeitalter des französischen Kriege und der Restauration; Beer, Zehn Jahre æsterreichischen Politik, 1801-10, and Fournier, Gentz und Cobenzl: Geschichte der æsterreichischen Diplomatie in den Jahre 1801-05; for the Treaty of Amiens, Pellew, Life of Lord Sidmouth, and Ross, The Correspondence of the Marquess Cornwallis.

LECTURE 62.

THE CONSULATE IN FRANCE, AND THE RE-CONSTITUTION OF GERMANY.

The constitution of the Consulate: the Council of State, the Senate, the Tribunate and the Legislative Body; the National List.

The government of the Consulate: its policy of reconciliation; many *émigrés* permitted to return; complete pacification of the Vendée by the Treaty of Montluçon (17 Jan., 1800); suppression of brigandage; restoration of internal peace.

The financial policy of the Consulate: the work of Gaudin (b. 1756, d. 1844); taxes fairly levied and collected; corruption punished; foundation of the Bank of France (13 Feb., 1800).

The Consulate and legal reform: commissions appointed to draw up codes of law and procedure.

The Consulate and the <u>Catholic Church</u>: Bonaparte's negotiations with the Papacy; end of the schism which had lasted since the Civil Constitution of the Clergy was enacted in 1790; terms of the Concordat signed by Pope Pius VII. and the First Consul Bonaparte (15 July, 1801), and promulgated (8 April, 1802).

The Consulate and education: Bonaparte's attempt to establish a scheme of national education.

The Consulate and the internal administration of France: formation of the Prefectures; the left bank of the Rhine and Geneva organized as part of France; the work of Chaptal (b. 1756, d. 1832).

The Consulate and the <u>colonies</u> of France: Bonaparte desired to restore the power of France in America; he obtained Louisiana from Spain (1800) and an extension of French Guiana from Portugal (1801); he re-occupied Guadeloupe and Martinique by the Treaty of Amiens; expedition to San Domingo; resistance of Toussaint Louverture.

Constitutional changes made during the Consulate: effect of the Conspiracy of the Infernal Machine (24 Dec., 1800); Bonaparte declared, after an appeal to the primary assemblies, First Consul for life (2 Aug., 1802), and enabled to nominate a successor (4 Aug.); the National List suppressed and replaced by Electoral Colleges.

The ministers of the Consulate: Talleyrand, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Gaudin, of Finance; Regnier, of Justice; Chaptal, of the Interior; Berthier, of War; Decrès, of the Marine; Fouché of Police.

The re-constitution of Germany: the new arrangements made necessary by the cession to France by the Treaty of Lunéville of the left bank of the Rhine and by the proofs that had been given, during the war, of the intrinsic weakness of the political system of the Empire; the new arrangements accepted by the Imperial Diet (24 March, 1803) and by the Emperor (27 April); the Holy Roman Empire, as it had existed since the Treaties of Westphalia, practically came to an end.

Changes made in the Colleges of the Imperial Diet: (1) the College of Electors increased from eight electors, three ecclesiastical and five lay, to ten electors, one ecclesiastical and nine lay; the Archbishops of Cologne and Trèves lost their electoral dignity owing to their dominions

being absorbed into France; the Archbishop of Mayence continued as an elector and received as his dominions the bishopric of Ratisbon, the principality of Aschaffenburg and the county of Wetzlar; the nine lay electors were Bohemia, Brandenburg, Saxony, Bavaria and Hanover, with four new electors, the Margrave of Baden, the Duke of Würtemberg, the Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel and Ferdinand, formerly Grand Duke of Tuscany, who was made Elector of Salzburg; (2) College of Princes: owing to the secularization of the Catholic bishoprics and monasteries this college was reduced in importance and contained a majority of Protestant princes; (3) College of Free Cities: this college would have been entirely abolished but for the intervention of France; as it was, only six free cities were maintained out of fifty-two, namely, Augsburg, Bremen, Frankfort-on-the-Main, Hamburg, Lübeck and Nuremberg; these changes in the Imperial Diet deprived the Catholics, and Austria, the chief Catholic power, of their predominance.

The secularization of the ecclesiastical states: this step, which had been suggested by France at Basle and by Bonaparte at Leoben, was nominally undertaken to compensate those Princes of the Empire who had lost territory by the cession of the left bank of the Rhine to France; the princes who profited most were, however, those who were already powerful; thus Prussia, Bavaria, Baden, Würtemberg and Hanover all received important accessions of territory, making them compact and populous states; Austria received only two small bishoprics, Brixen and Trent, but two Austrian Princes, the Grand Duke Ferdinand and the Duke of Modena, received the German states of Salzburg and the Breisgau in compensation for the loss of their Italian principalities; the Prince of Orange, formerly Stadtholder in the United Netherlands, received the bishopric of Fulda.

Effect upon the policy and condition of Germany of these sweeping changes, destroying the Holy Roman Empire and building up strong German states.

The re-constitution of Switzerland: Bonaparte's interference in Swiss politics; by the Act of Mediation (19 Feb., 1803) he restored federal government, but maintained the abolition of feudal relics and the internal reforms made by the Helvetic Republic; to the thirteen old cantons—six democratic, Appenzell, Glarus, Schwyz, Unterwalden; Uri and Zug,

and seven oligarchical, Basle, Berne, Freiburg, Lucerne, Schaffhausen, Soleure and Zurich—he added six new cantons—Vaud, Aargau, Thurgau, Ticino, Saint-Gall and the Grisons; but he retained Geneva as part of France and established the independent Republic of the Valais; he regulated the relations between the federal and cantonal governments, and was called Mediator of the Swiss Confederation, a title which he officially assumed in 1809.

Authorities: A brief account of the Consulate and of the re-constitution of Germany and Switzerland is given in Morse Stephens, Europe, 1789-1815, chap. vii. For the Consulate, see Thiers, Histoire du Consulat et de l'Empire; Thibaudeau, Mémoires sur le Consulat, and Le Consulat et l'Empire, and for the policy of Bonaparte, the various lives and histories, particularly Lanfrey, Fournier and Taine, with Pelet, Opinions de Napoléon au Conseil d'État. Special secondary books are Rocquain, État de la France au 18 Brumaire; Daudet, La police et les Chouans sous le Consulat et l'Empire; Guillon, Les conspirations militaires sous le Consulat et l'Empire Destrem, Les déportations du Consulat et de l'Empire; Aucoc. Le Conseil d'Etat, and Fauriel, Les derniers jours du Consulat. The Memoirs most valuable for the subjects treated in this lecture are those of Chaptal, Lucien Bonaparte, Talleyrand, Mollien, Roederer, Pasquier and Gaudin. For the Concordat, consult Boulay de la Meurthe, Documents sur la négociation du Concordat : Séché, Les origines du Concordat; Theiner, Histoire des deux Concordats, and the valuable work of D'Haussonville, L'Église romaine et le premier Empire (1800-1814). For the re-constitution of Germany, see Gaspari, Der Reichsdeputationshauptschluss; Rambaud, La Domination française en Allemagne; Hausser, Deutsche Geschichte vom Tode Friedrichs des Grossen; Oncken, Das Zeitalter der Revolution, des Kaiserreichs und der Befreiungskriege; Beer, Zehn Jahre cesterreichischer Politik, 1801-1810, and Heigel, Deutsche Geschichte vom Tode Friedrichs des Grossen. For the re-constitution of Switzerland, see Dandliker, Histoire du peuple Suisse; Hilty, Les Constitutions fédérales de la Suisse; Rochette, Histoire de la révolution helvétique de 1797 à 1803; Roverea, Mémoires, and Jahn. Bonaparte, Talleyrand et Stapfer, 1800-1803.

LECTURE 63.

THE POWER OF NAPOLEON AT ITS HEIGHT.

Recommencement of war between France and England (18 May, 1803): causes of the war; the points left unsettled by the Treaty of

Amiens; the question of Malta, which the English refused to surrender; the interference of the First Consul in Switzerland and his annexation of Piedmont (11 Sept., 1802) regarded as evidences of the desire of France further to disturb the peace of Europe; Bonaparte's wrath at the libels published upon him in England; the trial of Peltier; the embassy of Whitworth to Paris; the English seized French ships and Bonaparte in reprisal arrested all Englishmen travelling in France and occupied Hanover.

Formation of the Grande Armée; Bonaparte's genius for military organization; his establishment of the camp at Boulogne and preparations to invade England.

Difficulties of Bonaparte's position; the plot of Pichegru, Georges Cadoudal and others against his life; arrest and execution of the Duc d'Enghien (21 March, 1804).

Bonaparte offered the title of Emperor of the French by the Senate (18 May, 1804); the offer ratified by the French people in their primary assemblies; coronation of Bonaparte as the Emperor Napoleon (2 Dec., 1804); also crowned King of Italy at Milan (26 May, 1805).

The institutions of the Empire: the Imperial Court; increased importance of the Senate and Council of State; highly centralized form of administration established under the Empire.

In the year in which Bonaparte became Emperor of the French the Emperor Francis II. declared the Austrian dominions an hereditary empire (11 Aug., 1804), and took the title of Francis I., Emperor of Austria (7 Dec.); after the formation of the Confederation of the Rhine, the Emperor Francis resigned the title of Holy Roman Emperor and absolved the Princes of the Empire from their allegiance (6 Aug., 1806).

Position of affairs in England at the recommencement of war with France: Addington, who had made the Treaty of Amiens, succeeded as Prime Minister by Pitt, who advocated a vigorous foreign policy (18 May, 1804).

Pitt's endeavors to form a third coalition against Napoleon; Frederick William III. persisted in maintaining the strict neutrality by which Prussia had gained so much; the Tsar Alexander I. of Russia personally admired Napoleon, but his court and people pressed him to side with England; the execution of d'Enghien and Napoleon's treatment

of his ambassador further impelled Alexander to join the coalition against France; the Emperor Francis gladly entered the coalition; Spain was the close ally of Napoleon, while of smaller countries, Sweden, under Gustavus IV., the Two Sicilies, and Portugal were favorable to the coalition, and Denmark, to Napoleon.

The campaign of 1805: Napoleon unable to attempt the invasion of England because the French fleet could not command the Channel; the scheme of Napoleon frustrated by the conduct of Admiral Villeneuve; Nelson in command of the Channel; Sir Robert Calder's action with the French fleet (22 July); the Austrians under Mack, before the declaration of war, occupied Ulm (Sept.); Napoleon, despairing of invading England, broke up his camp at Boulogne and invaded Germany; surrender of Mack at Ulm (20 Oct.); victory of Trafalgar won by Nelson over the French and Spanish fleets (21 Oct.); Napoleon at Vienna; a Russian army joined the Austrians; Napoleon's victory over the Austrians and Russians at Austerlitz (2 Dec.).

The results of Austerlitz: by the Treaty of Pressburg (26 Dec.) Austria ceded Venetia to the Kingdom of Italy, Istria and Dalmatia to Napoleon, who governed them under Marmont as the Illyrian Provinces, and the Tyrol to Bavaria; the Electors of Bavaria and Würtemberg given the title of King, and the Elector of Baden that of Grand Duke; formation of the Confederation of the Rhine (12 July, 1806).

Death of Pitt (23 Jan., 1806); Ministry of All the Talents (10 Feb., 1806–25 Mar., 1807); death of Fox (13 Sept., 1806). With the Large Puts

The campaign of 1806; the attitude of Prussia to Napoleon, and of Napoleon to Prussia; influence of Queen Louisa upon Frederick William III.; the Prussians defeated by Napoleon at Jena and by Davout (b. 1770, d. 1823) at Auerstädt (14 Oct.); occupation of Berlin (25 Oct.); the French army invaded Poland, occupied Warsaw (28 Nov.) and went into winter quarters on the Russian frontier.

The campaign of 1807: battle of Eylau (8 Feb.); close alliance formed between the Tsar Alexander and Frederick William III. of Prussia by the Treaty of Bartenstein (25 April); surrender of Dantzig to the French (24 May); Napoleon's victory over the Russians at Friedland (14 June).

Interview between Napoleon and Alexander at Tilsit (25 June, 1807),

followed by the Peace of Tilsit (7 July, 1867); by this treaty Russia ceded the Ionian Islands, which had been under Russia control since 1799, to France; Napoleon promised not to restore the independence of Poland, but created the part of Poland which Prussia had received in the second and third partitions into the Grand Duchy of Warsaw; the Elector Frederick Augustus of Saxony, to whom Napoleon had given the title of King of Saxony, made Grand Duke of Warsaw; Napoleon suggested to Alexander the resurrection of the Empires of the East and the West and advised him to extend his dominions at the expense of Sweden and Turkey.

Napoleon made peace with Prussia (9 July, 1807), depriving Fred-

Napoleon made peace with Prussia (9 July, 1807), depriving Frederick William III. of Polish Prussia and of all Prussian territory to the

west of the Elbe.

After the Peace of Tilsit, Napoleon recognized that his sole remaining enemy was England; progress of the war with England after the battle of Trafalgar; triumph of the English fleet and blockade of the French coasts; the English occupied Sicily, to which island Ferdinand IV. had fled before a French army in 1805, and Sir John Stuart (b. 1759, d. 1815) defeated General Reynier at Maida (4 July, 1806); the English re-occupied the Cape of Good Hope (Jan., 1806), which had been restored to the Dutch by the Treaty of Amiens.

Napoleon, being unable to attack England directly, resolved to ruin English commerce; he issued the Berlin Decree (21 Nov., 1806) declaring the British Islands in a state of blockade; England replied by the Orders in Council (11 Nov., 1807), which Napoleon followed by the Milan Decree (17 Dec., 1807) declaring any ship touching at a British port lawful prize; by the Treaty of Tilsit, Russia agreed to the Continental Blockade; effect of the blockade on English commerce, and on Napoleon's position in France and in Europe.

The Duke of Portland became the English Prime Minister (31 Mar., 1807), with Canning and Castlereagh as Secretaries of State.

The Peace of Tilsit marked the zenith of Napoleon's power, but his splendor was most apparent during the Congress of Erfurt (Sept., 1808).

Authorities: For the history of the Empire, see Morse Stephens, Thiers, Thibaudeau, Fournier and Lanfrey, cited under Lecture 62; for the personality of

Napoleon, Taine, Napoléon; Lévy, Napoléon intime; Masson, Napoléon et sa famille, Napoléon chez lui, and Napoléon et les femmes; Bourrienne, Memoirs; Méneval, Memoirs; for the outbreak of war with England, see Oscar Browning, England and Napoleon in 1803, being the Despatches of Lord Whitworth and others; for the plots against Napoleon, Cadoudal, Georges de Cadoudal et la Chouannerie; for the execution of Enghien, Welschinger, Le duc d'Enghien; for the relations between Napoleon and the Tsar Alexander, see Vandal, Alexandre 1er et Napoléon, and Tatischeff, Napoléon et le Tsar Alexandre d'après des documents inédits; for the campaigns of Austerlitz, Jena and Friedland, see the elaborate works of Jomini, and Mathieu Dumas, with the numerous books on and by the marshals, officers and soldiers of the Grande Armée, among which may be especially noted Marbot, Memoirs, and Thiébault, Souvenirs; for the Continental Blockade, Lumbroso, Napoleone e l'Inghilterra, Saggio sulle origini del blocco continentale; Mahan, Influence of Sea. Power upon the French Revolution and Empire; for the Imperial Court, see Madame de Rémusat, Memoirs; and, as the primary authority for the whole period, the Correspondence of Napoleon with his Lettres inédites, ed. Lecestre. An elaborate bibliography of books dealing with the period by Lumbroso is in course of publication.

LECTURE 64.

EUROPE DURING THE ASCENDENCY OF NAPOLEON.

Napoleon, after the Treaty of Tilsit, destroyed the last relics of the Holy Roman Empire and reorganized Germany; under his system the Confederation of the Rhine, of which he was entitled the Protector, became the chief power in Germany; it consisted, when at its greatest extent, of thirty-seven reigning princes; its population of 15,000,000 Germans was bound to contribute 120,000 soldiers to the army of Napoleon; and its policy was conducted by a Diet, sitting at Frankfort, composed of two colleges, the College of Kings, including four kings and five grand dukes, and the College of Princes, including thirteen dukes and fifteen princes.

The four kingdoms in the Confederation of the Rhine were Bavaria, Würtemberg, Westphalia and Saxony; the Kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg allied their families with that of Napoleon and received

their reward in extension of territory; the King of Saxony made Grand Duke of Warsaw and included in the Confederation from the importance of his geographical position between Austria, Prussia and Russia; the Kingdom of Westphalia created by Napoleon (18 Aug., 1807) from the dominions of Prussia to the west of the Elbe, with Hesse-Cassel, Brunswick, part of Hanover, etc., and conferred on Napoleon's youngest brother, Jerome Bonaparte (b. 1784, d. 1860).

The five grand duchies in the Confederation of the Rhine were Baden; Hesse-Datmstadt; Berg, created by Napoleon and conferred by him on his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat (b. 1771, d. 1815); Frankfort, conferred on Dalberg (b. 1744, d. 1817), formerly Archbishop-Elector of Mayence; and Würzburg, conferred on the Grand Duke Ferdinand, formerly ruler of Tuscany.

Effect of the new organization in Germany; the French system of centralized administration and of military conscription everywhere introduced; serfdom and other feudal abuses abolished; the codified law of France introduced into Westphalia and Berg; the Knights of the Empire deprived of their sovereign rights; the petty dukes, counts and princes whose territories lay within those of the reigning princes were mediatized, that is to say, lost their immediate sovereignty, while retaining their titles and rank as a class of privileged aristocracy.

Effect of these measures: Germany became a confederation of more or less powerful states instead of a collection of petty feudal principalities.

Napoleon's Italian policy: he appointed his step-son, Eugène de Beauharnais (b. 1781, d. 1824), Viceroy of the Kingdom of Italy, which comprised the former Cisalpine Republic, with the addition, after the Treaty of Pressburg, of Venetia; Napoleon kept Piedmont as part of the French dominions, and annexed Parma (9 Oct., 1802), the Ligurian Republic (4 June, 1805), Etruria or Tuscany (10 Dec., 1807), and eventually Rome (13 Dec., 1810) directly to France, giving his sister Elisa the title of Grand Duchess of Tuscany and Princess of Lucca, and his sister Pauline that of Duchess of Guastalla; the relations of Napoleon with the Pope; arrest of Pius VII. (6 July, 1809); the Kingdom of Naples conferred upon Napoleon's brother, Joseph Bonaparte (30 March, 1806), and on Murat (15 July, 1808); great reforms accomplished in Italy, but failure of Napoleon to recognize the principle of nationality.

Napoleon and the Protestant Netherlands: further change in the constitution of the Batavian Republic; Schimmelpenninck (b. 1761, d. 1825) made Grand Pensionary (22 March, 1805); Louis Bonaparte made King of Holland (24 May, 1806); dislike of the Dutch for the Continental Blockade; Holland annexed to Napoleon's dominions (9 July, 1810).

The Valais annexed, as the department of the Simplon, to Napoleon's empire (13 Dec., 1810).

Neufchâtel, Benevento and Ponte Corvo granted by Napoleon as sovereign principalities, feudatory to himself, to Berthier, Talleyrand and Bernadotte (1806).

Denmark during the ascendency of Napoleon: Napoleon's scheme for seizing the Danish fleet; the English, hearing of this scheme, bombarded Copenhagen and seized the Danish fleet (2-7 Sept., 1807);

friendship of Frederick VI. of Denmark for Napoleon.

Sweden during the ascendency of Napoleon: Gustavus IV., an enemy of Napoleon and ally of England; after the Treaty of Tilsit the French under Brune occupied Swedish Pomerania; the Tsar Alexander conquered Finland (1808); insanity of Gustavus IV.; his attack upon Denmark; dethroned (13 March) and his uncle, the former regent, made king (5 June, 1809); Bernadotte (b. 1764, d. 1844), one of Napoleon's marshals, elected Prince Royal of Sweden and heir to the throne (5 Nov., 1810).

The Turks during the ascendency of Napoleon: the Sultan Selim III. refused to enter Pitt's coalition against Napoleon (1805), and an English expedition under Duckworth was sent against him (1807); overthrow of Selim (31 May 1807); after an interval Mahmud II. became Sultan (28 July, 1808); his vigor and ability; inclined to the side of France, but disliked the establishment of the French in the Illyrian Provinces; the Tsar Alexander attacked the Turks (1809); the Russians occupied Moldavia and Wallachia (1810), and crossed the Danube (1811).

The greatest extension of Napoleon's empire attained by the annexation of the districts along the northern coasts of Germany from the borders of Holland to the mouth of the Weser, including Bremen, Hamburg, and Lübeck (13 Dec., 1810); these districts were partly taken from Westphalia and Berg, and partly consisted of Oldenburg and three

petty states of the Confederation of the Rhine; this annexation was caused by the difficulty of maintaining the Continental Blockade.

At this time Napoleon's empire was divided into 130 departments, extending from Rome to Lübeck; the organization and administration of these departments.

Napoleon's administration when at the height of his power: excellence of his civil service; his ministers and the Council of State; suppression of the Tribunate (19 Aug., 1807); growing importance of the police department; Fouché (b. 1763, d. 1820), Minister of Police (1804–10), and Savary (1810–14); organization of the army, and services of Clarke, Minister of War; Napoleon's legal reforms; the codes; his financial reforms; his reforms in education; the formation of the University of France (17 March, 1808).

Napoleon's belief in the hereditary principle; his new nobility; his desire for an heir; resolution to divorce his wife, the Empress Josephine (b. 1763, d. 1814).

Failure of Napoleon to appreciate the forces working against him at the height of his power; he had failed to ruin England, in spite of all his efforts; he had roused the national spirit, which had made France great, against him in Spain and in Germany; the Grande Armée which had won his victories was being destroyed, and the vacancies in its ranks filled by foreigners and young French conscripts.

Authorities: Upon Germany during the Napoleonic period, see Rambaud, La Domination française en Allemagne (1804-11); Beck, Zur Verfassungsgeschichte des Rheinbunds; Lucchesini, Sulle cause e gli effetti della confederazione rhenana; Perthes, Politische Zustände und Personen zur Zeit der französischer Herrschaft; Dumoulin-Eckart, Bayern unter dem Ministerium Montgelas; Montgelas, Denkwürdigkeiten (1799-1817); Pfister, König Friedrich von Württemberg und seine Zeit: Normann-Ehrenfels, Denkwürdigkeiten (1756-1817); Kleinschmidt, Geschichte des Königreichs Westfalen; Du Casse, Mémoires et correspondance du roi Jérome; Beugnot, Mémoires; Goecke, Das Grossherzogthum Berg unter Joachim Murat; Beaulieu-Marçonnay, Karl von Dalberg und seine Zeit; Krämer, Karl Theodor, Reichsfreiherr von Dalberg; Bockenheimer, Geschichte der Stadt Mainz, während der zweiten französischen Herrschaft; and Hesse, Geschichte der Stadt Bonn, während der französischen Herrschaft. Upon Italy, see Vaudoncourt, Histoire politique et militaire du Prince Eugène Napoléon; Lafolie, Histoire de l'administration du royaume d'Italie pendant la domination française; Eugène de Beauharnais, Mémoires et correspondance, ed. by Du Casse; and Melzi, Memoire.

On the arrest of the Pope, see Arlaud, Histoire du Pape Pie VII.; Crétineau-Joly, Mémoires du Cardinal Consalvi; Pacca, Mémoires historiques; Combier, Mémoires du Général Radet, and Maury, Correspondance et mémoires. On Holland, see Jorissen, Napoléon I et le roi Louis; and Louis Bonaparte, Documents historiques et réflexions sur le gouvernement de la Hollande. On Sweden, Svederus, Schwedens Politik und Kriege (1808–1814). On the Code, Jac, Bonaparte et le Code Civil.

LECTURE 65.

THE OVERTHROW OF THE POWER OF NAPOLEON.

The struggle between England and Napoleon: the policies represented by Castlereagh (b. 1769, d. 1822) and Canning (b. 1770, d. 1827), the latter desiring to raise national insurrections against Napoleon, the former to make coalitions and to act directly against the French with English armies; duel between Castlereagh and Canning (21 Sept., 1809); Lord Wellesley (b. 1760, d. 1842), director of English foreign policy (1809–1812); capture by the English of the remaining colonial possessions of France and Holland, Martinique (23 Feb., 1809), Guadeloupe (6 Feb., 1810) and the Mauritius (2 Dec., 1810), and Java (18 Sept., 1811).

Napoleon's resolution to attack Portugal, because the Prince-Regent declined to join in the Continental Blockade; by the Treaty of Fontainebleau with Spain (27 Oct., 1807) he arranged for the division of Portugal; a French army under Junot invaded Portugal; flight of the Prince-Regent to Brazil; Junot entered Lisbon (30 Nov., 1807), occupied the whole of Portugal, and declared that the House of Braganza had ceased to reign (1 Feb., 1808).

Napoleon's interference in the affairs in Spain: the people of Madrid attacked Godoy, the Queen's lover, and supported Prince Ferdinand, the heir to the throne; the royal family of Spain appealed to Napoleon and proceeded to France; Charles IV. ceded his throne to Napoleon, who proclaimed his brother Joseph, King of Spain (6 June, 1808); a French army entered Spain to support Joseph and occupied Madrid;

general insurrection of the Spaniards; surrender of 18,000 French soldiers to the Spaniards at Baylen (20 July, 1808); the English ministry assisted the Spanish insurgents with money and arms.

The Portuguese in insurrection against the French; the English ministry sent an army to their help under Sir Arthur Wellesley (b. 1769, d. 1852), who won the battles of Roliça and Vimeiro (17, 21 Aug., 1808); by the Convention of Cintra (30 Aug.) Junot agreed to evacuate Portugal.

Napoleon in person invaded Spain, and occupied Madrid (4 Dec., 1808); Sir John Moore (b. 1761, d. 1809) with the English army advanced from Portugal to Salamanca to save Andalusia; retreat of Sir John Moore to Corunna; battle of Corunna (16 Jan., 1809).

The difficulties of Napoleon in the Peninsula and the promise of support from England caused the Emperor Francis to believe the time propitious for a fresh war; unpopularity of the French in Germany; Napoleon's contempt for the popular feeling against him; Stadion (b. 1763, d. 1824), who had become State Chancellor of Austria in 1806, desired to make Austria the representative of this German national feeling; the services of Gentz (b. 1764, d. 1832); re-organization of the Austrian army by the Archduke Charles.

Campaign of 1809: the Archduke Charles invaded Bavaria, and the Archduke John, Italy; Napoleon entered Germany, defeated the Archduke Charles at Abensberg and Eckmühl (20, 22 Apr.) and occupied Vienna (13 May); the battle of Aspern or Essling (21–22 May); Napoleon shut up in the island of Lobau; the Tyrolese insurrection under Hofer; Napoleon, joined by reinforcements, defeated the Austrians at Wagram (6 July).

By the treaty of Vienna or Schönbrunn (14 Oct., 1809) Austria ceded Trieste, Carniola, and most of Croatia to Napoleon, who added these districts to the Illyrian Provinces; Austria also ceded Salzburg to Bavaria, Northern Galicia, including Cracow, which she had taken in the final partition of Poland in 1795, to the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, and the Circle of Tarnopol in Southern Galicia to Russia.

Causes of the failure of Austria to arouse German national feeling; Stadion succeeded by Metternich (b. 1773, d. 1859); Napoleon married to the Archduchess Marie Louise (b. 1791, d. 1847), daughter of the Emperor Francis (2 Apr., 1810).

The English ministry resolved to pursue the war vigorously on land against Napoleon; failure of the expedition to Walcheren (Aug., 1809); successes in the war in the Peninsula; gallant defense of Saragossa by the Spaniards; though the Spanish armies were defeated, their guerilla warfare reduced the power of the French; Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Lord Wellington, placed in command of the English army in the Peninsula; his capture of Oporto (12 May, 1809); his victory at Talavera (27–28 July); Wellington held the lines of Torres Vedras and repulsed a French invasion of Portugal under Masséna (1810–1811); battles of Fuentes de Onor (5 May, 1811), and Albuera (16 May); Wellington's capture of Ciudad Rodrigo (19 Jan., 1812), and Badajoz (6 Apr.), and defeat of Marmont at Salamanca (22 July); Joseph Bonaparte evacuated Madrid (10 Aug.); the English forced to retreat from Burgos (21 Oct.), and Joseph recovered Madrid for the last time (2 Nov.).

The growth of the national spirit in Germany: the Germans looked to Prussia to lead them; the Tugenbund.

The re-organization of Prussia: the ministry of Stein (b. 1757, d. 1831); he abolished serfdom and introduced other reforms; the war ministry of Scharnhorst (b. 1755, d. 1813); he passed the youth of Prussia through the army, and in the place of conscription adopted universal military service; Napoleon obtained the dismissal of Stein (24 Nov., 1808) and of Scharnhorst (June, 1810); the ministry of Hardenberg (1810–1822); he completed the work of Stein by making the former serfs owners of their holdings (14 Sept., 1811); foundation of the University of Berlin (1810); assistance rendered by William von Humboldt (b. 1767, d. 1835); Frederick William III. forced to sign an offensive and defensive alliance with Napoleon (24 Feb., 1812).

Growing disagreement between Napoleon and the Tsar Alexander: its causes; Napoleon's resolution to invade Russia; Castlereagh, who returned to office (28 Feb., 1812), offered to aid Russia; through English mediation Russia made peace with the Turks at Bucharest (28 May, 1812); Russia signed the Treaty of Abo with Sweden (5 Apr., 1812) by which Bernadotte promised to aid Russia against Napoleon and to cede Finland in exchange for Norway.

Outbreak of war between England and the United States (18 June, 1812).

Campaign of 1812: Napoleon invaded Russia (May); retreat of the Russians; battle of Borodino (7 Sept.); Napoleon occupied Moscow (14 Sept.); the retreat from Moscow; almost complete destruction of the French army.

Campaign of 1813: during the retreat from Moscow the Prussian contingent under York abandoned the French army (30 Dec., 1812); Prussia declared war against France (16 Mar., 1813); Napoleon rallied his army and won the battles of Lützen (2 May) and Bautzen (20 May); Austria signed the Convention of Reichenbach (27 June), and promised to join the Allies, if Napoleon refused the terms offered to him; Congress of Prague; Austria declared war against Napoleon (12 Aug.); the French under Oudinot and Macdonald defeated by Bernadotte and Blücher (b. 1742, d. 1819) at Gross-Beeren and the Katzbach (23, 25 Aug.); Napoleon defeated the Austrians at Dresden (26–27 Aug.); surrender of Vandamme to the Russians at Kulm (30 Aug.); the Treaty of Töplitz between Austria and Bavaria (19 Sept.); Bavaria and Würtemberg deserted Napoleon; great defeat of the French at Leipzig (16–19 Oct.); defeat of the Bavarians at Hanau (30 Oct.); Napoleon withdrew from Germany; general rising of the Germans against the French.

Campaign of 1813 in the Peninsula: Wellington defeated the French at Vittoria (21 June) and invaded France (7 Oct.).

The allied armies reach the Rhine; negotiations with Napoleon; the Proposals of Frankfort (9 Nov., 1813); attitude towards Napoleon and France of the Tsar Alexander, Metternich and Castlereagh.

Campaign of 1814 in France: the Allies invaded France (31 Dec., 1813); Napoleon's victories; the Congress of Châtillon (3 Feb.-19 Mar.); Frederick VI. of Denmark ceded Norway to Sweden in exchange for Swedish Pomerania by the Treaty of Kiel (14 Jan.); the Dutch insurrection; Carnot's defence of Antwerp; the position in Italy; Eugène de Beauharnais remained faithful, but Murat negotiated with the Allies; the English under Bentinck occupied Genoa (21 Apr.); attitude of France towards Napoleon; the nation refused to rise in his defense; the Allies signed the Treaty of Chaumont (1 Mar.); Napoleon's last battles; the Allies occupied Paris (31 Mar.); abdication of Napoleon at Fontainebleau (6 Apr.).

Causes of the fall of Napoleon.

Authorities: On Napoleon's interference in Spain and Portugal and on the history of the Peninsular War, the best small book is Shand, The War in the Peninsula; see Murat, Murat en Espagne; Du Casse, Mémoires et Correspondance du Roi Joseph; Wellington, Despatches; Napier, History of the Peninsular War: Toreno, Historia del levantamiento, guerra y revolucion de España; and Gomez de Arteche, Reinado del Carlos IV., and Guerra della Independencia; for the campaign of Wagram, see Pelel, Mémoires sur la guerre de 1809; Hormayr, Geschichte Andreas Hofer, and Angeli, Erzherzog Carl von Esterreich als Feldherr und Heeresorganisator; for the reorganization of Prussia, see Seeley, Life of Stein; Pertz, Das Leben des Ministers Freiherrn vom Stein; Ranke, Denkwürdigkeiten des Fürsten von Hardenberg: Cavaignac, Formation de la Prusse contemporaine, vol. 2.; Stern. Abhandlungen und Aktenstücke zur Geschichte der preussischen Reformzeit; and Lehmann, Scharnhorst, Der Tugenbund, and Knesebeck und Schön; for Napoleon's campaign in Russia, see Ségur, Histoire de Napoléon et de la Grande Armée pendant l'année 1812; for the campaign in Germany of 1813, and the rising of Germany against Napoleon, see Bertin, Campagne de 1813; Droysen, Das Leben des Grafen York von Wartenburg; Pertz, Das Leben des Grafen Neithardt von Gneisenau; Oncken, Esterreich und Preussen im Befreiungskriege; Droysen, Vorlesungen über die Freiheitskriege; for the Dutch insurrection see Juste, Le soulèvement de la Hollande en 1813; for the defensive campaign of 1814 in France, see Houssaye, 1814; Didot, Royauté ou Empire: la France en 1814; Bertin, La Campagne de 1814; and Fain, Manuscrit de 1814; and for the diplomatic proceedings of the period, Alison, Lives of Lord Castlereagh and Sir Charles Stewart; Castlereagh, Correspondence; Metternich, Memoirs; and Vitrolles, Mémoires.

LECTURE 66.

THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA.

The abdication of Napoleon was followed by the Provisional Treaty of Paris (11 April, 1814) assigning to him the island of Elba and an income, and to the Empress Marie Louise the duchies of Parma and Piacenza.

The provisional government of France under the guidance of Talleyrand accepted Louis XVIII. as King; on his arrival he issued the Declaration of Saint-Ouen (2 May), promising representative government, liberty of worship and of the press, responsibility of ministers, guaran-

tee of property acquired during the Revolution, etc., which were afterwards embodied in the Charter (4 June, 1814).

By the First Treaty of Paris (30 May, 1814) France was reduced to the limits of 1792, with the addition of Avignon, and other districts within these limits, and of part of Savoy; she received back all her colonies, except the Mauritius, Saint Lucia and Tobago, which were ceded to England. Transce same as - 1792. attacks

It was agreed that a congress of representatives of the states of Europe should be held at Vienna to dispose of the territories on the left bank of the Rhine, taken from France, and in general to settle the affairs of Europe.

The Congress of Vienna met on 1 Nov. 1814; it was attended by most of the sovereigns of Europe, and those who were not present sent special envoys.

The most important ambassadors were Metternich for Austria, Hardenberg for Prussia, Castlereagh for England, and Razumovski and
Nesselrode for Russia; these representatives of the four victorious
powers arrogated to themselves the right to arrange the decisions of the
Congress.

Arrival of Talleyrand as the representative of France; his great diplomatic campaign; he stood forth as the advocate of legitimacy, and as the defender of smaller powers; he adroitly made use of the dissensions between the four great powers. Challed the state of the control o

The chief political questions at issue: (1) the Tsar Alexander desired the whole of Poland and Frederick William III. of Prussia the whole of Saxony, whose king had remained faithful to Napoleon; (2) the disposition of the territories on the left bank of the Rhine; (3) the treatment of Italy, especially of Murat, who had abandoned Napoleon; Talleyrand's attitude upon these questions.

In order to oppose the claims of Russia and Prussia, Austria, England and France signed a secret treaty of alliance (3 Jan., 1815).

Eventually it was settled that Prussia should receive Lusatia, being about two-fifths of the Kingdom of Saxony, and Russia the greater part of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, including the city of Warsaw; Prussia recovered from the Grand Duchy the province of Posen, with Thorn and Dantzig, while Austria recovered the Circle of Tarnopol in Southern Galicia, and Cracow was made a free state.

Holland and Belgium were united as the Kingdom of the Netherlands and granted to the Prince of Orange, who was also made Grand Duke of Luxemburg; the districts comprising the former electorates of Trèves and Cologne, etc., were granted to Prussia; the districts farther south to Bavaria, in compensation for the loss of Salzburg and the Tyrol, and the fortress of Mayence to Hesse-Darmstadt, to be garrisoned by the Germanic Confederation.

The re-arrangement of Italy: Lombardy and Venetia were given to Austria; Genoa was added to the Kingdom of Sardinia, in which the succession was fixed in the Carignano line; Tuscany and Modena were restored to their former rulers, both Austrian princes; Parma, Piacenza and Guastalla were given to the Empress Marie Louise for her life, with succession to the rightful heir, who was for the time made Grand Duke of Lucca; the States of the Church were restored to the Pope, and the question of retaining Murat on the throne of Naples remained unsettled until he defied Austria and endeavored to summon Italy to arms; after the defeat of Murat at Tolentino (3 May, 1815) Naples was restored to Ferdinand IV., who took the title of Ferdinand I., King of the Two Sicilies.

The districts on the eastern coast of the Adriatic, which Napoleon had governed as the Illyrian Provinces, were annexed by Austria.

In the North, Sweden was confirmed in the possession of Norway, ceded to her by Denmark by the Treaty of Kiel, but Denmark lost Swedish Pomerania and received instead the Duchy of Lauenburg.

In Germany, Prussia regained her acquisitions of 1803, with Swedish Pomerania, the greater part of the Kingdom of Westphalia, and Rhenish Prussia; Hanover received East Friesland and other districts; and the mediatization of the petty states of Germany was maintained.

England, in addition to the colonial gains made by the Treaty of Amiens, retained the Cape of Good Hope, the Mauritius, Malta, Heligoland, and the Ionian Islands, but restored Martinique to the French and Java to the Dutch; Castlereagh's chief preoccupation at Vienna was, however, to secure the abolition of the negro slave trade.

Peace signed between England and the United States at Ghent (24 Dec., 1814).

Before its work was completed, the Congress of Vienna was startled

by the news that Napoleon had left Elba and was again master of France; it, therefore, hurried through the rest of its work by reorganizing Germany and Switzerland.

The Germanic Confederation took the place of the Confederation of the Rhine; it consisted of thirty-five states, in addition to Austria, Prussia, Denmark and the Netherlands, namely: the four kingdoms of Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony and Würtemberg, the seven grand duchies of Baden, Hesse-Cassel or Electoral Hesse, Hesse-Darmstadt, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Oldenburg, and Saxe-Weimar, nine duchies, eleven principalities, and the four free cities of Bremen, Frankfort, Hamburg and Lübeck; the affairs of the Confederation were entrusted to a Diet (Bundestag) presided over by Austria and consisting of an Ordinary Assembly of seventeen and a General Assembly of sixty-nine members.

The Swiss Confederation was guaranteed neutrality by the powers of Europe; three new cantons, Geneva, Neufchâtel and the Valais were added; entire independence was given to the individual cantons and presidency of the Federal Diet was reserved to Zurich, Berne and Lucerne in turn.

Importance of the work of the Congress of Vienna; it showed a reaction to 18th century ideas in trampling on the ideas of nationality and of the sovereignty of the people.

The story of the Hundred Days: unpopularity and unwise conduct of Louis XVIII.; return of French prisoners of war from Germany and Russia; Napoleon escaped from Elba and landed in France (1 Mar., 1815); he reached Paris (20 Mar.); flight of Louis XVIII.; Napoleon promised to establish representative institutions; the Additional Act (23 Apr.); his endeavors to raise France against the Allies; defeated by the English and Prussians at Waterloo (18 June); surrender of Napoleon to Captain Maitland (15 July); sent to St. Helena; the Allied armies occupied Paris (6 July); restoration of Louis XVIII.

By the Second Treaty of Paris (20 Nov., 1815) France lost the part of Savoy granted to her in 1814 and other rectifications of her frontier; she had to restore to their former owners the works of art accumulated in Paris; she was forced to pay a war contribution of 700,000,000 francs and to maintain an army of 150,000 troops of the Allies in possession of her eastern fortresses for five years.

Authorities: For the history and acts of the Congress of Vienua, see Flassan, Histoire du Congrès de Vienne; Klüber, Akten des Wiener Congresses; Angeberg, Le Congrès de Vienne et les Traités de 1815; De Pradt, Le Congrés de Vienne: Lagarde, Fêtes et souvenirs du Congrès de Vienne; Sorel, Les Traités de 1815; Schoell, Recueil de pièces officielles relatives au Congrès de Vienne; Talleyrand, Mémoires; Pallain, Correspondance inédite du Prince de Talleyrand et du Roi Louis XVIII. pendant le Congrès de Vienne; Metternich, Memoirs; Alison, Lives of Lord Castlereagh and Sir Charles Stewart; Castlereagh, Correspondence; Wellington, Supplementary Despatches; Ranke, Hardenberg; Münster, Depeschen vom Wiener Congress; Pictet, Biographie, travaux et correspondance de C. Pictet de Rochemont, and Pozzo di Borgo, Correspondance. For the Hundred Days, see the books on Napoleon already cited, with Houssaye, 1815; Constant, Mémoires sur les Cent Jours ; Vitrolles, Mémoires ; and Rochechouart, Souvenirs ; and for the campaign of Waterloo, Siborne, History of the War in France and Belgium in 1815; Ropes, The Campaign of Waterloo; Gardner, Waterloo; Chesney, Waterloo Lectures; Ollech, Geschichte des Feldzuges von 1815; La Tour d' Auvergne, Waterloo; and Charras, Histoire de la campagne de 1815.

LECTURE 67.

THE HOLY ALLIANCE.

After the signature of the Second Treaty of Paris the Tsar Alexander of Russia, influenced by Madame de Krüdener, proposed the formation of a Holy Alliance declaring the obligations of monarchs to the Christian religion; it was signed by the Emperor Francis of Austria and King Frederick William III. of Prussia (26 Sept., 1815), but not by the Prince Regent of England; the objects and aims, secret and avowed, of the Holy Alliance.

Metternich recognized as the leading statesman of the Holy Alliance; his fear of democratic principles greater than his attachment to religion; his intimacy with Castlereagh; he proposed to preserve the peace of Europe and the force of government by frequent congresses of representatives of the Great Powers, which should consult and act together.

Metternich's Austrian policy the reverse of that of Joseph II.; he believed in maintaining authority by preserving the diversity of language and law in the different provinces of the Austrian Empire.

The internal policy of the Tsar Alexander I.: his attempt to establish constitutional government as King of Poland and Grand Duke of Finland; his friendship with Adam Czartoryski (b. 1770, d. 1861), and other Polish patriots; his interest in the Eastern Question, and desire to overthrow the power of the Turks; he encouraged the Greeks, especially through Capo d'Istria, in their desire for independence.

The government of Louis XVIII. in France: the system of the Charter; establishment of responsible government on the English model; the two Chambers; the two parties, Royalists and Constitutionalists; suppression of the liberty of the press; repression of the partisans of the Revolution; the White Terror; the first administration of the Duc de A Rieffelieu (1815–1818).

The Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle; agreement of the Allies to evacuate France (9 Oct., 1818).

The spread of constitutional principles in Germany: indignation of the Young German party at the refusal of the Congress of Vienna to recognize the principle of nationality or the establishment of representative institutions; the spirit of the universities; the Burschenschaft.

Certain German rulers, notably the Kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg and the Grand Dukes of Baden and Saxe-Weimar, granted representative constitutions to their states; Frederick William III. of Prussia had promised a constitution in 1815 and took steps in that direction in 1818; the work of William von Humboldt; Metternich's opposition to the liberal movement in Germany. Author 7 The wanter The murder of Kotzebue (23 Mar., 1819); its effect on Germany;

The murder of Kótzebue (23 Mar., 1819); its effect on Germany; Frederick William III. dismissed Humboldt and did not issue his promised constitution; riots in Germany; Metternich took advantage of these risings to oppose liberal ideas; the Congress of Carlsbad (Aug., 1819); the Final Act of the Congress of Vienna (15 May, 1820), strengthening the power of the Diet of the Germanic Confederation to interfere in the different states; the police measures taken against German liberalism.

The demand for representative institutions and for the recognition of liberal principles stigmatized by Metternich as Jacobinism; the Holy Alliance, including the Tsar Alexander, induced to declare against liberalism.

Secret societies formed by the supporters of liberal principles all over Europe, in relation with each other; in Germany and in Italy their cause associated with the spirit of nationality.

Insurrection in Spain (1820) caused by the reactionary government of Ferdinand VII.; the Spanish colonies in Central and South America were fighting for their independence; San Martin, Francia, Bolivar and Iturbide; the Spaniards demanded the Constitution of 1812; Ferdinand VII. appeared to yield, but appealed for help against his people to the Holy Alliance; Catalonia and Navarre opposed to the reforms of the Cortes.

The situation in Italy: policy of the Italian governments; restoration of the Society of Jesus by the Pope (7 Aug., 1814); the movement for reform, both democratic and national; the Carbonari; Pepe (b. 1783, d. 1855) seized Naples (July, 1820) and forced Ferdinand I. to adopt a liberal constitution; democratic rising in Piedmont (Mar., 1821); part played by Charles Albert, Prince of Carignano; abdication of Victor Emmanuel I., King of Sardinia.

Metternich laid the question of the liberal movement in Italy before a congress of the powers at Troppau (Oct.-Dec., 1820) and at Laybach (Jan.-May, 1821); Austria authorized to interfere; suppression of the liberal movements in Naples and Piedmont by Austrian troops.

Suicide of Castlereagh (12 Aug., 1822); succeeded by Canning as

Suicide of Castlereagh (12 Aug., 1822); succeeded by Canning as English foreign minister; Canning's liberal ideas and dislike of Metternich; Castlereagh's death the first blow at the solidarity of the Great Powers in the system of governing Europe by congresses.

Attitude of France towards the other powers; policy of Louis XVIII.; administration of Decazes (1818-20) and of Richelieu (1820-21); formation of an ultra-Royalist ministry under Villèle (15 Dec., 1821).

Meeting of the Congress of Verona (Oct., 1822), summoned to deal with the revolutionary movement in Spain; attitude taken by Canning, who declared the intention of England to recognize the independence of the South American republics and warned the powers not to interfere in Portugal; the Congress requested France to re-establish the authority of Ferdinand VII.

A French army invaded Spain (7 Apr., 1823), occupied Madrid (19 May) and suppressed the Constitutional party in Spain; unpopularity

北江山

of this action among the French liberals; plots formed against the Bourbons.

Death of Louis XVIII. (16 Sept., 1824); accession of his brother, the Comte d'Artois, as Charles X. (b. 1757, d. 1836); his ultra-Royalist ideas; Villèle retained in power.

Death of the Tsar Alexander I. (I Dec., 1825); the character of his influence on European politics since the Congress of Vienna; the Holy Alliance broken up by his death; determination of his successor, Nicholas I., to carry out his own policy without consulting the other powers; Metternich remained the director of the policy of Austria and Prussia, but England, owing to the death of Castlereagh, and Russia, owing to the death of Alexander, were no longer submissive to his leadership.

Authorities: For the diplomatic history of this period, see Debidour, Histoire diplomatique de l'Europe; Seignobos, Histoire politique de l'Europe contemporaine (1814-96); Fyffe, History of Modern Europe; Stern, Geschichte Europas, seit 1815; Muhlenbeck, Études sur les origines de la Sainte-Alliance; Metternich, Memoirs: Mazade, Un Chancelier d'Ancien Régime, règne diplomatique de M. de Metternich; Castlereagh, Correspondence; Canning, Speeches; Stapleton, Political Life of George Canning, and Canning and his Times; De Maistre, Mémoires politiques et correspondance diplomatique; Pozzo di Borgo, Correspondance diplomatique; Maggiolo, Pozzo di Borgo; and Ranke, Hardenberg; for special Congresses, see De Pradt, L'Europe après le Congrès d'Aix-la-Chapelle, and Le Congrès de Carlsbad; Bignon, Le Congrès de Troppau; and Chateaubriand, Le Congrès de Vérone; for the history of the Restoration in France, see Viel-Castel, Histoire de la Restauration; Duvergier de Hauranne, Histoire du gouvernement parlementaire en France (1814-48); Dulaure and Auguis, Histoire de la Révolution depuis 1814 jusq'à 1830; Cisternes, Le duc de Richelieu (1818-21); Crousaz-Crétet, Le duc de Richelieu; Rochechouart, Souvenirs; Hyde de Nouville, Mémoires; Barante, Souvenirs; Pasquier, Mémoires; Foy, Discours; Marcellus, Souvenirs diplomatiques; Ferrand, Mémoires; and Villèle. Mémoires; for Germany, see Gervinus, Geschichte des Neunzehuten Jahrhunderts; Treitschke, Deutsche Geschichte im Neunzehnten Jahrhundert; Pfister, König Friedrich von Würtemberg und seine Zeit; on Italy, see Bianchi, Storia documentata della diplomazia Europea in Italia; Nisco. Storia d'Italia (1815-30); Stillman, The Union of Italy (1815-95); Tivaroni, Storia critica del Risorgimento Italiano; Colletta, Istoria di Reame di Napoli ; Pepe, Relation des événements politiques et militaires de Naples en 1820 et 1821, and Mémoires historiques, politiques, et militaires sur la révolution du royaume de Naples; and Costa de Beauregard, La jeunesse du roi Charles Albert;

for Spain, see *Hubbard*, Histoire contemporaine de l'Espagne; *Hugo*, Histoire de la guerre d'Espagne en 1823; and *Martignac*, Essai historique sur la révolution d'Espagne; and for Russia, *Ford*, Life and Letters of Madame de Krüdener; La correspondance entre le Tsar Alexandre et le Prince Adam Czartoryski; *Schnitzler*, Histoire intime de la Russie sous les Empereurs Alexandre et Nicolas; *Bernhardi*, Geschichte Russlands und der europäischen Politik; and *Korff*, Avénement au trône de l'Empereur Nicolas I.

LECTURE 68.

THE EASTERN QUESTION: THE INDEPENDENCE OF GREECE.

The importance of the Eastern question in the history of Europe during the 19th century; owing to the extinction of Poland, it becomes practically a Turkish question; England and Austria have devoted themselves to checking the disruption of the Turkish Empire, which it has been the traditional policy of Russia to promote.

The position of the Turks at the time of the Congress of Vienna eline of the old Muhammadan fanaticism and energy; influence of the Phanariot Greek families; the government of the Sultan Mahmud II. (1808–30); quasi-independence in Egypt attained by Mehemet Ali (b. 1769, d. 1849) after his destruction of the Mamelukes (1811); the power of Ali Pasha of Janina (b. 1741, d. 1822) in Albania; discontent of the Christian populations under Turkish rule, of the Romanian inhabitants of the Danubian provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia, of the Slavs of Servia, and of the Greeks.

Slavs of Servia, and of the Greeks.

The insuffection of the Servians under Kara George (1804); recognition of independence by the Treaty of Bucharest (28 May, 1812); the Turks nevertheless reconquered Servia and expelled Kara George; the second Servian insurrection under Milosch Obrenovitch (1815); murder of Kara George (July, 1817); Milosch Obrenovitch declared himself Prince of Servia (6 Nov. 1817).

Condition of the Danubian provinces; loss of Bessarabia by the Treaty of Bucharest; continued government of Moldavia and Wallachia by Hospodars appointed from the Phanariot Greek families of Constantinople; failure of the attempt of Alexander <u>Ypsilanti</u> to raise an insurrection on behalf of the Greeks among the Romanians (1821); absence of sympathy between Greeks and Romanians; appointment by the Sultan of two Romanian boyars or nobles, John Stourza and Gregory Ghica, as Hospodars of Moldavia and Wallachia (1822).

The Greek insurrection (1821); encouraged, but not openly, by the Tsar Alexander I.; his friendship for Capo d'Istria (b. 1776); gallantry of the Greek insurgents; Metternich declared against assisting them; Alexander, therefore, dismissed Capo d'Istria from office (1822); strong feeling among the educated classes in England and France in favor of the Greeks; many volunteers, including Byron, went to their assistance; large loans raised for them in England; death of Byron (19 Apr. 1824); arrival of an Egyptian army under Ibrahim Pasha, sent by Mehemet Ali at the request of the Sultan (March, 1825).

Change caused in the attitude of Russia towards the Eastern Question by the accession of Nicholas; his resolution to promote Russian interests in Turkey without consulting the other powers; agreement of Nicholas with Canning to force the Turks to recognize the independence of Greece (4 Apr., 1826); increased sympathy for the Greeks aroused by the atrocities of the Turks at the capture of Missolonghi (22 Apr., 1826); by the Treaty of Ackerman with Russia (7 Oct., 1826) the Sultan agreed to appoint local boyars, elected by the local divans, for a term of seven years as Hospodars or princes of the two Danubian provinces, who could not be removed without the consent of the Tsar, and to recognize the quasi-independence of Servia under Turkish suzerainty.

Canning, prime minister of England (10 Apr., 1827); Capo d'Istria elected President of the Greek State (14 Apr.); Russia, England and France signed an agreement for securing absolute independence for Greece (6 July); the Turks, encouraged by Metternich, refused to yield; death of Canning (8 Aug.); destruction of the Turkish and Egyptian fleet by the allies at Navarino (20 Oct., 1827).

Position of the Sultan Mahmud II.; by the massacre of the Janissaries (15 June, 1826) he had destroyed his army; the battle of Navarino had destroyed his fleet; nevertheless, he refused to consent to the inde-

pendence of Greece.

The Tsar Nicholas, in the name of the Triple Alliance, attacked the Turks, and a Russian army crossed the Pruth (7 May, 1828); changes of ministry in England and France caused England under Wellington to be less eager, and France under Martignac to be more eager, to support the cause of the Greeks; a French force under Maison occupied the Morea, which was evacuated by the Egyptian troops; the Russians repulsed from Shumla and Silistria; successful campaign of Paskiévitch (b. 1782, d. 1856) in Armenia.

By an agreement between England, France and Russia, the limits of Greece were fixed, and it was resolved that some prince not belonging to the royal houses of those countries should be placed upon the throne of Greece (22 March, 1829); candidature of Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

Campaign of 1829: Diébitch (b. 1785, d. 1831) at Adrianople; terror of the Sultan Mahmud; by the Treaty of Adrianople (14 Sept., 1829) the Treaty of Ackerman was renewed with the addition that the Hospodars of the Danubian provinces were to be appointed for life; the independence of Greece was recognized, and the Russians were permitted to occupy the fortresses upon the Danube as a guarantee for the payment of a large indemnity by the Turks.

Conclusion of the Greek question: the throne refused by Leopold; murder of Capo d' Istria (9 Oct., 1831); Otho of Bavaria made King of Greece (7 May, 1832); the Morea evacuated by the French troops.

The Tsar Nicholas I. and Poland: the government of the Grand Duke Constantine; the indignation of the Poles at the refusal of self-government; the feeling of nationality maintained by secret societies; the Poles, who had served under Napoleon, looked to France for help in regaining their independence.

Effect of the Revolution of July, 1830, in France upon Poland; the insurrection at Warsaw (29 Nov., 1830); the Russians driven from Poland; Chlopicki, Dictator of Poiand (5 Dec., 1830–23 Jan., 1831); the Poles defeated the Russians at Waver (31 Mar., 1831), and elsewhere; refusal of the Powers to help the Poles; the Austrians and Prussians massed troops upon their frontiers, fearing that the insurrection would reach Austrian and Prussian Poland: Louis Philippe of France not firm enough on his throne to interfere; the Poles defeated at Ostro-

lenka (26 May, 1831); Warsaw besieged and taken by Paskiévitch (7 Sept., 1831); cruel punishment of the Polish insurgents; rigorous government of Poland by the Tsar Nicholas.

Policy of Nicholas towards the Turks: by his occupation of the Danubian fortresses he kept them at his mercy; the character and career of Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt; he invaded Syria (Oct., 1831) with the intention of marching on Constantinople; intervention of England and France to stop Mehemet Ali (5 May, 1833); the Sultan Mahmud called in the help of Russia and signed an offensive and defensive treaty with Nicholas at Unkiar Skelessi (8 July, 1833).

Conclusion of the Romanian question: a constitution or organic law drawn up under Russian influence for the Danubian provinces; accepted in Wallachia (July, 1831) and Moldavia (Jan., 1832); excellence of the administrative arrangements made by this constitution, but political power was left entirely to the boyars; appointment of Alexander Ghica to be Hospodar or Prince of Wallachia and of Michael Stourza to be Hospodar or Prince of Moldavia (1834); evacuation of the Danubian principalities by the Russians.

Conclusion of the Servian question: Milosch Obrenovitch confirmed as Prince of Servia, but under the obligation to pay an annual tribute to the Turks and to maintain a Turkish garrison in Belgrade (Aug., 1830).

Russia's advance into Central Asia: conquest of Central Asian tribes one of the national aims of the Russian people; importance and value of the work to Europe; the campaigns of the Russians for the possession of the Caucasus and the conquest of Circassia and Georgia; Russian wars with Persia; by the Treaty of Gulistan (12 Oct., 1813) Fatch Ali Shah ceded <u>Daghestan</u> to Russia, and by the Treaty of Turkomanchai (22 Feb., 1828) Russian influence became predominant in Persia.

The settlement of the Eastern Question presents different problems to England, France and Austria, which all have an interest in restraining Russia.

Authorities: For the history of the Eastern Question, reference may be made to the sketch contained in *Debidour*, Histoire diplomatique de l'Europe; to several of the other works cited under Lecture 67; to *Rosen*, Geschichte der Türkei (1826–

1856); to Balleydier, Histoire de l'Empereur Nicolas; to Gentz, Dépêches inédits aux Hospodars de Valachie; to Ringhoffer, Ein Dezennium preussischer Orientpolitik zur Zeit des Zaren Nikolaus (1821-1830); to Prokesch-Osten, Mehemet Ali; to Xénopol, Histoire des Roumains; to Saint-René-Taillandier, La Serbie, Kara-Georges et Milosch; Cunibert, Essai historique sur les révolutions et l'indépendance de la Serbie (1804-1856); and to Ranke, History of Servia. For the War of Greek Independence, the best authorities are Capo d'Istria, Correspondance; Prokesch-Osten, Geschichte des Absalls der Griechen; Finlay, History of the Greek Revolution; Gordon, History of the Greek Revolution; Phillips, The War of Greek Independence (1821-33); Soutzo, Histoire de la revolution grecque, and Tricoupis' history written in modern Greek; for the policy of Canning, see his Political Life by Stapleton, and his Official Correspondence, ed. Stapleton; for the war between Russia and Turkey, see Chesney, The Russo-Turkish Campaigns of 1828-29; Moltke, Journal of the War between Russia and Turkey in Europe; and Fonlon, La Russie en Asie Mineure, ou campagne du marèchal Paskiévitch en 1828 et 1829; for the Polish Insurrection, Schmitt, Geschichte des polnischen Aufstandes, 1831 and Mieroslawski, Histoire de la révolution de Pologne; and, for the advance of Russia into Central Asia, Hellwald, The Russians in Central Asia, and Popowski, The Rival Powers in Central Asia. A list of books in French may be found in Bengesco, Essai d'une notice bibliographique sur la question d'Orient; Orient européen, 1821-97.

LECTURE 69.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1830 IN FRANCE.

The position of parties under the Restoration: in the Chambers appeared only ultra-Royalists, and Constitutionalists, who desired to interpret the Charter of 1814 according to the principles of 1789; in the army and in military circles were many Bonapartists, and in the cities the democratic feeling was very strong.

Character of the ultra-Royalist administration of Villèle (1821-28) during the latter years of Louis XVIII. and the first years of Charles X.; severe repression of Bonapartist plots and city riots; the Royalists endeavored to make the Constitutional party responsible for Bonapartist and democratic excesses; the bourgeois and educated classes of France supported the Constitutionalists; Royalism was confined to a small party of the nobility.

Growing importance of journalism: the work of Armand Carrel, Courier, Thiers and Guizot.

The character and policy of Charles X.; he hoped by a vigorous forreign policy, as shown in the expedition to the Morea in 1828 and in the expedition to Algiers in 1830, to turn the minds of the people from internal politics, and by a close alliance with the absolutist powers, especially Russia, to get assistance from abroad in case of insurrection at home.

The elections of 1827 gave a large majority in the Chambers to the Constitutionalists; Villèle succeeded in office by Martignac (4 Jan, 1828); the new ministry satisfied neither the King nor the Chambers, and was succeeded by the ultra-Royalist ministry of Polignac (8 Aug., 1829); the king and ministers, being unable to get a majority for their measures, resolved to alter the Charter, for the purpose of increasing the royal power.

Proclamation of the Ordinances, submitting the press to severe censorship and modifying the electoral laws (25 July, 1830).

The insurrection of July, 1830, in Paris; the erection of barricades and street fighting (27, 28 July); the failure of the troops to suppress the insurrection; Charles X., when too late, withdrew the Ordinances (29 July); he resolved to leave France with his family (31 July); he appointed the Duke of Orleans, Lieutenant-General of the kingdom, (1 Aug.) and abdicated (2 Aug.); he reached England (17 Aug.).

Surprise of the Constitutionalists at their sudden and complete victory; the part played by La Fayette; the Constitutionalists resolved that although the victory had been won by the democrats of Paris it should result in the formation of a constitutional monarchy; the Chambers revised the Charter from the liberal point of view, and (7 Aug.) elected the Duke of Orleans as King of the French under the title of Louis Philippe.

Character, career and disposition of Louis Philippe (b. 1773, d. 1850.); difficulties of his position at the commencement of his reign; he represented the ideas and wishes of the bourgeois and not of the whole people of France, which weakened him at home, while abroad he was regarded as the creation of a new French Revolution not less dangerous to the monarchical system of Europe than the first French Revolution.

The foreign policy of Louis Philippe: importance of the service rendered at this time by Talleyrand, as ambassador to London (Sept., 1830–Nov., 1834); the Monarchy of July recognized by Wellington, as prime minister of England, and cordially supported by the Reform Ministry of Lord Grey, which succeeded to power in Nov., 1830; the recognition by England was followed by recognition by Austria and Prussia, Metternich and Frederick William III. being afraid to attack France by themselves; the Tsar Nicholas was too much occupied with putting down the Polish insurrection to interfere in France, and did not desire to do so after Louis Philippe refused to assist the Poles.

The insurrections in Belgium and elsewhere which followed the Revolution in France made the position of Louis Philippe very difficult, because France was held responsible for the other risings; skill shown by Louis Philippe and Talleyrand.

Internal policy of Louis Philippe; doubtfulness of his title as a legitimate or as a revolutionary monarch; his adoption of the tricolor flag; La Fayette appointed Commandant-General of the National Guards of France (16 Aug.); the first ministry of Louis Philippe containing members of both the Constitutional and advanced Liberal parties; Laffitte (b. 1767, d. 1844), the leader of the advanced party, made chief minister (3 Nov., 1830); changes made in the Constitution.

Casimir Périer (b. 1777, d. 1832); his ministry (13 Mar., 1831-16 May, 1832); his strong government at home and his strong foreign policy; abolition of the hereditary peerage and appointment of a chamber of life peers.

Significance of the Revolution of 1830 in France; the bourgeois at last had an opportunity of putting into effect the principles of 1789; results of the experiment.

Authorities: For the government of the Restoration, see Viel-Castel and Duvergier de Hauranne, cited under Lecture 67, with Daudet, Le ministère de Martignac. The Revolution of 1830 in France is treated at length in the first chapters of the following general histories of the reign of Louis Philippe: Thureau-Dangin, Histoire de la Monarchie de Juillet; Louis Blanc, Histoire de dix ans; Capefigue, L'Europe depuis l'avénement du Roi Louis Philippe; D'Haussonville, Histoire de la politique extérieure du gouvernement français (1830-48), and Hillebrand, Geschichte Frankreichs; of special value are Talleyrand, Mémoires, vols. iv and v, containing his correspondence with Louis Philippe from 1830 to 1834, and refer-

ence may be made to Weil, Les élections législative depuis 1789; E. Pierre, Histoire des assemblées politiques; Casimir Périer, Opinions et discours; Guizot, Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de mon temps; Lafayette, Mémoires; Bardoux; Les dernières années de La Fayette; Salvandy, Seize, mois; Laffitte, Mémoires, D'Haussez, Mémoires; Pasquier, Mémoires; the Duc de Broglie, Souvenirs, and Daudet, Le procès des ministres de Charles X.

LECTURE 70.

THE BELGIAN INSURRECTION.

The mistake made by the Congress of Vienna in uniting the Protestant and Catholic Netherlands under one monarch; the hereditary antagonism of the Dutch and the Belgians; in 1815 Belgium had been for more than twenty years a part of France and resented the government of the Dutch.

The government of William I., King of the Netherlands; he declared Dutch the official language of the kingdom and favored his Dutch over his Belgian subjects.

The Belgians excited by the news of the Revolution of July, 1830, in Paris, and hoping for help from the new government of France, rose in insurrection (25 Aug., 1830); a Dutch attack on Brussels repulsed (23-27 Sept.); a provisional government formed, and a national assembly summoned.

The National Assembly of Belgium met (10 Nov.), solemnly proclaimed the independence of Belgium (18 Nov.), and that Belgium should be like France a constitutional monarchy and not a republic.

William I. appealed to the Great Powers for assistance, on the ground that the independence of Belgium was contrary to the arrangements made by the Congress of Vienna; but the Tsar Nicholas was engaged in Poland, Metternich's attention was fixed on Italy, England, under the Reform Ministry of Grey, sympathized with the Belgian insurgents, and only the King of Prussia was inclined to assist him.

The difficult position of Louis Philippe: as the king made by the Revolution of 1830 in Paris, he was looked on as responsible for the

Belgian Revolution by Europe and appealed to for help by the Belgians; England was the only great power which cared much about Belgium, and it thought more of keeping Belgium separate from France than subject to Holland; Talleyrand, as French ambassador in London, agreed to act with England in settling the fate of the belgians; a conference of the Powers summoned for this purpose in London.

The Conference of London recognized the independence of Belgium (20 Dec.), and directed an armistice to be made (9 Jan., 1831); it fixed the boundaries of the new Belgian State (20 Jan.), excluding from it Luxemburg, Maestricht and the right bank of the Scheldt; discontent of the Belgians with this frontier, which was eventually slightly modified.

The Duc de Nemours, second son of Louis Philippe, elected King of the Belgians over the Duke of Leuchtenberg and the Archduke Charles; he refused the throne (17 Feb., 1831); Surlet de Chokier made regent (24 Feb.); Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (b. 1790, d. 1865), the English candidate, elected King of the Belgians (4 June); he accepted the throne under certain conditions; the Conference of London, under the influence of the English foreign minister, Palmerston (b. 1784, d. 1865), declared Belgium neutral under the guarantee of the Powers.

William I. disregarded the armistice and suddenly invaded Belgium (1 Aug., 1831); Leopold appealed for aid to France; vigorous action of the Casimir Périer ministry; a French army under <u>Gérard</u> occupied Brussels (12 Aug., 1831); the Belgians accepted the terms fixed by the Conference of London (15 Nov., 1831); the states of Europe generally

recognized Leopold.

William I. remained obdurate; the English and French fleets blockaded the Dutch ports; Gérard's army was directed to take the citadel of Antwerp, the only Belgian fortress still garrisoned by the Dutch troops; capture of Antwerp (23 Dec., 1832).

From that time the independence of Belgium was assured, though William I. still tried to make difficulties.

The nature and character of the Belgian Constitution,

The effect of the Revolutions of 1830 in Paris and Belgium on Germany; riots and risings in Rhenish Prussia, where the Catholics were alarmed at the Protestant legislation of Frederick William III., and

where the idea of self-government was especially strong; insurrections and demands for self-government in other German states, notably in Hanover, Hesse-Cassel and Saxony; expulsion of Charles II., Duke of Brunswick, by his people (7 Sept., 1830).

Resurrection of the Young German movement for nationality and self-government: revival of the Tugenbund, the Burschenschaft, etc.

Metternich attributed these political risings to the growth of revolutionary ideas, and attacked all representative government as a form of republicanism and as essentially revolutionary.

Metternich's ascendency over the mind of Frederick William III.; after 1830 he appealed to the Tsar Nicholas and hoped to revive the

Holy Alliance. Engresses of the Powers.

The Conferences of Töplitz (7–16 Aug., 1833), and Münchengrätz (10–20 Sept., 1833); the three powers of Austria, Prussia and Russia, guaranteed each other's rights in Poland and took measures for crushing the idea of Polish nationality; they also resolved against the doctrine of non-intervention, and declared the right of any monarch, whose position was assailed by internal rebellion, to appeal for aid to other monarchs.

With regard to Germany, a law was passed in the Federal Diet, through the influence of Metternich, that, in case of disagreement between a German ruler and his people, the Confederation could interfere to restore the power of the ruler, and it was declared that no constitution granted by himself could limit the right of a ruler to collect taxes.

The effect of the Revolution of 1830 in Italy: the Carbonari directed a series of insurrections; the Empress Marie Louise driven from Parma, and Duke Francis IV. from Modena (Feb., 1831); insurrections in the States of the Church due to the repressive government of Pope Leo XII.—Della Genga—(1823–29) and of Pope Pius VIII.—Castiglioni—(1829–30); the election of Pope Gregory XVI.—Cappellari—(2 Feb., 1831); provisional government formed for the Legations at Bologna, under Carlo Pepcli, and rejection of the temporal power of the Papacy.

Metternich sent Austrian troops to restore order in Parma, Modena, and the States of the Church (March, 1831); the Italian insurgents expected help from France; the attitude taken by Louis Philippe and

orly halped ?

Casimir Périer; the French occupied Ancona (22 Feb., 1832), which they asserted their right to hold as long as the Austrians occupied the Legations; the French evacuated Ancona, when the Austrians withdrew (Dec., 1838).

Significance of the movement of 1830 in Europe.

Authorities: On the government of Belgium by the Dutch, see Gerlache, Histoire du royaume des Pays-Bas depuis 1814 jusqu'en 1830; on the Belgian Revolution, see White, The Belgic Revolution of 1830; Nothomb, Essai historique et politique sur la révolution de Belgique; Juste, La révolution belge de 1830, Le congrès national de Belgique, Les fondateurs de la monarchie belge, and Léopold I. et Léopold II., leur vie et leur règne; Bavay, Histoire de la révolution belge de 1830; and Potter, Primary authorities are Discussions du congrès national de Souvenirs. Belgique, 1830-31, ed. Huyttens, 5 vols.; and Recueil de pièces diplomatiques relatives aux affaires de la Belgique en 1830-32, ed. Verstolk van Soelen; Thonissen, La constitution belge annotée. On the revolutionary movement in Germany in 1830, see Gervinus and Treitschke, cited under Lecture 67; Bulle, Geschichte der neuesten Zeit; Deventer, Cinquante années de l'histoire fédérale de l'Allemagne; Mucke, Die politischen Bewegung in Deutschland von 1830 bis 1835; and Biedermann, 1815-1840, funf und zwanzig Jahre deutscher Geschichte; and, in Italy, see Thayer, The Dawn of Italian Independence, Italy from the Congress of Vienna, 1814, to the Fall of Venice, 1849; Stillman, The Union of Italy; and Tivaroni, Storia critica del Risorgimento Italiano.

LECTURE 71.

INSURRECTION AND CIVIL WAR IN SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

The condition of Portugal after the Peninsular War; extent of English influence in the Regency and the army; expulsion of the English officers (1820) and adoption of a democratic Constitution (1822).

Return of John VI. to Portugal (4 July, 1821); Brazil declared its independence under his elder son, the Emperor Pedro I. (Aug., 1822); on the death of John VI. (10 Mar., 1826), the Emperor Pedro issued the Charter of 1826 (26 Apr.) establishing moderate parliamentary government and then abdicated the throne of Portugal (2 May, 1826) in favor of his daughter, Maria da Gloria (b. 1819); the English force sent by Canning to Portugal to maintain order, withdrawn in 1827.

Dom Miguel (b. 1802, d. 1866), younger brother of the Emperor Pedro, who was appointed Regent (3 July, 1827), seized the throne (30 June, 1828); he declared himself an absolute monarch, and persecuted both the moderate adherents to the Charter of 1826, and the more radical supporters of the Constitution of 1822.

The reign of Dom Miguel; both Chartists and Constitutionalists rose in rebellion (1829) and declared in favor of Maria da Gloria; the Emperor Pedro resigned the throne of Brazil (7 April, 1831) and came to the support of his daughter's cause; attitude of the powers of Europe towards the civil war in Portugal; many English officers entered the Queen's service; the siege of Oporto; Napier (b. 1786, d. 1860) destroyed Miguel's fleet off Cape Saint Vincent (5 July, 1833); the Pedroites occupied Lisbon (24 July).

England, France and Spain recognized Maria da Gloria and formed the Quadruple Alliance (22 Apr., 1834); Dom Miguel surrendered to a Spanish and Portuguese army at Evora Monte (26 May, 1834); by the Convention of Evora Monte (29 May) he was expelled from Portugal.

Death of the ex-Emperor Pedro (24 Sept., 1834); troubled reign of Maria da Gloria (1834–53); repeated outbreaks of civil war and frequent military pronunciamentos in favor of the Charter of 1826 and the Constitution of 1822; revision of the Charter (1852); the career of Saldanha (b. 1790, d. 1876).

Revival of national feeling in Portugal; rejection of the Iberianist idea.

The latter years of the reign of Ferdinand VII. of Spain, after his restoration to absolute power by the French in 1823; the question of the succession to the throne: Ferdinand VII., by a Pragmatic Sanction, declared his elder daughter, Isabella, to be his heir; opposition of Don Carlos (b. 1788, d. 1855), his brother, who claimed the succession as male heir.

Death of Ferdinand VII. (29 Sept., 1833); Isabella, a child of three years old, recognized as Queen by the greater part of Spain, under the regency of her mother, Christina (b. 1806, d. 1878), a daughter of Ferdinand I., King of the Two Sicilies; character of Christina; the regency recognized by England and France.

Don Carlos opposed the regency and declared himself king; his cause

favored by the clericals and by the mountaineers of Northern Spain; outbreak of civil war; victories of the Carlists; death of Zumalacarregui (25 June, 1835).

Rivalry of England and France in the affairs of the Peninsula: personal rivalry between Palmerston and Louis Philippe; both countries prevented by jealousy of each other from openly assisting the Christinists, though they both as constitutional monarchies desired her success over the Carlists; "Legions" of volunteers were, however, raised both in France and in England for the support of the Christinists; services of Sir De Lacy Evans.

Perilous position of the Christinists; the military revolt of La Granja (12-13 Aug., 1836); Christina summoned a Cortes, which promulgated the liberal constitution of 1837 (June); vigorous prosecution of the war against the Carlists; victories of Espartero; defeat and flight of Don Carlos (Sept., 1839).

Espartero forced Christina to leave Spain (Oct., 1840), and ruled the country as Regent for three years; his strong government and endeavors to put down brigandage and to restore the prosperity of Spain.

Narvaez overthrew Espartero (July, 1843), recalled Christina, and declared the young Queen Isabella of age (8 Nov., 1843).

The rivalry between England and France for influence in Spain becomes more pronounced; the policy of Louis Philippe; the question of the Spanish marriages; Queen Isabella married to her cousin Don Francisco de Assisi, Duke of Cadiz, and her sister and heiress to the Duc de Montpensier, fifth son of Louis Philippe (10 Oct., 1846).

Condition of Spain during the reign of Queen Isabella: frequent changes in the ministry between Narvaez (b. 1800, d. 1868), Espartero (b. 1792, d. 1879) and O'Donnell (b. 1809, d. 1867); backwardness of Spain in material and intellectual progress.

Characteristics of the history of the Peninsula during the period succeeding the overthrow of Napoleon; failure of representative institutions and party government to meet the conditions in Spain and Portugal; the meaning and effect of the pronunciamentos and civil wars.

Authorities: Upon the civil wars in Portugal and the establishment of representative government there, see *Morse Stephens*, The Story of Portugal; *Smith* Memoirs of the Duke of Saldanha; *Luz Soriano*, Historia da Guerra civi e do Es-

tabelecimento do Governo Parlamentar em Portugal; Arriaga, Historia da Revolução portugueza de 1820; Freire de Carvalho, Memorias para a historia do tempo que duron a Usurpação de Dom Miguel; Gomes de Barros e Cunha, Historia da Liberdade em Portugal, and Bollaert, The Wars of Succession in Spain and Portugal; upon the same period in Spain, see Reynald, Histoire de l'Espagne depuis la mort de Charles III.; Hubbard, Histoire contemporaine de l'Espagne; Pirala, Historia de la guerra civil y de los partidos liberal y Carlista; Mariano, La regencia de Baldomero Espartero; Los Valles, Don Carlos; Bollaert; and Duncan, The English in Spain, or the War of Succession between 1834 and 1840.

LECTURE 72.

EUROPE DURING THE REIGN OF LOUIS PHILIPPE.

The characteristics of the Monarchy of July: its founders moulded their ideas on the English parliamentary system, including the responsibility of ministers, the annual voting of supplies, and the selection of ministers from the legislature, but the upper House consisted of life and not of hereditary peers, and the popular House was elected by the large taxpayers and members of the learned professions, the franchise being restricted to about three hundred thousand persons.

The difficulties of the position of Louis Philippe: he was opposed on the one side by the Legitimists, who caused disturbances in the South, and on the other by the Republicans, who caused many riots in the great industrial cities, and especially in Lyons.

Effect of the foreign policy of Louis Philippe and of his refusal to help the insurgent Belgians, Poles and Italians upon his position at home.

Death of Casimir Périer (16 May, 1832).

Repression of a Republican rising in Paris (6 June), and arrest of the Duchess of Berry (7 Nov.), who had endeavored to raise the Vendée for the Legitimists.

Commencement of parliamentary government; formation of the Soult administration (11 Oct., 1832); difficulties in the way of establishing regular parliamentary government in France; absence of definite par-

liamentary parties; the chief parliamentary leaders, Thiers (b. 1797, d. 1877), Guizot (b. 1787, d. 1874), the Duc de Broglie (b. 1785, d. 1870), Molé (b. 1781, d. 1855), Berryer (b. 1790, d. 1868), and Odilon Barrot (b. 1791, d. 1873); frequent ministerial changes.

Numerous industrial and democratic insurrections in France; Fieschi's attempt on the king's life (28 July, 1835); attempt of Louis Napoleon upon Strasburg (30 Oct., 1836).

The foreign policy of Louis Philippe: his intimate relations with England (1830-34); the cause of this close alliance, the distrust of him felt by the other Great Powers; gradual weakening of the alliance; Palmerston, the English foreign minister, endeavored to keep France from interfering in the affairs of Spain and Portugal; Louis Philippe then weakened in his attachment for England, and negotiated with Austria, endeavoring to obtain an Austrian archduchess as wife for his eldest son; France and England came into collision on South American, Asiatic, African and other questions.

The occupation and gradual conquest of Algeria by France: the resistance of Abd-el-Kader (b. 1807, d. 1883); the campaigns of Bugeaud (b. 1784, d. 1849).

Revolution in Servia; abdication of Milosch Obrenovitch (13 June, 1839); death of his son and successor, Milan (8 July); brief reign of Michael Obrenovitch, second son of Milosch; his expulsion (27 Aug., 1842); election of Alexander Karageorgevitch by the Skuptchina, or Diet, as Prince of Servia (14 Sept.).

A fresh crisis in the Eastern Question nearly caused war between France and England; the Sultan Mahmud II. had not forgiven Mehemet Ali, the Pasha of Egypt, who had conquered Syria in 1832, and had only been prevented from overthrowing the Ottoman Empire by the intervention of Russia and the Great Powers; the Turks invaded Syria, but were defeated by the Egyptians near Aleppo (24 June, 1839); death of Mahmud II (30 June), and accession of Abdul Medjid.

The French sympathized with Mehemet Ali, but England feared that his success would overthrow the Turkish Empire, and therefore agreed with Russia, Prussia and Austria to intervene on behalf of the Turks; Palmerston resolved to break the Anglo-French alliance and by the Treaty of London (15 July, 1840) agreed with the other three Great

Powers to act without France; Napier and Stopford bombarded Beyrout (12 Sept.) and Acre (2 Nov.); the Egyptians retired from Syria; and eventually (13 Feb., 1841) Mehemet Ali was forced to accept an hereditary title to Egypt under certain conditions, and to abandon all other claims; the Great Powers guaranteed the neutrality of the Dardanelles under Turkish sovereignty (13 July, 1841).

Indignation felt in France against England: war averted with difficulty; formation of the Guizot administration (29 Oct., 1840), which remained in office till the end of the reign of Louis Philippe.

Growth of the Napoleonic legend in France: attempt of Louis Napoleon on Boulogne (6 Aug., 1840); the remains of the first Napoleon brought to France and interred in Paris (15 Dec., 1840).

Changes brought about in the political attitude and conditions of England during the reign of Louis Philippe; the passing of the Reform Bill (7 June, 1832) transferred political power from the aristocracy to the middle classes, and subsequent reforms made the administration more democratic; the accession of Victoria (20 June, 1837) separated English from continental interests, for the Kingdom of Hanover passed to her uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, who ascended the throne as Ernest I.

Marriage of Victoria to Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (b. 1819, d. 1861); his character, and interest in foreign politics; the Queen's first ministers, Melbourne and Palmerston; influence of Wellington; Sir Robert Peel (b. 1788, d. 1850) prime minister (1841); his endeavors for peace.

The question of the Spanish marriages: Louis Philippe tricked the English ministry, and after preventing the marriage of Queen Isabella of Spain to the English candidate, Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, secured the marriage of the young Queen to her cousin Don Francisco and of her only sister to his own fifth son, the Duc de Montpensier (10 Oct., 1846).

Indignation of the English court and ministry at the Spanish marriages; Lord John Russell (b. 1792. d. 1878), who came into office with Palmerston as foreign minister (6 July, 1846), resolved to isolate Louis Philippe; this government refused to discourage the revolutionary movements on the point of breaking out all over Europe.

Position of Austria during the reign of Louis Philippe: the death of the Emperor Francis I. and the accession of the Emperor Ferdinand I. (2 Mar., 1835), strengthened the position of Metternich; his close relations with the Tsar Nicholas; occupation of Cracow (1836–41) by Austria; annexation of Cracow by Austria (6 Nov., 1846); Metternich's continued efforts to repress all movements for parliamentary institutions or national independence in Italy and Germany; Metternich's friendship with Russia strengthened, while his influence over Prussia decreased after the accession of Frederick William IV. (1840).

Insignificant part played by <u>Prussia</u> in European politics during the latter years of the reign of Frederick William III.; the king's fidelity to the ideas of the Holy Alliance and to the settlement reached by the Congress of Vienna; he refused to grant to the Prussians the constitution he had promised; under Metternich's influence he opposed liberal and parliamentary ideas all over Germany; discontent caused in Rhenish Prussia by his Protestant sympathies; death of Frederick William III. (7 June, 1840).

In spite of this opposition to liberal ideas Prussia was regarded as the one power which could unite Germany; this doctrine held especially in Northern Germany, fostered by the universities, and encouraged by Prussian statesmen and administrators; excellence of the Prussian administrative and military system; maintenance of the system of Scharnhorst; Prussia became especially the guardian of the smaller states of Germany; the first step taken towards hegemony by the formation of the Zollverein.

The history of the Zollverein or Customs-union; the ideas and arguments of List (b. 1789, d. 1846); the Federal Diet of the Germanic Confederation refused to establish a customs-union; formation of the Zollverein (1833); its chief members, Prussia, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Saxony, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, and the petty states of the Thuringian Union; joined by Baden, Nassau and Hesse-Homburg (1835), Frankfort (1836), Waldeck (1838), Brunswick (1841) and Luxemburg (1842); opposed to it was the Steuerverein, consisting of Hanover, Oldenburg, Brunswick (to 1841), and Schaumburg-Lippe, as well as the two Mecklenburgs, and the free cities of Hamburg, Bremen and Lübeck; commercial and political importance of the Zollverein.

Accession of Frederick William IV. as King of Prussia (1840); his character; his hatred for France; his liberal ideas; he placed Eichhorn and Boyen in office, allowed exiled liberals to return, patronized German literature and gave a measure of liberty to the press; he formed a States-General out of the Provincial Estates with taxing and consultative powers only (3 Feb., 1847).

Civil war in Switzerland: the desire of the majority of the Swiss cantons for a stronger federal bond than that devised by the Congress of Vienna; changes in the constitutions of individual cantons: introduction, especially since 1830, of democratic ideas; cantonal revolutions; formation of the Sonderbund, by which the seven Catholic cantons of Lucerne, Schwyz, Uri, Unterwalden, Zug, Freiburg, and the Valais made an armed union to resist centralization and defend the Jesuits; the majority in the Federal Diet, presided over by Ochsenbein, decreed the dissolution of the Sonderbund (20 July, 1847) and the expulsion of the Jesuits; attitude of the Great Powers; mutual apprehensions of Louis Philippe and Metternich; they deny the right of the Swiss to alter the constitution laid down by the Congress of Vienna; the Sonderbund declared its intention to resist (29 Oct.); the Federal Diet declared war (4 Nov.); General Dufour defeated the troops of the Sonderbund and occupied their cantons, which submitted (29 Nov.); declaration of the new federal constitution, giving greater strength to the federal power and organizing a Swiss army, but recognizing cantonal rights in internal administration.

General apprehension of democratic risings felt in 1847; preparations for revolution; the persistence of liberal and national ideas.

Authorities: For the general history of the period see Debidour, Seignobos. and Fyffe, cited under Lecture 67. In addition to the works on the reign of Louis Philippe by Duvergier de Hauranne, Thureau-Dangin, Louis Blanc, Capefigue, D'Haussonville, Hillebrand, Weil and Pierre, cited under Lecture 69, see for the latter part of his reign and for other points touched on in this lecture, Regnault, Histoire de huit ans (1840-48); Guizot, Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de mon temps; Odilon Barrot, Mémoires; Mazade, Monsieur Thiers; Thiers, Discours parlementaires; Berryer, Discours parlementaires; Lacombe, Vie de Berryer; Barante, Souvenirs; Duc de Broglie, Souvenirs; Talleyrand, Mémoires; Thirria, Napoléon III. avant l'Empire; Rousset, Conquête de l'Algérie, and Ideville, Le Maréchal Bugeaud. For the history of the English foreign policy see Le Strange, Correspondence of

Lord Grey and the Princess Lieven; Dalling and Ashley, Life of Lord Palmerston; Torrens, Life of Lord Melbourne; Walpole, Life of Lord John Russell; Gordon, Lord Aberdeen; Greville, Memoirs; Stockmar, Memoirs, and Martin, Life of the Prince Consort. For the history and development of the Zollverein see Treitschke, Deutsche Geschichte im neunzehnten Jahrhundert; Weber, Der deutsche Zollverein, Geschichte seiner Entstehung und Entwickelung, and Festenberg-Packisch, Geschichte des Zollvereins; for Austria, Metternich, Memoirs; Springer, Geschichte Esterreichs, and Krones, Geschichte der Neuzeit Esterreichs; for the early years of the reign of Frederick William IV. of Prussia, Ranke, Aus dem Briefwechsel Friedrich Wilhelms IV. mit Bunsen, and Friedrich Wilhelm IV. (in his Werke, Vols. 50-52); Wagener, Die Politik Friedrich Wilhelms IV. and Biedermann, Dreissig Jahre deutscher Geschichte; and for the war with the Sonderbund, Van Muyden, La Suisse sous le pacte de 1815; Crétineau-Joly, Histoire du Sonderbund; Dufour, La campagne du Sonderbund; Dändliker, Histoire du peuple Suisse, and Vulliemin, Histoire de la Confédération Suisse.

LECTURE 73.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848 IN FRANCE.

Growing unpopularity of the Monarchy of July during the administration of Guizot (1840–1848); the government alienated even the moderate liberals by refusing to grant the smallest measure of electoral reform; while its rigidly Bourgeois and Capitalist sympathies exasperated the Democratic and Labor parties.

The growth of democratic and socialist ideas among the working classes of France: the influence of Saint-Simon, Fourier, Proudhon, etc.

The movements for parliamentary reform and democratic revolution in 1847: the banquets and toasts to liberty, equality and fraternity; Odilon Barrot and Ledru-Rollin.

The Revolution of February, 1848: riots in Paris (22 Feb.); resignation of Guizot (23 Feb., 1848); appointment of Bugeaud as commandant of Paris; barricades erected in the streets; Louis Philippe forbade Bugeaud to act; he abdicated the throne (24 Feb.) and left France.

Significance of the Revolution of February; overthrow of the Bourgeois Monarchy.

The mob of Paris burst into the Chambers and the Hôtel de Ville; proclamation of the Republic (26 Feb.); rejection of the idea of the regency to be held by the Duchess of Orleans during the minority of her son, the Comte de Paris; formation of the Provisional Government (24 Feb.), consisting of six leading republican deputies, three journalists and a working man, Dupont de l'Eure, Arago, Lamartine, Ledru-Rollin, Crémieux, and Marie, deputies, Marrast, Louis Blanc, and Flocon, journalists, and Albert; Garnier-Pagés installed as Mayor of Paris.

Importance and conduct of Lamartine (b. 1792, d. 1869) as provisional Minister of Foreign Affairs, and of Ledru-Rollin (b. 1808, d. 1874) as provisional Minister of the Interior; Lamartine assured Europe that the revolution in Paris was not intended to encourage revolution elsewhere, while Ledru-Rollin imitated the extreme policy of the Convention, attempted to appoint pro-consuls and establish public workshops.

The extreme republican party in Paris endeavored to influence the elections, which were taking place over France, in favor of the radicals by numerous riots: the riot of 16 April, 1848; General Changarnier placed in command of the garrison and National Guard of Paris; his defeat of the insurgents.

Meeting of the Constituent Assembly (27 April, 1848); the moderate character and antecedents of the majority of its members; it declared that France was a Republic and prepared to draw up a republican constitution on conservative lines; it maintained the Provisional Government in office; riot of 15 May in Paris, and attempt of the democratic party to overthrow the Constituent Assembly; suppression of the riot and flight of Louis Blanc (b. 1813, d. 1882).

Critical position in Paris: the working classes of the Faubourg-Saint-Antoine prepared for insurrection; the moderate republicans resolved to resist; General Cavaignac (b. 1802, d. 1857) appointed provisional War Minister (17 May); concentration of regular troops in Paris.

Severe fighting in Paris (23-26 June): storming of the barricades by the troops; Paris declared in a state of siege; supreme executive authority entrusted to Cavaignac; suppression of the radical party in Paris.

The Constituent Assembly, now that peace was restored, proceeded



to draw up a republican constitution: the Constitution of 1848 placed the supreme executive authority in the hands of a President of the Republic, elected directly by the people and the legislative authority in the hands of a single Chamber.

Louis Napoleon, son of Louis Bonaparte, King of Holland, and Hortense de Beauharnais, and nephew of the first Napoleon, elected President of the Republic (10 Dec., 1848); he received 5,562,834 votes, Cavaignac 1,469,166 votes, Ledru-Rollin 377,236 votes, Raspail 37,106, and Lamartine 21,000.

Character and previous career of Louis Napoleon (b. 1808, d. 1873): difficulties of his position; distrusted by the Constituent Assembly, and both feared and hated by the extreme republicans.

Foreign policy of the Prince President: a French army, under Oudinot, sent to Rome, which, after a repulse (30 April, 1849), occupied Rome (3 July), overturned the Roman Republic and reëstablished the authority of the Pope.

Dissolution of the Constituent Assembly, and installment of the Legislative Assembly (28 May, 1849); the position of parties in the new Assembly; the majority were moderates, in favor of parliamentary government after the English system, believers in limited monarchy, and very suspicious of the Prince President, whom they suspected of planning to restore the Empire; the minority called itself the Mountain, and, under the leadership of Ledru-Rollin, hoped to establish a democratic republic.

The deputies of the Mountain appealed to the people of Paris; insurrection of 13 June, 1849; arrest of the deputies of the Mountain; their expulsion from the Assembly; escape of Ledru-Rollin.

The majority of the Legislative Assembly, now frankly reactionary, endeavored to establish a bourgeois republic; influence of Thiers, Berryer, Molé. Montalembert (b. 1810, d. 1870) and De Broglie; by the law of 31 May, 1850, the suffrage was restricted to three years' residents in a commune or canton, which practically disfranchised the working classes; declaration of Thiers on this subject.

The Legislative Assembly on adjourning left a permanent commission of deputies to watch the proceedings of the government: disgust of the Prince President at this action; his resolution to appeal to France; his first provincial tour.

The political position in 1851: the incurable distrust between the Prince President and the Assembly; struggles between the executive and legislative authority, and frequent changes of ministry.

The Prince President, having made himself popular in France by provincial tours, declared himself in favor of universal suffrage and the sovereignty of the people; his explanation of the ideas of the Empire; his demand that the Assembly should repeal the law of 31 May, 1850 (4 Nov., 1851).

The Coup d'État of 2 Dec., 1851: the Prince President declared the Legislative Assembly dissolved, universal suffrage reëstablished, and Paris in a state of siege; the advisers of Louis Napoleon and his agents; his half brother, the Duc de Morny (b. 1811, d. 1865), General de Saint-Arnaud (b. 1798, d. 1854), Minister of War, and M. de Maupas (b. 1818, d. 1888), Prefect of Police; arrest of the leading members of the Legislative Assembly; the troops shoot down opponents of the Coup d'État in Paris.

The Prince President submitted a new Constitution to a plébiscite of the people, establishing a strong executive and institutions resembling those of the Consulate and the Empire; the Constitution accepted (21 Dec.) by 7,481,231 votes out of 8,165,650 votes, and promulgated 14 Jan., 1852.

The Prince President's provincial tour of 1852: his reception; enthusiasm in the army; his declaration at Bordeaux (9 Oct.) "L'Empire, c'est la paix"; the Senate voted the reëstablishment of the Empire (7 Nov.); it was voted by a plébiscite (22 Nov.), and the Prince President declared himself Napoleon III. Emperor of the French (2 Dec., 1852).

Authorities: On the history of the second French Republic, see Garnier-Pagés, Histoire de la Révolution de 1848; Louis Blanc, Histoire de la Révolution de 1848; Lamartine, Histoire de la Révolution de 1848; Pierre, Histoire de la République de 1848; La Gorce, Histoire de la Seconde République française; Spuller, Histoire parlementaire de la Seconde République; with Normanby, A Year of Revolution; Odilon Barrot, Mémoires; Falloux, Mémoires d'un Royaliste; Berryer, Discours parlementaires; Thiers, Discours parlementaires, and Véron, Mémoires d'un bourgeois; for the coup d'état of 1851, see Maupas, Mémoires sur le Second Empire; Persigny, Mémoires; Ollivier, L'Empire libéral; Kinglake, The Invasion of the Crimea; Victor Hugo, Histoire d'un crime; Ténot, Le Coup d'État; Jerrold, Life of Napoleon III.; Forbes, Life of Napoleon the Third; Delord, Histoire du Second Empire, and Viel Castel, Mémoires.

LECTURE 74.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848 IN ITALY.

The condition of Italy from the suppression of the insurrectionary movement of 1830 by Austria to the outbreak of the revolutions of 1848: the work of the Carbonari and of other secret societies; attempts made upon the lives of the Italian princes, and repeated outbreaks in different cities and country districts; complication caused by the very existence of the Papacy; the writings of Gioberti (b. 1801, d. 1851) and Massimo d'Azeglio (b. 1798, d. 1866).

Double tendency to be perceived in the popular movements in Italy: with regard to government the middle classes desired representative institutions and limited monarchy, while the secret societies advocated pure democracy; with regard to the unity of Italy, one section desired a federal government either monarchical or republican, while the other favored an Italy, one and indivisible, either monarchical or republican; these different tendencies prevented partisans of the national spirit and of political revolution from acting harmoniously together; the most influential writer and thinker was Mazzini (b. 1808, d. 1872), but his advanced republican ideas made him obnoxious to moderate men.

Conditions of the different Italian states at the outbreak of the revolutionary movement in 1848; the severe and arbitrary government of Naples and Sicily under Ferdinand II. (1830–59), afterwards called King Bomba; unpopularity of the Austrian government in Lombardy and Venetia; Parma, ruled by the Empress Marie Louise, and Modena, under Duke Francis IV. (1814–46) and Duke Francis V., were entirely under Austrian influence; death of Marie Louise (18 Dec., 1847), and accession as Duke of Parma of Charles II., formerly Duke of Lucca; the government of Leopold II., Grand Duke of Tuscany (1824–1859); he purchased Lucca (1845), and granted a constitution (1847); Charles Albert (b. 1798, d. 1849), King of Sardinia since 1831, was desirous of setting himself at the head of the national Italian movement, but feared the republicans and the Carbonari; he favored parliamentary government and granted a constitution to his kingdom in 1846; his character and ambition.

The worst governed provinces in Italy were those of the States of the Church, in which Pope Gregory XVI. ruled in the most arbitrary manner with cardinals, bishops and priests as his only ministers and administrators; yet it was in the States of the Church that the first impulse was given to the revolutionary movement of 1848; death of Gregory XVI. (I June, 1846).

Election of Pope Pius IX.—Mastai-Ferretti—(16 June, 1846); his known liberal and national ideas; his reforms in internal administration; he reorganized the tribunals, established municipal government, permitted the raising of civic guards, and allowed a measure of liberty to the press; he proposed a customs-union between the States of the Church, Tuscany and Sardinia; Metternich protested against the reforming policy of Pius IX.; but the people of Rome accused him of not going far enough; a Fundamental Statute, establishing lay government and ministerial responsibility, issued (14 March, 1848).

Outbreak of insurrection at Palermo (12 Jan., 1848), which spread through the whole of Sicily; Ferdinand II., King of the Two Sicilies, forced by tumults at Naples to promise a constitution (29 Jan.), which was promulgated (10 Feb.).

Effect of the overthrow of Metternich in Italy; the people of Milan rose in insurrection and expelled the Austrian garrison (18–22 Mch., 1848); formation of a provisional government which appointed Garibaldi (b. 1807, d. 1882) commandant of its troops; similar movement in Venice (16–22 Mch.), where Daniel Manin (b. 1804, d. 1857) was elected Dictator; Francis V. driven from Modena (21 March); Charles II. driven from Parma (20 March).

Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, summoned by all Northern Italy, set himself at the head of the National movement; he entered Milan (26 Mch.); concentration of the Austrian troops under Radetzky (b. 1766, d.1858); the Austrians defeated at Goito (8 Apr.); Leopold of Tuscany compelled by his people to send troops to assist Charles Albert; Ferdinand II., King of the Two Sicilies, forced to send a fleet to assist Venice and an army under Pepe to join Charles Albert; the papal troops, under Durando, joined the Sardinians; Charles Albert took Peschiera (30 May); reinforcements demanded by Radetzky.

Desperate position of the Austrians in Italy; terms offered to Charles

Albert; the intervention of England and France declined; "L' Italia fara da se." "Italy will go it when "- but alm and."

Pope Pius IX. disavowed the action of General Durando (29 April): Mamiani appointed Minister of the Interior of the States of the Church (4 May).

Ferdinand II. withdrew his constitution and dissolved the Neapolitan parliament (15 May); he vigorously pursued the war with the Sicilian insurgents, and called back his fleet from Venice, and his army; nevertheless, Pepe, with 3,000 men, threw himself into Venice, of which he took military command.

Progress of the revolution in Sicily: Settimo (b. 1778, d. 1863), president of the Sicilian Committee (24 Jan., 1848); services of Crispi; Settimo appointed Lieutenant-General of Sicily by Ferdinand II. and a Sicilian Parliament summoned (6 March); the throne of Sicily offered to Ferdinand, Duke of Genoa, second son of Charles Albert (11 July); his refusal to accept it; bombardment of Messina (2–8 Sept.).

Radetzky, joined by Nugent (b. 1777, d. 1862), defeated Charles Albert at Custozza (25 July) and occupied Milan (6 Aug.); armistice proclaimed between Sardinia and Austria (9 Aug.); gallant defence of Venice; return of Francis V. to Modena (10 Aug.); the Pope dismissed Mamiani (2 Aug.), and appointed Rossi (14 Sept.), who desired to form an Italian Federation.

Assassination of Rossi (15 Nov.); flight of the Pope to Gaeta (24 Nov.); provisional government of Rome under the triumvirate of Galletti, Camerata and Corsini (11 Dec.); meeting of the Roman Constituent Assembly (5 Feb., 1849): proclamation of the Roman Republic (9 Feb.); solemn appeal of Pius IX. to the Catholic rulers of Austria, France, Spain and the Two-Sicilies for help (18 Feb., 1849); Mazzini made dictator with Armellini and Saffi (30 March); Garibaldi appointed commander-in-chief.

Progress of the revolution in Tuscany: Montanelli appointed chief minister (26 Oct., 1848); a liberal constitution granted; flight of the Grand Duke Leopold II. to Gaeta; the Florentine Republic proclaimed under the triumvirate of Montanelli, Guerrazzi, and Mazzoni (8 Feb., 1849).

Difficult position of Charles Albert: forced to form a radical ministry

under Rattazzi (15 Dec., 1848); declared the armistice at an end and appealed to united Italy (12 March, 1849); Radetzky utterly defeated Charles Albert at Novara (23 Mch.); abdication of Charles Albert in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel; favorable terms of peace granted to the Sardinians (6 Aug.).

Triumphant progress of the Austrians: Francis V. of Modena completed the reoccupation of his duchy (April, 1849); overthrow of the Florentine Republic and restoration as Grand Duke of Tuscany of Leopold II. (28 July), who withdrew the constitution he had granted; Charles III., to whom his father had resigned the Duchy of Parma (14 March), returned to Parma (25 August); capitulation of Venice to the Austrians (24 August).

Ferdinand II. cruelly suppressed the Sicilian insurrection; surrender

of Palermo to the Neapolitans (11 May, 1849).

The Prince President of the French Republic, afraid of allowing Austria too much predominance in Italy, sent a French army under Oudinot to Rome: repulse of the French (30 Apr.); the siege of Rome; capture of Rome by the French (3 July); Garibaldi withdrew to the mountains where his troops were cut up by the Austrians; return of Pius IX. to Rome (12 Apr., 1850) and reëstablishment of the Papal government under the direction of Cardinal Antonelli; a French garrison retained in Rome.

Causes of the entire and disastrous failure of the Italian revolutions in 1848: Victor Emmanuel II., King of Sardinia, alone maintained parliamentary government in his dominions.

Authorities: On the Italian insurrection, see Stillman, The Union of Italy; Martinengo Cesaresco, The Liberation of Italy; Thayer, The Dawn of Italian Independence (1814-1849); Maurice, The Revolutionary Movement of 1848-49 in Italy, Austria and Hungary; Tivaröni Storia critica del Risorgimento Italiano; Cantú, Della Indipendenza Italiana; Ricciardi, Histoire de la Revolution d'Italie; Ulloa, Guerre de l'indépendance italienne; Perrens, Deux ans de révolution en Italie; Pepe, Mémoires, and Histoire des révolutions et des guerres d'Italie en 1847, 1848, et 1849; Balleydier, Histoire de la Révolution de Rome; Spada, Storia della rivoluzione di Roma e della restaurazione del governo pontifico (1846-49), 3 vols.; Farini, The Roman State, 1815-50, ed. Gladstone; Bianchi, Storia documentata della diplomazia Europea in Italia; Costa de Beauregard, Les dernières années du Roi Charles Albert; Rattazzi, Rattazzi et son temps; Mazzini, Scritti,

editi ed inediti; Nardi, Giuseppe Mazzini, la vita, gli scritti e le dottrine; Simoni, Histoire des conspirations mazziniennes; Martin, Daniel Manin; Errera, La vita e i tempi de Danielo Manin, and Danielo Manin e Venezia; Manin, Lettere; Nisco, Ferdinando II. e il suo regno; La Farina, Storia documentata della rivoluzione di Sicilia nel 1848-49; Montanelli, Mémoires; Cantú, Storia ragionata e documentata della rivoluzione Lombarda; Cattaneo, L'insurrection de Milan en 1848; Schönhals, Erinnerungen eines Esterreichischen Veteranen, translated into French as Campagnes d'Italie de 1848-49; Della Rocca, Autobiography of a Veteran; Garibaldi, Memoirs; Mario, Garibaldi e i suoi tempi; Sirao, Storia della rivoluzione d'Italia dal 1846 al 1866; Rüstow, Der italienische Krieg von 1848 und 1849, and Hübner, Une année de ma vie.

LECTURE 75.

apr. o

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848 IN AUSTRIA.

Internal condition of the Austrian dominions during the reign of the Emperor Ferdinand I. (1835–48); the home policy of Metternich; he encouraged the national spirit in the different provinces of the Empire in order to play off one province against another, but he sternly repressed all aspirations for self-government.

The growth of national spirit was especially perceptible in Hungary and Bohemia, but it was also to be found in smaller provinces, such as Transylvania, Croatia and Galicia; condition of the German provinces; the diverse nationalities of which the Empire was composed, prevented any tendency towards union, and encouraged schemes of federation or of entire independence.

The national spirit in Hungary: the amount of local self-government allowed to the Magyars; the growth of Magyar literature and of attachment to the Magyar language; the national spirit of Hungary becomes, under the guidance of its men of letters, also democratic; the Diet of 1833 abolished serfdom; attitude of the Magyars towards other nationalities within the limits of Hungary; influence of Szechenyi (b. 1792, d. 1860), Kossuth (b. 1802, d. 1894), Deak (b. 1803, d. 1876) and Petöfi (b. 1823, d. 1849).

The national spirit in Bohemia: revival of the Czech language and

literature; the Czechs desired to place themselves at the head of the Austrian Sfavs; in Bohemia, as in Hungary, the national spirit became also democratic, and demands were made, not only for national, but also for popular government; influence of Dobrovski (b. 1753, d. 1829), Kollar (b. 1793, d. 1852) and Palacky (b. 1798, d. 1876).

The German spirit concentrated in Vienna, where democratic ideas, resembling those in vogue among the working classes in Paris and

Berlin, had taken deep root.

Effect of the news of the Revolution of February in Austria: insurrection of 13 March in Vienna; the Emperor Ferdinand dismissed Metternich from office; flight of the disgraced minister to England; Ficquelmont appointed minister (20 March); the Emperor promulgated a representative constitution (25 April).

Effect of the fall of Metternich upon the Austrian provinces: general

demand for liberty and popular government.

The Hungarian Diet seized the opportunity to demand the formation of a responsible Hungarian ministry with entire self-government; the Emperor yielded (17 March), and the Palatine of Hungary, the Archduke Stephen, appointed Louis Batthyany prime minister, with Kossuth as Minister of the Interior; delight of the Magyars at this success; a Constituent Diet summoned to draw up a constitution for Hungary.

The Emperor further held out hopes of constitutions and self-government to the Slavonic Provinces (March to April): a Pan-Slavonic as-

sembly summoned to meet at Prague on 31 May.

Effect of the insurrection in the Austrian provinces in Italy: defeat of Radetzky at Goito (8 April); the Emperor obliged to strip his home dominions of troops in order to send reinforcements to Radetzky.

Dissatisfaction of the people of Vienna at the prospect of the Austrian Empire being split into autonomous provinces: disgust of the working classes at the non-recognition of democratic principles; dismissal of Ficquelmont (4 May); second popular insurrection in Vienna (15 May); a Constituent Assembly for the whole Austrian Empire called to meet in Vienna; the Emperor Ferdinand escaped to Innsbruck (17 May) and threw himself upon the fidelity of the Tyrolese.

Desperate position of the Austrian monarchy: seeming approach of

disintegration; the strength of the opposition to Austria in Italy, Hungary and Bohemia; attitude of the Parliament of Frankfort towards the Hapsburgs; desire expressed to keep Austria out of reconstituted Germany.

In the diversity of aims of the different revolutions the Hapsburg monarchy found safety; the Emperor Ferdinand, to please his German subjects, resolved to act vigorously against the Slavs.

Insurrection of the <u>Poles at Cracow</u> (26 Apr.) suppressed; Francis Stadion (b. 1806, d. 1853) pacified Galicia and granted reforms.

The Pan-Slavonic Congress opened by Palacky at Prague (2 June); a popular demonstration against Windischgrätz (b. 1787, d. 1862), the Austrian governor of Prague, ended in street-fighting (12-14 June); bombardment of the city (15-17 June); end of the Pan-Slavonic Congress; reduction of Bohemia to obedience.

In Transylvania the Magyars and Germans, who controlled the provincial Estates, voted to unite Transylvania with Hungary (30 May), because the Romanian population demanded equal rights in the government; an insurrection in the Danubian provinces (22–25 June) brought about the occupation of those provinces by the Russians and the Turks.

At the demand of the southern Slavs the Emperor appointed Jeliachich (b. 1801, d. 1859), Ban of Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia (23 Mar.); popular movement for a united kingdom of the southern Slavs, independent of Hungary; the Hungarian ministry persuaded the Emperor to disgrace Jellachich (10 June).

Progress of the revolution in Hungary; meeting of the Constituent Diet (5 July); the new Hungarian constitution; influence of Kossuth; the Magyars issued oppressive decrees against the Slavs and Romanians in Croatia, Slavonia, Dalmatia, Transylvania and the Banat of Temesvar; insurrections in those districts against the Magyars; the Russians in Transylvania.

The Constituent Assembly, containing representatives of all parts of the Empire, except Hungary, met at Vienna (22 July); the Archduke John, who had been elected Vicar of the Empire at Frankfort (29 June), returned to represent the Emperor at Vienna; the Constituent Assembly abolished the corvée, noble-land and other relics of feudalism.

After the news of the victory of Custozza (25 July), the Emperor resolved to act more firmly against Hungary; he reëntered Vienna (12 Aug.); he restored Jellachich to all his dignities (4 Sept.); Jellachich invaded Hungary (9 Sept.); the Diet prepared to resist and chose Kossuth, President of the Committee of Public Safety (22 Sept.); the Palatine of Hungary, the Archduke Stephen, refused to obey the Diet and escaped to Vienna (24 Sept.); Lamberg, who was sent to replace the Palatine, murdered at Pesth (28 Sept.); the Emperor declared the Hungarian Diet dissolved, appointed Jeilachich, Commissioner Plenipotentiary in Hungary, and ordered the army to suppress the revolt (3 Oct.).

Third insurrection in Vienna (6 Oct.); sympathizers with the Magyars attempted to prevent troops from reinforcing Jellachich in Hungary; murder of Latour, the Minister of War; flight of the Emperor to Olmütz; he directed the Constituent Assembly to leave Vienna (20 Oct.) and to assemble at Kremsier; only the Slav deputies obeyed; the German deputies remained in Vienna to form a provisional government; they negotiated with the German Parliament at Frankfort, which recognized them and sent Robert Blum and two other deputies to their assistance; Jellachich, from Hungary, and Windischgrätz, from Prague, hastened against the insurgents; bombardment of Vienna; attempt of the Magyars to relieve the city; Windischgrätz entered Vienna (31 Oct.), established martial law, and shot Robert Blum (8 Nov.); wrath of the Parliament of Frankfort.

Schwarzenberg (b. 1800, d. 1852) appointed chief minister (21 Nov.); reopening of the Constituent Assembly at Kremsier (22 Nov.), but Schwarzenberg occupied it in aimless discussions; abdication of the Emperor Ferdinand (2 Dec.) in favor of his nephew Francis Joseph (b. 1830).

Vigorous policy of Schwarzenberg: Kossuth and the Diet forced to withdraw from Pesth to Debreczin (I Jan., I 849); Windischgrätz and Jellachich occupied Pesth (5 Jan.); formation of Hungarian armies, placed under the command of Dombrovski, Bem and Görgei; Schwarzenberg dissolved the Diet of Kremsier (4 Mar.) and promised a unitary constitution to the Austrian Empire and the recognition of the equality of the various nationalities; Kossuth and the Diet declared the inde-

pendence of Hungary (14 Apr.); Kossuth chosen Governor-President; Görgei recaptured the fortress of Buda (21 May); return of the Hungarian government to Pesth (5 June).

The Emperor Francis Joseph announced (1 May, 1849) that the Tsar Nicholas had consented to assist in subduing the Magyars; a Russian army under Paskiévitch entered Hungary (May); the armies under Paskiévitch, Haynau, Nugent and Jellachich defeated the Hungarian armies and drove them toward the Turkish frontier; Kossuth resigned in favor of Görgei (11 Aug.) and escaped into Turkey; capitulation of Görgei at Világos (13 Aug.); Klapka held out at Komorn until 27 Sept., when he was forced to sign a capitulation by which he surrendered the place (4 Oct.); atrocities committed by Haynau; execution of Batthyany and the leading Magyar generals (6 Oct.); end of the insurrection in Hungary.

End of the insurrection in Italy: capture of Venice (24 Aug., 1849). The German policy of Schwarzenberg: his attitude toward the Parliament of Frankfort; he prevented Frederick William IV. of Prussia from accepting the imperial throne offered to him by the Parliament, and insisted upon the right of Austria to be treated as a constituent part of Germany.

Authorities: Léger, Histoire de l'Autriche-Hongrie, translated by Hill; Maurice, The Revolutionary Movement of 1848-49 in Italy, Austria and Hungary; Balleydier, Histoire des Révolutions de l'Empire de l'Autriche; Piliersdorf, Rückblick auf die politische Bewegung in Æsterreich in den Jahren 1848 und 1849; Ficquelmont, Aufklärungen über die Zeit vom 20 März bis zum 4 Mai 1848; Fröbel, Briefe über die Wiener Oktober-Revolution, mit Notizen über die letzten Tage Robert Blums; Auerbach, Tagebuch aus Wien; Hübner, Une Année de ma Vie, Helfert, Geschichte Esterreichs vom Ausgange des Wiener Oktober-Aufstandes; Berger, Felix, Fürst zu Schwarzenberg; Windischgrätz, Eine Lebens-Skizze, aus den Papieren eines Zeit genossen der Sturmjahre 1848 und 1849; Reschauer, Das Jahr, 1848; Bach, Die Wiener Revolution, 1848; Yranyi and Chassin, Histoire politique de la Révolution de Hongrie en 1847-49; Bury, Souvenirs et Récits des Campagnes d'Autriche; Martin, Guerre de Hongrie en 1848 et 1849; Rüstow, Geschichte des ungarischen Insurrectionskrieges in den Jahren 1848 und 1849; Görgei, Mein Leben und Wirken in Ungarn; Klapka, Der Nationalkrieg in Ungarn und Siebenbürgen, of which there is an English translation, and Kossuth, Memoirs.

LECTURE 76.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848 IN GERMANY.

Effect of the Revolution of February in Germany: general desire for popular government in Western Germany; the states upon the Rhine and in the former kingdom of Westphalia were especially forward in this direction; there had been numerous riots in Rhenish Prussia, Hesse-Cassel and Brunswick; as in Italy, the national spirit and the democratic movement were sometimes in harmony and sometimes opposed to each other; one section of advocates of German unity looked to Prussia to lead them; the other, which was more democratic, hoped for an independent and possibly republican German nation.

Both the national and the democratic spirit were most evident in the smaller states and in Rhenish Prussia: but they were also developed to some extent in the South German states of Bavaria under King Louis I. (1825–1848), of Würtemberg under King William I. (1816–1864), and of Baden under the Grand Duke Charles Leopold (1830–1852), while in Hanover under Ernest I. (1837–1851) they were especially developed.

The share of the German universities in promoting the national and liberal spirit; the dismissal of Gervinus, Dahlmann, Ewald and the two Grimms, from their chairs at Göttingen, for protesting against the abolition of the Hanoverian constitution by Ernest I. in 1837.

The first effect of the Revolution of February was seen in risings in the great cities, similar to those which occurred in Paris and in Vienna; the most important of the risings were in Berlin and in Munich.

The first insurrection in Berlin (15–19 March, 1848): Frederick William IV. (b. 1795, d. 1861) gave way before the popular feeling; sent his brother and heir, Prince William (b. 1797, d. 1888), who was suspected of opposition to popular wishes, to England; convoked the States-General, and summoned a Constituent Assembly to draw up a constitution for Prussia (22 March).

Insurrection in Munich against King Louis I. (b. 1786, d. 1868), who was accused of showing too much favor to his mistress, Lola Montes;

0

he abdicated the throne (20 March) in favor of his son Maximilian Joseph II. (b. 1811, d. 1864), who promised reforms.

A group of German patriots and unionists met at Heidelberg (5 March) and summoned a Vor-Parlament, which assembled at Frankfort (31 March); this assembly convoked a Constituent Parliament, to be elected by universal suffrage by the whole of Germany, which should organize a federal German government under a monarch; it was resolved that the decisions of this Constituent Parliament should be final, and not subject to the control of the Federal Diet.

The Federal Diet, established by the Congress of Vienna, withdrew its decrees of 1832-34, controlling state governments, and then ceased to oppose the new movement.

In the face of the strength of the revolutionary movement the German Princes permitted elections to the Constituent Parliament.

Meeting of this Parliament in St. Paul's church at Frankfort (18 May, 1848), with Heinrich von Gagern (b. 1799, d. 1880) as its president; it elected the Archduke John of Austria as Vicar of the Empire (29 June); he took office (12 July), dissolved the Federal Diet, and appointed Schmerling chief minister; the Parliament of Frankfort, with long debates, drew up the "Grundrechte," or bases of a German Constitution (July-Oct.); the undemocratic nature of this scheme caused protests from many of the cities of Germany.

The position in Prussia: Frederick William IV. took advantage of the condition of affairs in Denmark to stand forward as the defender of German interests.

Death of Christian VIII. of Denmark and accession of Frederick VII. (20 Jan., 1848); the king promised (28 Jan.) to summon a Constituent Assembly, chosen by universal suffrage, to draw up a Constitution which should unify Denmark and the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein, in spite of the latter being parts of the Germanic Confederation; wrath in Germany at this news; insurrection in the duchies (18 Mar.); demand made for the entire separation of Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark and their union with Germany; provisional government for the duchies established by the insurgents at Kiel (24 Mar.); the Duke of Augustenburg set himself at the head of this opposition in the two duchies; the Danes routed the insurgents near Flensburg (9 April),

but Prussia, with the sanction of the Parliament of Frankfort, invaded the duchies, defeated the Danish army (23 Apr.), and had almost conquered the whole of Denmark, when the Great Powers intervened and insisted on the signature of the Armistice of Malmö (26 Aug.).

Frederick William IV. of Prussia, though he showed himself by his conduct in Denmark in favor of German interests, also showed himself the enemy of democracy; at the request of the Parliament of Frankfort he sent Prussian troops to that city to put down a republican insurrection (18 Sept.), and then, also at their request, put down democratic risings throughout the Rhenish territories.

Second insurrection in Berlin (31 Oct., 1848); the king appointed

"Second insurrection in Berlin (31 Oct., 1848); the king appointed Brandenburg (b. 1792, d. 1850) and Manteuffel (b. 1805, d. 1882) his ministers (3 Nov.), declared Berlin in a state of siege (10 Nov.), dissolved the Prussian Constituent Assembly which had shown in the Junker party a strong minority opposed to democratic ideas (5 Dec.), and issued of his own authority a new constitution for Prussia, giving a moderate amount of representative government (5 Dec.).

Later history of the Parliament of Frankfort; Gagern succeeded Schmerling as chief minister (15 Dec., 1848); completion of the new German Constitution (3 Feb., 1849), with two chambers, the Volkhaus, elected by universal suffrage, and the Staatenhaus, chosen by the parliaments of the different states; it recognized no direct representation of the German princes, and gave to the supreme executive authority only a suspensive veto.

The question of the admission of Austria, with her non-German populations, as part of the new German Empire; it was resolved that Austria should be completely excluded (14 Jan., 1849); the imperial crown offered to Frederick William IV. of Prussia (28 Mar.); he declined to accept unless invited by the princes of Germany (3 Apr.), and eventually, under the influence of Schwarzenberg, refused unconditionally (28 Apr.).

Indignation of Schwarzenberg at the decree of 14 Jan.; he with-drew the Austrian deputies from the Parliament of Frankfort (5 Apr.).

Last days of the Parliament of Frankfort; Gagern resigned office (10 May), and with his followers formed a secession parliament which met at Gotha (26–28 June); Prussia withdrew its deputies (14 May);

the Parliament, reduced to 105 members, forced to leave Frankfort (30 May); it met at Stuttgart and eventually was broken up by the King of Würtemberg (18 June).

Frederick William IV, of Prussia lent troops to the Kings of Saxony and Hanover to establish order in their dominions (June); under the command of Prince William of Prussia order was also reëstablished by Prussian soldiers in Baden and along the Rhine (July).

Continuation of the Danish war: Frederick VII. of Denmark granted a liberal constitution (5 June, 1849); gallant struggle of the Danes against the Prussians; conclusion of peace (2 July, 1850); it was eventually arranged that the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein should be garrisoned by a joint force of Austrians and Prussians, and that their fate should be decided by a conference of the Great Powers.

Result of the revolutionary movement of 1848 in Germany; entire failure both of the democratic party and of the supporters of the parliamentary system; postponement of the unity of Germany.

Authorities: There are several reports of the proceedings of the Parliament of Frankfort, of which the most complete is Wigard, Stenographische Bericht, 9 vols.; see also Duncker, Zur Geschichte der deutschen Reichsversammlung in Frankfurt; Haym, Die deutsche Nationalversammlung; Raumer, Briefe aus Frankfurt und Paris; Biedermann, Erinnerungen aus der Paulskirche; Ranke. Politische Denkschriften aus den Jahren 1848-1851 (Werke, vols. 49, 50); Deym, Graf Deym und die Esterreichische Frage in der Paulskirche; Becker, Die Reaktion in Deutschland gegen die Revolution von 1848; Sybel, Die Begründung des deutschen Reiches; Moltke, Geschichte des Krieges gegen Dänemark, 1848-49. and Bunsen, Memoirs.

LECTURE 77.

EUROPE AFTER THE REVOLUTIONS OF 1848.

The revolutionary movement of 1848 in England; the Chartists; results of the abolition of the Corn-laws.

The revolutionary movement of 1848 in Hoffand: the reign of William II. (1840-49); succeeded by William III. (17 March, 1849);

248

the representative constitution of the kingdom of the Netherlands remodelled in a more liberal sense; administration of Thorbecke (b. 1798, d. 1872).

The revolutionary movement of 1848 in Belgium: excitement caused by the news of the Revolution of February; Leopold I. evaded a republican movement by skillful policy; his ability as a parliamentary sovereign.

The revolutionary movement of 1848 in the two Danubian provinces: growth of national Romanian sentiment and of liberalism; attitude towards the Slavs and Magyars; resentment against Russia; influence of France; deposition of Alexander Ghica and election of George Bibesco as Hospodar of Wallachia (1842); attempted insurrection at Jassy (27 March, 1848); prudent conduct of Michael Stourza, Hospodar of Moldavia; insurrection at Bucharest (22 June, 1848); abdication of Bibesco (25 June); intervention of Russia and the Turks; Russian and Turkish troops occupied the two provinces; by the Convention of Balta-Liman (12 May, 1849), the hospodarship for seven years was revived, the assemblies of boyars were suppressed and replaced by divans nominated by the princes, and Russian and Turkish troops were to garrison the two provinces until they were organized; resignation of Michael Stourza; appointment of Gregory Ghica as Hospodar of Moldavia, and of Barbe Stirbeiu as Hospodar of Wallachia.

Influence exercised by Prussia in Germany after the suppression of the revolutionary movement: Frederick William IV. hoped to exclude Austria and to be chosen Emperor by the princes of Germany; the League of the Three Kings—Prussia, Saxony and Hanover (26 May/1849); scheme of a Restricted Union; Prussia prepared a scheme for a united Germany under her leadership to be submitted to a revived German Parliament at Erfurt and to the German princes; only the petty princes accepted the Prussian scheme.

Austria, having put down all rebellion and supported by Russia, resolved to intervene: the Archduke John resigned his authority as Vicar of the Empire to a committee of four, appointed half by Austria and half by Prussia (20 Dec., 1849).

Beust's scheme of a Middle Germany: treaty of alliance made between Saxony, Bavaria and Würtemberg (27 Feb., 1850).

exclud. Prus - + aus.

The Parliament of Erfurt (20 Mar.-29 Apr., 1850): only attended by Prussia and representatives of the petty princes; part played by Bismarck (b. 1815, d. 1898); the Parliament refused to accept the Prussian scheme, followed by a similar refusal by the German princes, who had been assembled at Berlin (8 May).

Growing influence of Austria in German affairs during the ministry of Schwarzenberg: ad interim revival of the Diet of the Germanic Confederation or Bundestag (2 Sept., 1850), which undertook to deal with the disturbances in Schleswig-Holstein and Hesse-Cassel; opposition of Prussia; approach of war; the Prussian and the German federal troops, supported by Austria, faced each other in Hesse-Cassel; the Tsar Nicholas intervened and threatened to attack whichever side began war.

Frederick William IV. yielded: Manteuffel (b. 1805, d. 1882) appointed provisional Minister of Foreign Affairs (2 Nov., 1850), and Minister-President (19 Dec., 1850); the Convention of Olmütz (29 Nov., 1850); apologies of Prussia; restoration of the Bundestag (30 May, 1851); <u>Bismarck appointed Prussian representative</u> in the Bundestag at Frankfort.

Negotiations for the renewal of the Zollverein: endeavors of Austria to enter the Union; opposition of Prussia; the Steuerverein declared its readiness to enter the Zollverein (7 Sept., 1851); reconstitution of the Zollverein on this basis, with Austria excluded (4 Apr., 1853).

General reaction in Germany: most of the German princes withdrew or modified the constitutions they had granted in 1848; the Bundestag repudiated the "Grundrechte" decreed by the Parliament of Frankfort (23 Aug., 1851).

The reaction in Prussia: repressive administration of Manteuffel; Prince William commenced to reorganize the army.

The reaction in Austria; the Emperor Francis Joseph withdrew the Constitution of 4 March, 1849 (31 Dec., 1851); death of Schwarzenberg (5 April, 1852); appointment of Buol-Schauenstein as chief Austrian minister.

Temporary settlement of the Schleswig-Holstein question: Frederick VII., of Denmark, issued a unitary constitution for all his dominions (28 Jan., 1852); Prince Christian of Glücksburg recognized as heir to throne of Denmark by the Conference of London (8 May, 1852).

ا لوس کوسو Busy The Emperor Napoleon III.

^DThe institutions of the Second Empire in France: relations of the government to the Council of State, the Senate and the Legislative Body; while granting the widest extension of the franchise for electing the Legislative Body, the administration systematically interfered to promote the election of government candidates.

Napoleon III. and his ministers: the Bonapartists and some of the partisans of the Monarchy of July rallied to him, but he had to face the opposition of the Legitimists and the Republicans: he was unfortunate in the selection of ministers and had to make use of men of doubtful honesty in the work of administration; the influence of the Duc de Morny, Persigny (b. 1808, d. 1872), Rouher and Maupas.

Parliamentary opposition during the Second Empire: Thiers; exile or deportation of the leading Republicans.

Attitude of the Great Powers towards the Second Empire: England, hoping for the assistance of France in the settlement of the Eastern Ouestion, at once recognized him as Emperor; the Tsar Nicholas recognized him in an insulting fashion, and was followed by Austria and Prussia (6 Jan., 1853); Napoleon's first foreign ministers; Drouyn de Lhuys (b. 1805, d. 1881) and Walewski (b. 1810, d. 1868).

Being unable to obtain the hand of a foreign princess, Napoleon III. married Eugénie de Montijo, Comtesse de Teba (29 Jan., 1853).

Internal policy of Napoleon III.: he professed, owing to his election by plébiscite, to represent the sovereignty of the people, and stood forth as the opponent of bourgeois or middle class politics; he exploited the wealth of France in extravagant buildings and public works; Paris rebuilt by Haussmann; corruption of the administration; attempts of Napoleon III. to blind the people by a vigorous foreign policy.

Foreign policy of Napoleon III.; though he declared the Empire to mean peace, he really desired war, in order to establish himself firmly

at home and abroad.

Authorities: For the general history of this period see, in addition to Seignobos. Debidour, and Frife, cited under Lecture 67; Rothan, L'Europe et l'avénement du Second Empire; Vitzthum von Eckstädt, Berlin und Wien in den Jahren 1845-1852, and Viel-Castel, Memoirs; for the Second Empire, Delord, Histoire du Second Empire; La Gorce, Histoire du Second Empire; Jerrold, Life of Napoleon III.: Harcourt, Les quatre ministères de M. Drouyn de Lhuys; Maugny, Souvenirs of the Second Empire; Falloux, Mémoires d'un royaliste; Persigny, Mémoires; Haussmann, Mémoires; Ollivier, L'Empire libéral; Senior, Conversations, 2 series; Castellane, Journal, and Thiers, Discours parlementaires; for Germany, see Berger, Felix, Fürst zu Schwarzenberg; Bunsen, Memoirs; Beust, Memoirs; Lowe, Life of Prince Bismarck; Bismarck, Gedenkschriften und Erinnerungen, translated by Buller, Gesammelte Werke, and Politische Reden; Hahn, Fürst Bismarck; Kohl, Fürst Bismarck; Poschinger, Fürst Bismarck, and Simon, Histoire du Prince de Bismarck; for English foreign policy, Martin, Life of the Prince Consort; Dalling and Ashley, Life of Lord Palmerston; Walpole, Life of Lord John Russell, and Malmesbury, Memoirs of an ex-Minister; for Belgium, Juste, Léopold I. et Léopold II., rois des Belges, leur vie et leur règne; Thonissen, La Belgique sous le règne de Léopold I., and Hymans, Histoire parlementaire de Belgique de 1830 à 1880; for Holland, Bosch-Kemper, Geschiedenis van Nederland na 1830; and for Romania, Xénopol, Histoire des Roumains, and Bibesco, Règne de Bibesco (1829-59).

LECTURE 78.

LITERATURE AND PHILOSOPHY FROM 1789 TO 1848.

Effect of the French Revolution and of Napoleon's conquests on European literature; political unrest accompanied by a great literary outburst; this not so noticeable in France, where politics absorbed the nation, as in England and Germany; the spirit of nationality aroused by Napoleon began to show its effect before Waterloo.

The period between 1815 and 1848 was marked by the romantic movement in literature, which developed independently all over Europe: causes of the romantic movement; reaction against classicism; its development affected, in some writers, by revival of Christian religious sentiment, as in Châteaubriand; in others, by a new sympathy with the Middle Ages, as in Scott and Hugo; in others, by love of nature and an attempt to interpret her, as in Wordsworth; in others, by a mystic sentimentalism, as in Jean Paul Richter; and in others, by a pessimistic self-consciousness, as in Byron, Lamartine and Pushkin.

The feeling for nationality showed itself in literature, after an outburst of patriotic poetry, in the revival of the study of history; overthrow of national legends and beginning of scientific history; influence of Niebuhr; interest taken in the history of the Middle Ages; commencement of the systematic publication of documents; the English Record Commission (1802), the *Monumenta Germaniæ Historica* (1826), the *Documents inédits sur l'histoire de France* (1835); the foundation of the École des Chartes (1821).

French literature of the Revolution: its political character; the great orators and their written speeches; Mirabeau (1749–1791); Vergniaud (1759–1793); Robespierre (1758–1794); political journalism; Camille Desmoulins (1762–1794); the Revolutionary drama; Collot d'Herbois (1750–1796); Marie Joseph Chénier (1764–1811); poetry; André Chénier (1763–1794); criticism; La Harpe (1739–1803).

French literature of the Empire; its classicism and sterility; Ducis (1733–1816); Fontanes (1757–1821); Napoleon's attitude towards literature; his admiration of the so-called poems of Ossian; the most popular French writer of the period, Madame de Stael (1766–1817); publication of Châteaubriand's *Le Génie du Christianisme* (1802) and of *Les Martyrs* (1809).

The romantic movement in France; Châteaubriand (1767–1848); Lamartine (1792–1869); Alfred de Vigny (1799–1863); Victor Hugo (1802–1885); Alfred de Musset (1810–1857); Théophile Gautier (1811–1872).

French literature in the reign of Louis Philippe generally influenced by the romantic movement; history; Sismondi (1773–1842); Guizot (1787–1874); Mignet (1796–1884); Thierry (1797–1873); Thiers (1797–1877); Michelet (1798–1874); drama; Eugène Scribe (1791–1861); Casimir Delavigne (1793–1843); poetry; Béranger (1780–1857); fiction; Balzac (1799–1850); Alexandre Dumas, the elder (1803–1870); Georges Sand (1804–1876).

English literature; romanticism in England: the two groups of poets; Byron (1788–1824); his influence in Europe; Shelley (1792–1822); Keats (1795–1821): the Lake poets; Wordsworth (1770–1850); Coleridge (1772–1834); Southey (1774–1843): the Victorian poets; Browning (1802–1889); Tennyson (1809–1892); the influence of Scott (1771–1832) as poet and novelist: English prose writers; DeQuincey (1785–1859); Carlyle (1795–1881); Macaulay (1800–1859): history; Grote (1794–

1871); Thomas Arnold (1795–1842): fiction; Thackeray (1811–1863); Dickens (1812–1870): criticism; Hazlitt (1778–1830): the representatives of the ideas of 1848 in English literature; Maurice (1805–1872); Charles Kingsley (1819–1875).

German literature: its greatest period, that of the French Revolution and Napoleon; the supremacy of Goethe (1749–1832); his influence; the effect of the French Revolution on German literature; Herder (1744–1803); Fichte (1762–1814): beginning of a feeling for German nationality; Schiller (1759–1805); influence of his historical and dramatic works: enthusiasm for German nationality aroused by the Napoleonic conquest; Arndt (1769–1860); Körner (1791–1813): history; Niebuhr (1776–1831); Ranke (1795–1886); Droysen (1808–1884): influence of the universities on German literature: romanticism in Germany; its mysticism; Jean Paul Richter (1763–1825); Tieck (1773–1853); De la Motte Fouqué (1777–1843): criticism; Schlegel (1767–1845): the Swabian poets; Uhland (1787–1862): the isolated greatness of Heine (1810–1856), as poet and prose writer.

Italian literature: influence of romanticism; Ugo Foscolo (1777-1827); Leopardi (1798-1837); Silvio Pellico (1789-1854): fiction; Manzoni (1784-1873): history; Botta (1766-1837); Colletta (1775-1833); Cantú (1805-1895); Amari (1806-1889): the national movement in Italy and its effect on Italian literature: the political writings of Balbo (1789-1853); Gioberti (1801-1851); and Mazzini (1808-1872).

Spanish literature: special attention paid to the study of history; the leading historians; Masdeu (1740–1817); Conde (1760–1821); Navarette (1765–1844); Toreno (1786–1843).

Portuguese literature; its nationalist character and effect in destroying the Iberianist idea: poetry; Almeida-Garrett (1799–1854); Castilho (1800–1875): revival of the study of history; its leader, Herculano (1810–1877).

Scandinavian literature: its tendency to bring together Sweden and Denmark: Swedish poetry; Tegner (1782–1846): history; Geijer (1783–1847); Fryxell (1795–1881): Danish poetry; Ohlenschlager (1779–1850): prose; Hans Christian Andersen (1805–1875).

Russian literature: its first national development; the historian. Karamsin '1765-1826); the fabulist, Krilov (1768-1844); influence of

romanticism in Russia: Pushkin (1799-1837): commencement of modern Russian literature: Gogol (1810-1851); Lermontov (1811-1841).

Intense nationalism the characteristic of the literature of oppressed peoples; Poland: poetry, Michiéwicz (1798-1855); history, Chodzko (1800-1871); Bohemia: history, Palacky (1798-1876); Hungary: poetry, Petöfi (1823-1849).

The chief development of philosophy during this period was in Germany: Fichte (1762–1814); Schleiermacher (1768–1834); Hegel (1770–1831); Schelling (1775–1854); Herbart (1776–1841); Schopenhauer (1788–1860).

The attempt made to interpret German philosophy to France: Cousin (1792–1867); the positivist philosophy: Comte (1798–1857); the reaction to Christianity: Lamennais (1782–1854); Lacordaire (1802–1861); Montalembert (1810–1870).

Political philosophy in France: the ideas of the French philosophers of the 18th century put into action during the French Revolution; reaction against them under Napoleon; growth of the socialist philosophy: Saint-Simon (1760–1825); Fourier (1772–1837); Proudhon (1809–1865).

The Utilitarian philosophy in England: Bentham (1748–1832); James Mill (1773–1836); John Stuart Mill (1806–1873); the application of philosophy to jurisprudence: Austin (1790–1867); political philosophy: Sir G. C. Lewis (1806–1863); the Scottish school of philosophy: Dugald Stewart (1753–1828); Hamilton (1788–1856).

Growth in political importance of political economy; its chief exponents in England after the death of Adam Smith: Malthus (1764–1834); Ricardo (1772–1823); John Stuart Mill (1806–1873); in France: J. B. Say (1767–1832); in Germany: List (1789–1846).

LECTURE 79.

ART AND SCIENCE FROM 1789 TO 1848.

Art at the commencement of this period was dominated by classical ideals; the influence of the French Revolution on art enforced this

spirit, and during the Napoleonic era classicism became conventional; after the fall of Napoleon the romantic movement greatly influenced art, and produced a reaction against both classicism and conventionality.

The French painters: the classical school: David (1748-1825); his career during the Revolution and his influence on French art; his greatness as a draughtsman; his career under the Empire; his pupils: Gros (1771-1835); reaction to romanticism and realism: Ingres (1781-1867); Horace Vernet (1789-1863); Géricault (1790-1824); Delacroix (1798-1863); Flandrin (1859-1864).

The English painters: Constable (1766–1837) and his influence on landscape painting; Turner (1775–1851); portrait painting: Lawrence (1769–1830); genre painting: Wilkie (1785–1841).

The German painters: the mysticism of the first romantic painters; Overbeck (1789-1869); the idealists: Cornelius (1787-1867); patriotic idealism and mysticism: Kaulbach (1805-1874); importance of Munich as the art centre of Germany during this period.

The Spanish painters: their one great master, Goya (1745-1828).

Sculpture during this period: the leading sculptors: Canova (1757-1822); Flaxman (1755-1826); Thorwaldsen (1770-1844); Rauch (1777-1857); David d'Angers (1793-1856).

Improvement in the arts of reproduction: line engraving: Raphael Morghen (1758–1833); etching; invention of lithography (1796): Senefelder (1771–1834).

Music developed more than painting or sculpture during this period: the veritable great masters in music exerted their influence, aided by great improvements in the means for rendering their compositions.

Music studied with greatest success in Germany; its chief centre, Vienna: the supreme greatness of Beethoven (1770–1827); Schubert (1797–1828).

The school of classical correctness in music: Cherubini (1760-1842); Spohr (1784-1859).

Development of the opera: the opera in Germany: Weber (1786–1826); the Italian opera: Rossini (1792–1868); Donizetti (1798–1848); Bellini (1802–1835); the opera in France: Hérold (1791–1833); Meyerbeer (1794–1864); comic opera: Boieldieu (1775–1834); Auber (1782–1871).

Romanticism in music: Berlioz (1803-1869); Chopin (1810-1849).

Growth of a higher idealism in music, especially in Germany: Mendelssohn (1809–1848); Schumann (1810–1856); attempt of Wagner (1810–1883) to widen the sphere and heighten the realism of music; effect of his writings; production of *Tannhaüser* (1845).

Application of science to material needs: introduction of steam transport; railroads; Boulton (1728–1809); Watt (1736–1819); Fulton (1765–1815); Stephenson (1781–1848).

The application of chemistry: Chaptal (1756-1832); J. B. Dumas (1800-1884); Liebig (1803-1871).

The application of electricity: the electric telegraph: Gauss (1777–1855); Morse (1791–1874); Wheatstone (1802–1875).

The discovery of photography: Niepce (1765–1833); Daguerre (1789–1851).

The development of the natural sciences: attempts at a general harmony of natural phenomena: Lamarck (1744–1829); Alexander von Humboldt (1769–1859); Darwin (1809–1882).

The great biologists: Cuvier (1769–1832); E. H. Weber (1795–1878); Müller (1801–1858).

The great physiologists: Bichat (1771–1802), the first writer on physiology; Broussais (1772–1838); Bell (1774–1842).

The great zoölogists: Geoffroy-Saint-Hilaire (1772–1844); Agassiz (1807–1873).

The great botanists: Jussieu (1747–1836); De Candolle (1778–1841); Brongniart (1801–1876).

The great geologists: William Smith (1769–1839); Dufrénoy (1792–1857); Lyell (1797–1875); Élie de Beaumont (1798–1874).

The great mathematicians: the French school: Lagrange (1736–1813); Monge (1746–1818); Laplace (1749–1827); Legendre (1752–1833); Carnot (1753–1823); Fourier (1768–1830); Cauchy (1789–1857); development of mathematics in other European countries: Gauss (1777–1855); Green (1793–1841); Lobachevski (1793–1850); Abel (1802–1829); Sturm (1803–1855); Sir W. R. Hamilton (1805–1865); De Morgan (1806–1871).

The great astronomers: Herschel (1738–1822); Piazzi (1746–1826); Bessel (1784–1846); Arago (1786–1853); Olbers (1788–1840); Hansen (1795–1874); Airy (1801–1892); Leverrier (1811–1877).

The great physicists: interest taken in electricity: Rumford (1753-1814); Young (1773-1829); Biot (1774-1862); Ampère (1775-1836); Oersted (1777-1857); Davy (1778-1829); Fresnel (1788-1827): Ohm (1788-1854); Faraday (1791-1867); mathematical physics: Lainé (1795-1870).

The great chemists: Cabanis (1757–1808); Gay-Lussac (1778–1850); Berzelius (1779–1848); Chevreul (1786–1889); Liebig (1803–1871).

The extension of scientific knowledge brought about a greater degree of specialization in the natural, mathematical and experimental sciences.

LECTURE 80.

THE EASTERN QUESTION: THE CRIMEAN WAR.

The Eastern Question from the settlement of the crisis brought on by the war between the Turks and Mehemet Ali (1839–1841).

Protest of England and France against the pressure placed upon the Turks by Russia and Austria to surrender Polish and Hungarian fugitives: an English fleet entered the Dardanelles (1849); influence at Constantinople of Sir Stratford Canning (b. 1788, d. 1880), created Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe (1852), the English ambassador (1841–1858).

Reasons for England's interest in the preservation of the independence of Turkey; proposal of the Tsar Nicholas to divide the territories of the "Sick Man" with England.

The attitude of the Tsar Nicholas towards the Turks: consistency of his policy since the Treaties of Adrianople (1829) and Unkiar Skelessi (1833); evacuation of the Danubian principalities by the Russian troops (1851) after the reorganization, which followed the Convention of Balta-Liman; accession of Daniel, as Prince of Montenegro (1851).

The Tsar Nicholas believed the time propitious for the final overthrow of the Turks; Francis Joseph of Austria was bound to him by gratitude for assistance in 1849, and almost dependent on him; Frederick William IV. of Prussia, his brother-in-law, was desirous of obtaining his help to establish his control over Germany; England could not fight without allies and might be induced to share the spoil; while Napoleon III. was distrusted by the European powers, and maintenance of his position in France was doubtful; the conversations of Nicholas with the English ambassador at Saint Petersburg, Sir George Hamilton Seymour (Jan., 1853).

The condition of Turkey; reforms attempted by the Sultan Abdul Medjid under the direction of Rashid Pasha and the encouragement

of Stratford Canning.

Disputed questions likely to lead to war: the difficulty about Montenegro; the quarrel with France about the Holy Places in Palestine.

Mission of Menshikov (b. 1787, d. 1869) to Constantinople (28 Feb.-21 May 1853); demand of Nicholas to be recognized as official protector of the Greek Christians in the Turkish dominions; the Russian ultimatum of 5 May, and its modified form of 21 May; Nicholas' Note to the Powers (11 June); English and French fleets under Admirals James Dundas and Hamelin anchored in Besika Bay (14 June); a Russian army under Michael Gorchákov crossed the Pruth (2 July) and occupied the Danubian principalities; Gregory Ghica, Hospodar of Moldavia, and Stirbeiu, Hospodar of Wallachia, withdrew to Vienna; the Vienna Note (28 July); the English and French fleets entered the Dardanelles (22 Oct).

The Turks at war with Russia (23 Oct., 1853): destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope (30 Nov.); the English and French fleets entered the Black Sea (4 Jan., 1854).

England and France signed a treaty of alliance with Turkey (12 Mar. 1854) and declared war against Russia (27 Mar.); alliance signed between England and France (10 Apr.).

The attitude and policy of Austria and Prussia: they demand, with France and England, the evacuation of the Danubian principalities; offensive and defensive alliance signed between Prussia and Austria (20 Apr., 1854).

Gallant defence of Silistria by the Turks (19 May-23 June, 1854); English and French armies under Raglan and Saint-Arnaud landed at Varna (May-June); the Danubian principalities evacuated by the Russians (2 Aug.); the allied armies landed in the Crimea (14-16 Sept.).

Austria occupied the Danubian principalities and restored the au-

thority of the Hospodars (Aug.-Sept.), under an agreement signed with the Sultan (12 June); the difficulty felt by the Allies in effectively attacking Russia while Austria refused to declare war; indignation of the Tsar Nicholas and of the Allies at the conduct of Austria; Francis Joseph kept in check by the attitude of Prussia and the Germanic Confederation; the Four Points demanded by the Western Powers, and accepted by Austria (8 Aug.), but rejected by Russia: (1) abandonment of Russia's protectorate over the Danubian principalities and Servia; (2) freedom of navigation of the Danube; (3) revision of the Treaty of 13 July, 1841, so far as it related to the neutrality of the Dardanelles; (4) abandonment of Russia's claim to the protectorate over the Christians in Turkey.

The campaign in the Crimea: the Russians under Menshikov defeated in the battle of the Alma (20 Sept.); death of Saint-Arnaud, who was succeeded by Canrobert (29 Sept.); battles of Balaklava (25 Oct.), and Inkerman (5 Nov.); siege of Sevastopol; defence of the city by Todleben (b. 1818, d. 1884); sufferings of the allied armies during the siege.

The English and French fleets in the Baltic under Sir Charles Napier and Parseval-Deschênes: capture of Bomarsund (16 Aug.).

Continued vacillation of Austria.

Death of the Tsar Nicholas (2 Mar., 1855); accession of Alexander II. (b. 1818).

Campaign of 1855 before Sevastopol: Menshikov succeeded by Michael Gorchákov in command of the Russian army (4 March); Canrobert succeeded by Pélissier in command of the French army (16 May); operations of the allied fleets, now commanded by Lyons and Bruat; attack on the Redan and capture of the Mamelon (7 June) and failure to capture the Malakov (18 June); death of Raglan, who was succeeded by Simpson (28 June); Victor Emmanuel, King of Sardinia, joined the Allies (26 Jan.), and sent an army under LaMarmora (b. 1804, d. 1878) to the Crimea (May); battle of the Chernaia (16 Aug.); capture of the Malakov (8 Sept.); surrender of Sevastopol (9 Sept.); Codrington in command of the English army (11 Nov.).

Campaign of 1855 in the Baltic: the English and French fleets under Richard Dundas and Penaud bombard Sveaborg and Helsingfors (7-11 Aug.).

Campaign of 1855 in Armenia: gallant defence of Kars under Fenwick Williams; its surrender (28 Nov.).

Negotiations of the Tsar Alexander II. for peace; exhaustion of Russia.

Congress of Paris for the settlement of terms of peace meeting of the Congress (25 Feb., 1856); plenipotentiaries present were: for France, Walewski and Bourqueney; for England, Clarendon and Cowley; for Russia, Orlov and Brunnow; for Austria, Buol and Hübner; for Sardinia, Cavour and Villamarina; and for Turkey, Ali Pasha and Djemil Effendi; the Prussian representatives, Manteuffel and Hatzfeldt, were not admitted till 18 March.

By the Treaty of Paris (30 March) the independence and territorial integrity of Turkey was recognized, the Black Sea neutralized, and the Danube declared a free river; the Danubian principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia were given complete local self-government under their own princes, with national armies and representative institutions, guaranteed by the powers, but under the suzerainty of Turkey; Servia received the same advantages, but Turkish garrisons were maintained in Belgrade and in three other cities.

By the Declaration of Paris (16 April) privateering was forbidden; neutral goods, when carried in the ships of belligerents, and enemies' goods on neutral ships, except contraband of war, were protected, and blockades recognized only when effective.

Before the Congress broke up Cavour (b. 1809, d. 1861) brought forward the condition of Italy, and the proceedings of Ferdinand II., King of the Two Sicilies, against his subjects were condemned.

Evacuation of the Crimea by the French and English armies (July, 1856).

The most conspicuous results of the Congress of Paris were the isolation of Austria and the favorable attitude of the other Great Powers toward Sardinia.

Authorities: The best small book in English is Hamley, The War in the Crimea; see also Engelhardt, La Turquie et le tanzimat; histoire des réformes depuis 1826; Forçade, Histoire des causes de la guerre d'Orient; Lane-Poole, Life of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe; Vitzthum von Eckstädt, St. Petersburg and London in the years 1852-64; Thouvenei, Nicolas I. et Napoléon III. (1852-54); Kinglake,

The Invasion of the Crimea, its Origin and Account of its Progress to the Death of Lord Raglan; Hamley, The Story of the Campaign of Sebastopoi; Russell, The British Expedition to the Crimea; Sandwith, Narrative of the Siege of Kars; Roussel, Histoire de la guerre de Crimée; Niel, Le siège de Sébastopoi; Bazancourt, L'Expédition de Crimée; la marine française dans la mer Noire et la Baltique, and L'Expédition de Crimée jusqu'à la prise de Sébastopoi; Todleben, La défense de Sébastopol; Brialmont, Le général Todleben, sa vie et ses travaux; Rothan, La Prusse et son Roi pendant la guerre de Crimée; Rüstow, Der Krieg gegen Russland, and Der Angriff auf die Krim und der Kampf um Sebastopol, and Geffcken, Zur Geschichte des Orientalischen Krieges.

LECTURE 81.

THE UNION OF ITALY.

Condition of Italy after the revolutionary movement of 1848; cruel government of Ferdinand II., King of the Two Sicilies; reactionary government of Pope Pius IX., the Grand Duke Leopoid II. of Tuscany, Duke Francis V. of Modena, and Duke Charles III. of Parma; assassination of Charles III. of Parma (26 Mar., 1854), and accession of Robert I.; arbitrary military government of the Austrians in Lombardy and Venetia.

The only constitutional, parliamentary and moderate government in Italy was that of the King of Sardinia; character of Victor Emmanuel II. (b. 1820, d. 1878); ministry of D'Azeglio (7 May, 1849-22 Oct., 1852); Cavour, chief minister of Sardinia (4 Nov., 1852-13 July, 1859); his sagacious policy; Victor Emmanuel and Cavour hoped to accomplish the union of Italy under the constitutional government of the House of Savoy.

Progress of the revolutionary movement in Italy: it was mainly republican and democratic, and looked to the formation of an Italian Republic; opposite points of view of Cavour and Mazzini; the former wished to accomplish the union of Italy by policy, with the countenance and assistance of Europe, the latter by means of popular insurrection; Mazzini's attempt to raise an insurrection in Genoa (June, 1857).

The Austrians continued to occupy Parma, Modena and the Legations, while the French had occupied Rome since 1849.

Political advantage obtained by Cavour in joining the Anglo-French alliance against Russia in 1855, and in sending an army to the Crimea; he thus obtained the right to be present at the Congress of Paris, and to lay the grievances of Italy before the Great Powers.

Interest taken in England and in France in the cause of Italian unity; indignation at the cruelties of King Bomba; conspiracies formed, and money obtained; the work of the secret societies and spread of democratic and unitary principles.

Napoleon III. considered the possibility of assisting the Italian cause; his sympathy with the spirit of nationality; the idea of creating a confederation of the Italian Princes under the leadership of the Pope and the King of Sardinia; attempt of Orsini on the life of Napoleon III. (14 Jan., 1858).

The condition of affairs in Europe in 1858 favored the policy of Napoleon III. and Cavour; in Prussia Prince William had been declared regent owing to the insanity of Frederick William IV. (7 Oct., 1858); the new regent hated Austria and was ready to be on friendly terms with France; the Tsar Alexander II. also friendly with France.

England, though less friendly with France than during the Crimean War, was too much occupied with the suppression of the Sepoy Mutiny in India to wish to interfere in the affairs of Europe, and English public opinion was all in favor of Italian unity and liberty; Austria, the power most opposed to Italian reform and unity, was therefore isolated.

Success of the French policy in the two Danubian provinces: the idea of union; revival of the idea of Romanian nationality; union not forbidden by the Treaty of Paris, though not intended by the Powers; provisional government (1856-1858); Alexander John Couza elected Prince of Moldavia (17 Jan., 1859), and of Wallachia (5 Feb.); Milosch Obrenovitch replaced Alexander Karageorgevitch as Prince of Servia (12 Jan., 1859); on his death (26 Sept., 1860) he was succeeded by his son, Michael.

Napoleon III. and Cavour agreed at Plombières (20 July, 1858) that Sardinia should cede Savoy and Nice to France in return for assistance against Austria in Italy.

The relations between Sardinia and Austria: Austria declared war (26 Apr., 1859); Napoleon III. declared his intention of aiding Victor Emmanuel.

The campaign of 1859 in Italy: the French and Sardinian armies defeated the Austrians at Montebello (20 May) and at Magenta (4 June); entrance of Napoleon III. and Victor Emmanuel into Milan (8 June); Napoleon's appeal to the Italians to unite for the freedom of their country.

General insurrection in Italy: the Grand Duke Leopold driven from Florence (27 Apr.), Duke Robert I. from Parma (9 June), and Duke Francis V. from Modena (11 June); Francis II. succeeded as King of the Two Sicilies (22 May), and was prevented from aiding the Austrians by insurrections; the Austrians withdrew from the Legations (12–18 June); provisional governments formed at Florence under Ricasoli (27 Apr.), at Modena (13 June) and at Bologna (12 June).

The French defeated the Austrians at Solferino (24 June); Napoleon III., startled at the spread of the revolutionary movement in Italy, and afraid of the establishment of a strongly unified monarchy, instead of an Italian federation, made an armistice with Austria (8 July).

By the Treaty of Villafranca (11 July) Austria made peace with France and ceded Lombardy, but not Venetia, to Napoleon III.; resignation of Cavour (13 July); both Austria and France afraid of the Prince Regent of Prussia, who had mobilized the Prussian army (14 June); definitive treaty signed at Zurich (10 Nov.).

Progress of the movement in Italy for amalgamation with the Kingdom of Sardinia; Tuscany, the Legations, the Romagna and the Duchies of Parma and Modena voted for union with Sardinia (Aug., Sept.); they elected the Prince of Carignano as regent (6-9 Nov.); he refused the office and named Boncompagni as regent (14 Nov.); Garibaldi resigned the command of their army (17 Nov.); Cavour recalled to office by Victor Emmanuel (16 Jan., 1860).

Napoleon III. appealed for a conference of the Great Powers to settle the affairs of Italy (30 Nov., 1859); England formally opposed; Palmerston, who had become prime minister (12 June, 1859), declared for non-intervention and that the central Italian states had a right to decide on their own government, and he demanded that the French should evacuate Rome (22 Jan., 1860).

Victor Emmanuel accepted the union, with the Kingdom of Sardinia, of Parma, Modena and the Romagna (18 Mar.), and of Tuscany (22 March).

Napoleon III. ceded Lombardy to Victor Emmanuel in exchange for Savoy and Nice (24 March).

Garibaldi landed in Sicily with a body of followers (11 May, 1860); his movement entirely independent; he disliked Cavour, and was an adherent of republicanism rather than of the House of Savoy; Garibaldi conquered all Sicily by the end of July; Francis II., King of the Two Sicilies, re-issued the constitution which his father had granted in 1848 and afterwards had withdrawn (2 July); Garibaldi crossed to the mainland (19 Aug.), conquered Calabria and occupied Naples (7 Sept.); Francis II. escaped to Gaeta (6 Sept.); Mazzini joined Garibaldi (17 Sept.), and projected the establishment of an Italian Republic.

Action of Victor Emmanuel and Cavour at this juncture: they represented themselves as forced by circumstances to intervene in the affairs of southern Italy; encouraged by England: wrath of the Pope, who excommunicated Victor Emmanuel; Cialdini, with a Sardinian army, defeated the Papal troops at Castelfidardo (18 Sept.), occupied Umbria and the March, avoided the Patrimony of St. Peter, and entered Neapolitan territory (23 Sept.); capture of Ancona (29 Sept.).

The Parliament of Turin, consisting of deputies from all northern and central Italy, authorized Victor Emmanuel to unite the March, Naples and Sicily with the Sardinian dominions (II-I6 Oct.); Victor Emmanuel proceeded to Naples; patriotic conduct of Garibaldi; Umbria, the-March, Naples and Sicily voted for union with northern and central Italy (21 Oct.).

Surrender of Gaeta (13 Feb., 1861).

Meeting of the first Italian Parliament at Turin (18 Feb., 1861); the King of Sardinia declared King of Italy as Victor Emmanuel I. (17 Mar.).

Italy thus formed into a united kingdom within eighteen months from the outbreak of war with Austria, the only provinces not ruled by the House of Savoy being Venetia, occupied by the Austrians, and Rome, with the Patrimony of St. Peter, garrisoned by French troops.

Causes of this startling success: the ability of Cavour; organization of Italy as a limited monarchy under the House of Savoy.

Death of Cavour (6 June, 1861).

Authorities: The best small book in English is Stillman, The Union of Italy; see also Martinengo Cesaresco, The Liberation of Italy; Tivaroni, Storia critica del Risorgimento Italiano; Reuchlin, Geschichte Italiens; Mistrali, Da Novara a Roma; Crozals, L'Unité italienne; Giacometti, L'Unité italienne; Cantú, Della Indipendenza Italiana; Ideville, Journal d'un Diplomate en Italie, 1859-1862 : Bianchi, Storia documentata della diplomazia Europea in Italia; Rattazzi, Rattazzi et son temps; Zeller, Pie IX. et Victor Emmanuel : Bottalla, Histoire de la révolution de 1860 en Sicile; Garibaldi, Memoirs; Mazzini, Scritti, editi ed inediti: Massari, Vita di Vittorio Emanuele II., and Vita di Cayour; Godkin, Life of Victor Emmanuel; Mazade, Le comte de Cavour; Nigra, Correspondence of Cavour with Madame de Circourt, translated by Butler; Cavour, Il conte di Cavour in parlamento; discorsi, ed. Artom and Blanc; Lettere edite ed inedite, ed. Chiala; and Nouvelles Lettres, ed. Bert: Bianchi, La politique du Comte Camille de Cavour de 1852 à 1861, lettres inédites; Mario, Garibaldi e i suoi Tempi; D'Azeglio, I miei ricordi; L'Italie de 1847 à 1865; Correspondance, ed. Rendu; Scritti politici e letterari, ed. Tabarrini: and Scritti postumi, ed. Ricci: Della Rocca, Autobiography of a Veteran; Duquet, Histoire de la guerre d'Italie; Rüstow, Der italienische Krieg, 1859, and Erinnerungen aus dem italienischen Feldzuge von 1860, and Bazancourt, La campagne d'Italic de 1859.

LECTURE 82.

THE OVERTHROW OF AUSTRIA.

Position of the Great Powers toward each other after the formation of the Kingdom of Italy.

The restless policy of Napoleon III.: continuance of the alliance with England, but on less cordial terms; the joint expedition to China (1860); French interference in Syria (1860); the French expedition to Mexico (1862); election of the Archduke Maximilian as Emperor of Mexico (10 July, 1863); disastrous result of French interference in Mexico (1866); Maximilian shot (19 June, 1867).

Development of the Eastern Question: friendship between Napoleon III. and Alexander II.; union of the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia into the Principality of Romania (23 Dec., 1861); death of Sultan Abdul Medjid and accession of Abdul Aziz (25 June, 1861); overthrow of Prince Alexander Couza (23 Feb., 1866); election of Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen as Prince of Romania (20 Apr., 1866).

Revolution in Greece: overthrow of King Otho (Oct., 1862); election of Prince George of Denmark as King of the Hellenes (30 Mar., 1863); representative institutions established; cession by England of the Ionian Islands to Greece (28 May, 1864).

The position in Italy: the ministries of Ricasoli (12 June, 1861—2 March, 1862); Rattazzi (3 March, 1862—1 Dec., 1862), and Farini (9 Dec., 1862—23 Sept., 1864); longing of the Italians for Rome and Venice; negotiations with France for the withdrawal of the French garrison from Rome; Garibaldi's attempt on Rome defeated at Aspromonte (29 Aug., 1862); ministry of La Marmora (23 Sept., 1864—20 June, 1866); his negotiations with Prussia.

The policy of Tsar Alexander II.: emancipation of the Russian serfs (18 Mar., 1861); outbreak of insurrection in Russian Poland (22 Jan., 1863); offer of Prussia to assist Russia in suppressing the insurrection (8 Feb.); gratitude of Alexander; joint representations of England, Austria and France in favor of the Poles (17 Apr.); indignation of the Tsar.

The internal policy of Austria: Rechberg, minister of foreign affairs (17 May, 1859—27 Oct., 1864); the Emperor Francis Joseph promulgated a unitary constitution (20 Oct., 1860); refusal of the Hungarians and Venetians to send deputies to the new parliament.

Growing strength of Prussia: accession of William I. (2 Jan., 1861); his character and previous career; his military instincts; reorganization of the Prussian army by Von Roon (b. 1803, d. 1879), and of the general staff by Von Moltke (b. 1800, d. 1891); King William's belief in the unity of Germany and in the mission of Prussia to dominate Germany.

Position of parties in the Prussian Landtag: Bismarck appointed chief minister (23 Sept., 1862); he was unable to obtain a parliamentary majority, but raised taxes and governed without it; character of Bismarck's policy; he worked for the isolation of Austria and the destruction of her influence in Germany as the first step towards German unity.

The weakness of the Bundestag, or Federal Diet; the schemes of the middle states, headed by Saxony, Hanover and Bavaria, for preventing the predominance of either Austria or Prussia.

The Schleswig-Holstein question: its position at the death of Frederick VII. of Denmark (15 Nov., 1863); the Duke of Augustenburg put forward his claim to the duchies; at the request of the Bundestag, Hanover and Saxony occupied Holstein and Lauenburg (23 Dec., 1863), and Prussia and Austria occupied Schleswig (1 Feb., 1864); resistance of the Danes; battles of Duppel; England's futile protests; Christian IX. of Denmark forced to yield; by the treaty of 1 August, confirmed 30 October, 1864, he surrendered the duchies to Prussia and Austria.

The Bundestag, led by Bavaria and Saxony, demanded that the duchies should be given up to the Duke of Augustenburg; Bismarck scornfully refused; by the Convention of Gastein (14 Aug, 1865) Prussia and Austria agreed to a "condominium" in the duchies; Austria occupied Holstein, while Prussia occupied Schleswig and purchased Lauenburg.

Bismarck's preparations for war with Austria; the friendliness of Russia towards the Prussian schemes; Bismarck's negotiations with Napoleon III., to whom he offered Belgium and Luxemburg in return for neutrality.

Bismarck signed an offensive and defensive treaty with Italy (8 Apr., 1866), and promised to attack Austria within three months.

Bismarck proposed to the Bundestag that a German parliament be elected by universal suffrage, that Austria be excluded from Germany, and that the forces of Germany be divided into two armies, of which the northern should be commanded by the King of Prussia and the southern by the King of Bavaria (9 Apr.).

Bismarck attacked Austria's administration of Holstein as favoring the pretensions of the Duke of Augustenburg, and finally refused to submit the question of the duchies to the Bundestag (4 May).

Outbreak of the Seven Weeks' War: a Prussian army under Manteuffel (b. 1809, d. 1885) entered Holstein (7 June); diplomatic relations between Prussia and Austria broken off (12 June).

Bismarck declared the Pact of Federation broken (14 June); Prussian troops occupied Saxony, Hanover, and Hesse-Cassel; fruitless success of the Hanoverians at Langensalza (27 June); Manteuffel invaded Bavaria and prevented the South German states from lending effective aid to Austria.

The campaign of 1866 in Italy: Italy declared war against Austria (20 June); the Italian army invaded Venetia and was defeated by the Archduke Albert at Custozza (24 June); the Italian fleet defeated by Tegetthoff at Lissa (20 July); an armistice signed between Austria and Italy (12 Aug.), and by a treaty (24 Aug.) Austria ceded Venetia to Napoleon III. for transference, after a plébiscite, to the Kingdom of Italy.

The campaign of 1866 in Bohemia: Von Moltke's strategical combinations; junction of the armies of the Crown Prince Frederick of Prussia (b. 1831, d. 1888) and Prince Frederick Charles (b. 1828, d. 1885); the Austrians under Benedek utterly defeated at Sadowa, or Königgrätz (3 July); armistice signed (22 July), followed by the Preliminaries of Nikolsburg (26 July), and the Treaty of Prague (23 Aug.).

By this treaty Austria lost no territory, but agreed to the dissolution of the Germanic Confederation, and promised to make no opposition to a new organization of Germany, in which she should have no part.

Prussia's chief advantages from the war were not gained from Austria, but by the annexation of the following states: Hesse-Homburg (3 Sept.), Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, the free city of Frankfort (20 Sept.), and Schleswig-Holstein (24 Dec.), which gave her an uncontested superiority in Germany; favorable treaties of peace made with Würtemberg (13 Aug.), Baden (17 Aug.), Bavaria (22 Aug.), Hesse-Darmstadt (3 Sept.), and Saxony (21 Oct.).

When the great blow had been struck and it was too late for him to interfere effectively, Napoleon III., by his ambassador, Benedetti, asked for Rhenish Bavaria and Rhenish Hesse, as his reward for non-interference (6 Aug.); William I. and Bismarck refused (7 Aug.), and by making known the request aroused German feeling against France.

Results of the Seven Weeks' War on the position of European politics.

Authorities: Debidour, Histoire diplomatique de l'Europe, 1814-78; Lefèvre, Histoire de l'intervention française au Mexique; Masseras, Un essai d'empire au Mexique; Gaulot, L'Empire de Maximilien; Monicault, La question d'Orient, le traité de Paris et ses suites (1856-71); Bergner, Rumänien; Petrescu and Stourdza, Actes et documents relatifs à l'histoire de la régénération de la Roumanie; Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, Geschichte Griechenlands; Hertzberg, Geschichte Griechenlands; Thouvenel, Trois années de la question d'Orient (1856-59), La Grèce du roi Othon, and Le Secret de l'Empereur (1860-63); Zeller, Pie IX. et Vic-

tor Emmanuel; Ricasoli, Lettere e documenti; Bersezio, Il regno di Vittorio Emanuele: Garibaldi, Memoirs; Martin, Pologne et Muscovie; Balsch, La question polonaise dans la Russie occidentale; Araminski, Histoire de la révolution polonaise : Lisicki. Le marquis Wielopolski; Leroy-Beaulieu, Un homme d'état russe, Nicolas Milutine; Sybel, Die Begründung des deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I.; William I., Militärische Schriften; Roon, Denkwürdigkeiten; Moltke, Gesammelte Schriften und Denkwürdigkeiten, and his Militärische Werke; Müller, Graf Moltke; Hahn. Fürst Bismarck; Kohl, Fürst Bismarck; Busch, Our Chancellor; Lowe, Life of Bismarck: Simon, Histoire du prince de Bismarck; Poschinger, Fürst Bismarck und der Bundesrath; Bismarck, Gesammelte Werke, Briefe, Politische Briefe, and Politischen Reden, and Gedenkschriften und Erinnerungen, translated by Butler: Beust. Memoirs: Vitzthum von Eckstädt, St. Petersburg and London, 1852-64. and London, Gastein und Sadowa, 1864-66; Giehne, Zwei Jahre Œsterreichischer Politik; Malet, The Overthrow of the Germanic Confederation by Prussia in 1866; Loftus, Diplomatic Reminiscences; Hansen, A travers la diplomatie, 1864-67; Renouf, Les coulisses de la diplomatie; Rothan, La politique française en 1866; Benedetti, Ma mission en Prusse, and Essais diplomatiques ; Klaczko, Les préliminaires de Sadowa, and Two Chancellors, Bismarck and Gortchakoff; Viel-Castel, Memoirs; Castellane, Journal; Gramont (pseud. Memor), L'Allemagne nouvelle; La Marmora, Un peu plus de lumière sur les événements militaires et politiques de l'année 1866; Chiala, Dal congresso di Plombières al congresso di Berlino, and Le général La Marmora et l'alliance prussienne; Bonghi, L'allianza prussiana e l'acquisto del Veneto ; Harcourt, Les quatre ministères de M. Drouyn de Lhuys ; Hahn, Zwei Jahre preussich-deutscher Politik, 1866-67; Treitschke, Zehn Jahre deutscher Kämpfe, 1865-74; Dicey, The Schleswig-Holstein War; Rüstow, Der deutsch-dänische Krieg, 1864; Hozier, The Seven Weeks' War; Lecomte, Guerre de la Prusse et de l'Italie contre l'Autriche et la Confédération germanique ; Borbstädt, Preussens Feldzüge gegen Æsterreich; Rüstow, Der Krieg von 1866 im Deutschland und Italien; Fontane, Der deutsche Krieg von 1866; Knorr, Der Feldzug des Jahr 1866 in West- und Sud-Deutschland, and the official accounts of the wars of 1864 and 1866 by the German, Danish and Austrian general staffs.

LECTURE 83.

THE RE-CONSTITUTION OF GERMANY AND AUSTRIA.

After the signature of the Treaty of Prague, Prussia propounded a new organization for northern Germany; the victories of her armies and the great preponderance she had obtained over the other states by the annexation of Hanover, etc., caused Bismarck's plan to be promptly accepted by the northern states (7 Feb., 1867).

Germany north of the Main was formed into the North German Confederation, which consisted of the two kingdoms of Prussia and Saxony, the four grand duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Saxe-Weimar, and Oldenburg, five duchies, seven principalities, and the three free cities of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck.

The federal power extending over foreign affairs, the army, coinage, and all matters not strictly provincial, was entrusted to the King of Prussia as President of the Confederation, whose executive minister was the Chancellor, appointed by himself; the King of Prussia was also commander-in-chief of the army and navy; Bismarck appointed chancellor (14 July).

The federal legislative authority was to be administered by the Federal Parliament, or Reichstag, elected by universal suffrage in proportion to population.

Between the President and the Reichstag was established the Federal Council, or Bundesrath, consisting of forty-three members appointed by the governments of the different states, Prussia nominating seventeen.

The constitution was accepted by the Constituent Reichstag (16 Apr., 1867), which voted taxes for the maintenance of the army for four years.

Von Roon applied the military organization of Prussia to the whole of the North German Confederation.

The South German states, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, maintained their independence, but the Zollverein, or Customs-Union, was renewed between them and the North German Confederation (8 July). its affairs being regulated by a "Zollparlament."

The condition of the Austrian Empire after the Treaty of Prague: failure of the unitary constitution granted in 1860, owing to the abstention of Hungarian deputies; the struggle between the federalists and the dualists; the Emperor Francis Joseph resolved on a dual constitution; Beust (b. 1809. d. 1886) appointed Austrian Chancellor (23 June, 1867).

The dual agreement of 8 February, 1867: the Empire split into two parts, Austria and Hungary, each having separate parliaments, minis-

tries, budgets and complete internal autonomy; foreign policy, imperial finance and military administration carried on by ministers responsible to a Reichstag, consisting of delegations from the Austrian and Hungarian parliaments; these arrangements embodied in a Constitution, which received the sanction of Francis Joseph (22 Dec., 1867).

Delight of the Magyars at the Dual Constitution, which was mainly the work of Deak; their attitude towards subject populations, and compromise with Croatia.

Wrath of the Slavonic populations at the Dual Constitution; the Slavs of the north, headed by the Czechs, being thus separated from the Slovaks, Slavonians, Croats and Servians in the south.

The condition of Russia; liberal policy of the Tsar Alexander II. and his ministers, except with regard to Poland.

Russia's advance in Central Asia: wars in Turkestan; the conquered tetritories formed into the Governor-Generalship of Turkestan (23 July, 1867); Bokhara became a tributary state (1868).

Condition of the Eastern Question: growth of Romanian claims for independence under Prince Charles of Hohenzollern; the Turks withdrew their garrisons from Belgrade and the other Servian fortresses (18 Apr., 1867); assassination of Michael Obrenovitch (10 June, 1868), and accession of Milan, as Prince of Servia; insurrections in the Herzegovina (1861–62) and in Crete (1866–69).

Italian affairs after the Treaty of Prague: the Italians demanded the evacuation of Rome by the French garrison; the garrison withdrawn (11 Dec., 1866); Garibaldi's attack on Rome (25 Oct., 1867); a French army under De Failly arrived in Rome to defend the Pope (30 Oct.); defeat of Garibaldi at Mentana (3 Nov.); withdrawal of the French troops to Civita Vecchia.

Negotiations of Napoleon III. with Bismarck: his schemes on Belgium; his schemes on Luxemburg, which had been ruled by the King of the Netherlands as a German state, but had not joined the North German Confederation; equivocal position of Luxemburg, which was garrisoned by Prussia; William III. of the Netherlands ready to sell Luxemburg to France, but unwilling to do so without the consent of Prussia.

Napoleon III. appealed to Europe on the question of Luxemburg; a

conference of the Great Powers, by the Treaty of London (11 May, 1867), directed that the grand duchy be evacuated by Prussia, that the fortress be dismantled, and that its neutrality be guaranteed by Europe.

Growing weakness and unpopularity of the Second Empire in France; effect of the final failure of the Mexican expedition (1867); strength of the parliamentary opposition under Thiers; resolution of Napoleon III. to rule more in harmony with popular feeling; he granted a measure of liberty to the press (10 May, 1868), and the right of public meeting (6 June, 1868), and eventually established real parliamentary government (8 Sept., 1869).

Napoleon's concessions taken as a confession of weakness; general hatred and contempt expressed for the Empire in France; the republican party grew in strength and threatened revolution; prominence of Gambetta (b. 1838, d. 1882), elected deputy for Paris in 1869; vigor of republican journalism; Henri Rochefort (b. 1830), editor of La Lanterne; influence of the "International," founded 28 Sept., 1864, a democratic society of workingmen, directed by Mazzini, Kossuth, Ledru-Rollin, Karl Marx and George Odger.

Napoleon regarded a successful war as the only means practicable for restoring the authority of the Empire; he was falsely told that the army was efficient; he resolved on war with Prussia, because Bismarck had foiled his designs on Luxemburg and he could promise the French people a restoration of the "natural limits" of France; his endeavors to obtain allies; Austria afraid to join him from fear of Russia, and Italy declined, because of the French occupation of Civita Vecchia.

William I. and Bismarck also desired war with France; they wished to incorporate the South German states and to complete German unity by a great national triumph.

Napoleon III. formed liberal ministry under Émile Ollivier (3 Jan., 1870); he appealed to a plébiscite and by 7,336,434 votes to 1,560,709 France declared herself satisfied with the Empire (8 May, 1870).

The pretext for war derived from the situation in Spain.

Recent history of Spain: unpopularity of Queen Isabella II.; domination of the army and frequency of military pronunciamentos.

Repeated changes of ministry and alternation of power between Espartero, Narvaez and C'Donnell; war with Morocco (1859-60), with

Peru (1864-66), with San Domingo (1864-65); chronic state of insurrection in Cuba.

After the death of Narvaez and O'Donnell, Isabella was abandoned; insurrection of September, 1868; flight of Isabella to France (30 Sept.); formation of a provisional government (8 Oct.) under Serrano (b. 1810, d. 1885), Prim (b. 1814, d. 1870), and Topete (b. 1820, d. 1885).

Meeting of a constituent assembly at Madrid (11 Feb. 1869); it elected Serrano regent and declared in favor of limited monarchy; candidates for the throne of Spain, Don Carlos, the Duc de Montpensier, and Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha; Prim suggested the candidature of a prince of the House of Hohenzollern; King William I. of Prussia gave permission for the candidature of his relative, Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen (28 June).

Napoleon III. resolved to make out of this candidature a casus belli with Prussia; Benedetti sent to Ems to demand an explanation of King William; his interviews with the King (9-11 July); candidature of Prince Leopold for the throne of Spain withdrawn (12 July); Benedetti's instructions to demand yet more from the King of Prussia; the King left Ems (15 July); Bismarck ready for war; mobilization of the German armies.

Excitement in Germany at the behavior of France; the South German states prepared to assist the North German Confederation; enthusiasm felt at the prospect of war with France.

England endeavored to mediate, but Napoleon and Bismarck were bent upon war; France declared war (19 July); European public opinion regarded the war as wanton and sympathized with Prussia.

Authorities: Von Sybel, Die Begründung des deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I.; Maurenbrecher, Gründung des deutschen Reiches; Oncken, Das Zeitalter des Kaisers Wilhelm; Wilhelm I., Politische Correspondenz; Treitschke, Zehn Jahre deutscher Kämpfe, and Deutsche Geschichte im 19^{ten} Jahrhundert; Binding, Die Gründung des Norddeutschen Bundes; Bulle, Geschichte des zweiten Kaiserreiches und des Königreiches Italien; Véron, Histoire de l'Allemagne depuis la bataille de Sadowa; Ernest, Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Memoirs; Rogge, Œsterreich (1848-73); Stillman, The Cretan Insurrection of 1866; Delord, Histoire du Second Empire; Rothan, La politique française en 1866, L'Affaire de Luxembourg, and La France et sa politique extérieure en 1867; Thiers, Discours parlementaires; Gramont (pseud. Memor), La France et la Prusse avant la guerre;

Ollivier, Mémoires, and Le 19 Janvier; papiers et correspondance de la famille impériale; Rochefort, Mémoires; Gambetta, Discours et plaidoyers choisis, ed. Reinach; Beust, Memoirs; Benedetti, Ma Mission en Prusse, and Essais diplomatiques; Hahn, Der Krieg Deutschlands gegen Frankreich und die Gründung des deutschen Kaiserreichs; Sorel, Histoire diplomatique de la guerre franco-allemande; Poujade, La diplomatie du Second Empire et celle du quatre Septembre, 1870; Strobel, The Spanish Revolution, 1868-1875; Hubbard, Histoire contemporaine d'Espagne; Mazade, Les révolutions de l'Espagne contemporaine; Cherbuliez, L'Espagne politique (1868-73); Lauser, Geschichte Spaniens von dem Sturz Isabellas; Pirala, Historia contemporanea (1843-75); Laveleye, La Prusse et l'Autriche depuis Sadowa; Loftus, Diplomatic Reminiscences, and many of the books cited under Lecture 80, including those on Bismarck.

LECTURE 84.

THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR.

Attitude of the Powers of Europe at the outbreak of the Franco-German War; England declared neutrality (19 July, 1870), and English public opinion was aroused against France by the publication of Napoleon III.'s propositions to Bismarck for seizing Belgium; Russia declared neutrality (23 July) and threatened to attack Austria, if that power should join France; Austria, therefore, remained neutral; Italy refused to join France because of the French occupation of Civita Vecchia; Denmark alone prepared to aid Napoleon, if the French armies won some immediate success; formation of the League of Neutrals (Aug.-Sept.).

Enthusiasm for the war in Germany; the Crown Prince of Prussia tock command of the contingents of the South German states.

Excitement in Paris; the Emperor Napoleon III. left Paris to take command of the army (28 July).

Rapid mobilization of the German army; Moltke's plan of campaign; inferiority of the French military administration; change in the French plan of campaign owing to the adhesion of the South German states to Prussia.

First campaign of 1870: the skirmish at Saarbrück (2 Aug.); battle

of Wissembourg (4 Aug.); the Crown Prince of Prussia utterly defeated MacMahon (b. 1808, d. 1893), at Wörth, or Fröschwiller, and Prince Frederick Charles defeated Frossard at Spicheren, or Forbach (6 Aug.); Moltke, having thus broken the French line, formed the siege of Strasburg and advanced against the main French army under Bazaine; Bazaine defeated at Borny (14 Aug.), at Mars-la-Tour, or Vionville (16 Aug.), and at Gravelotte, or Saint-Privat (18 Aug.); Bazaine's army shut up in Metz and besieged by Prince Frederick Charles.

Excitement caused in Paris by the news of the French defeats; the Empress Eugénie, who had been appointed regent, dismissed Ollivier and appointed a new ministry under Montauban, Comte de Palikao (10 Aug.).

The campaign of Sedan: the Army of Châlons under MacMahon, and accompanied by the Emperor, marched to relieve Metz; it was utterly defeated by the main German army at Sedan (1 Sept.); surrender of the French army (2 Sept.), and the Emperor Napoleon III. sent a prisoner into Germany.

Revolution of 4 September in Paris: the Imperial Government overthrown; the deputies for Paris in the Legislative Body, with the exception of Thiers, declared themselves the Government of National Defence, with General Trochu, commandant of Paris, as President; this provisional government formed a ministry consisting of Jules Favre (b. 1809, d. 1880), Minister of Foreign Affairs; Gambetta, Minister of the Interior; General Le Flô, Admiral Fourichon, Crémieux, Ernest Picard, Jules Simon, Dorian and Magnin; the other members of the Government of National Defence were Emmanuel Arago, Jules Ferry (b. 1832, d. 1893), Garnier-Pagés, Eugène Pelletan, Glas-Bizoin and Henri Rochefort; Étienne Arago made Mayor of Paris.

The first measures of the new French government: its mistakes; it did not immediately summon a constituent assembly; it persisted in remaining in Paris; it sent Thiers to endeavor to obtain allies.

Thiers' journey: his reception in England, Russia, Austria and Italy; the French garrison had been withdrawn from Civita Vecchia (3 Aug.): Rome was captured by the Italians (20 Sept.), and declared the capital of the Kingdom of Italy.

Continued success of the German armies in France; the siege of Paris

formed (19 Sept.); surrender of Toul (23 Sept.), and of Strasburg (28 Sept.); the Germans advanced south and took Orleans (11 Oct.); Bismarck's negotiations with Bazaine; his attitude towards the Government of National Defence; surrender of Bazaine and of Metz (27 Oct.).

Gambetta left Paris (8 Oct.), and organized a branch government at Tours; his extraordinary energy and success in calling France to arms; he advocated war à outrance, and organized the Army of the Loire; the Germans forced to evacuate Orleans, and defeated at Coulmiers (9 Nov.); advance of the Army of the Loire to the relief of Paris; critical position of the German besieging army; sortie of Trochu from Paris and battle of Villiers-Champigny (30 Nov.-2 Dec.).

Prince Frederick Charles broke the Army of the Loire in two, and reoccupied Orleans (5 Dec.); the branch government retired from Tours to Bordeaux (10 Dec.); surrender of Verdun (8 Nov.), of Thionville (24 Nov.) and of Montmédy (14 Dec.); brilliant defence of Belfort (2 Nov.—18 Feb.).

Effect of German victories upon German popular opinion; the South German states entered the North German Confederation (15–25 Nov.); the Reichstag offered the King of Prussia the title of Emperor (10 Dec.); he declined to accept it until it was offered to him by the German Princes; this was done and William I. of Prussia was proclaimed German Emperor at Versailles (18 Jan., 1871).

Russia took advantage of the war and of the existence of Gladstone's ministry in England to declare the abrogation of the terms of the Treaty of Paris of 1856 (31 Oct., 1870); conference of the powers upon this subject at London (17 Jan.); the Treaty of Paris modified so as to permit Russia to maintain a fleet in the Black Sea (13 Mar.); causes of France not being represented at the conference; the policy of Bismarck with regard to the Government of National Defence.

Final campaign of 1871; the Germans commenced the bombardment of Paris (5 Jan.); operations of the Army of the North under Faidherbe; battle of Pont-Noyelles (23 Dec., 1870); Faidherbe's success at Bapaume (3 Jan., 1871); surrender of Mezières (2 Jan.) and of Péronne (9 Jan.); Faidherbe utterly defeated by Von Göben at Saint-Quentin (19 Jan.); operations of the Second Army of the Loire under Chanzy (b. 1823, d. 1883); he was defeated by Prince Frederick Charles

at Le Mans (11 Jan.); operations of the Army of the East under Bourbaki; he was defeated at Héricourt (17 Jan.), and driven into Switzerland; last sortie from Paris under Ducrot; battle of Buzenval (19 Jan.); Paris forced to surrender (28 Jan.).

The armistice of 28 Jan., 1871; its terms; its blunders; conduct of Jules Favre; mistakes of the Government of National Defence; resignation by Gambetta of his authority in the provinces (6 Feb.); elections held for a Constituent Assembly (8 Feb.).

Meeting of the Constituent Assembly at Bordeaux (12 Feb.); Thiers elected "chief of the executive power"; signature of preliminaries of peace with Germany (26 Feb.); the treaty accepted by the Assembly (1 Mar.); by it France ceded Alsace and part of Lorraine, including Metz, to Germany, and promised to pay a war indemnity of five milliards of francs; definitive treaty signed at Frankfort (10 May, 1871).

The Constituent Assembly declared the overthrow of the Empire; the proclamation of the Third French Republic (1 March, 1871).

Formation at Paris of the Government of the Commune (18 March, 1871); its leaders and their doctrines; Thiers concentrated an army at Versailles against the Commune; resistance of the government of the Commune; the Archbishop of Paris and other hostages shot; the war with the Commune; MacMahon conquered the Commune and occupied Paris (21–28 May); burning of the Tuileries and of the Hôtel de Ville.

The most important results of the Franco-German War were the completion of the unity of Germany and the overthrow of the Second Empire in France; but the cession of Alsace and Lorraine, more than the result of the war, raised inextinguishable hatred between the two nations.

Authorities: Sorel, Histoire diplomatique de la guerre Franco-Allemande; Angeberg, Recueil des traités, conventions, etc., concernant la guerre Franco-Allemande; Hahn, Der Krieg Deutschlands gegen Frankreich und die Gründung des deutschen Kaiserreichs; Meding, De Sadowa à Sedan; Washburne, Correspondence relating to the Franco-German War, and Recollections of a Minister to France (1869-77); Daily News, War Correspondence; Forbes, My Experience of the Franco-German War; Russell, My Diary during the last great War; Rüstow, The War for the Rhine Frontier in 1870; Borbstädt, The Franco-German War; Hooper, The Campaign of Sedan; Labouchere, Diary of the Besieged Resident in

Paris; Bingham, Journal of the Siege of Paris; Duquet, La Guerre 1870-71; Chuquet, Le général Chanzy (1823-1883), and La Guerre 1870-71: Bazaine, L'Armée du Rhin, and Episodes de la guerre de 1870 et le blocus de Metz; Jarras, Souvenirs; Mazade, La guerre de France, and Monsieur Thiers; Trochu, L'Empire et la défense de Paris, and Œuvres posthumes; Chanzv, Mémoires; Villefranche, Histoire du général Chanzy; Ducrot, La défense de Paris; Lehautcourt, Le siège de Paris; D'Heylli, Journal du siège de Paris; Rothan, L'Allemagne et l'Italie, 1870-71 : Hippeau. Histoire diplomatique de la troisième république française: Andlau. Metz; D'Abrantes, Essai sur la régence de 1870 ; Palikao, Un ministère de la guerre de vingt-quatre jours; Jules Favre, Le gouvernement de la Défense nationale; Claretie, Histoire de la révolution de 1870-71; Jules Simon, Mémoires, Souvenirs du 4 Septembre, and Le gouvernement de M. Thiers; Glas-Bizoin, Dictature de cinq mois ; Valfrey, Histoire de la diplomatie du gouvernement de la Défense nationale ; Maquest, La France et l'Europe pendant le siège de Paris; Duret, Histoire de quatre ans; Busch, Our Chancellor, and Bismarck in the Franco-German War; Moltke Geschichte des deutsch-französischen Krieges von 1870-71, and Militärische Correspondenz; Hanneken, Bazaine un die Kapitulation von Metz; Blume, Operations of the German armies in France; Sybel, Der Frieden von 1871; March. History of the Paris Commune of 1871; Du Camp, Les convulsions de Paris; Arnould, Histoire de la Commune; and Lissagaray, Histoire de la Commune, translated by Aveling.

A full bibliography is contained in *Palat*, Bibliographie générale de la guerre de 1870-71.

LECTURE 85.

EUROPE AFTER THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR: THE DREIKAISERBUND.

Condition of Germany after the successful conclusion of the Franco-Prussian War; enthusiasm felt for a union achieved on the field of battle, economic effect of the war indemnity paid by France; creation of a national German coinage; the reconstitution of the North German Confederation as the German Empire; the Bundesrath increased by six voices for Bavaria, four for Würtemberg, two for Baden, and two for Hesse-Darmstadt; the Reichstag increased by additional representatives from the South German states, chosen in the ratio of one deputy to each one hundred thousand of population.

In spite of the triumph of national unity, particularism made itself felt in the Reichstag; though the German princes remained true to the Empire, the Polish, Schleswig, and Hanoverian deputies formed separate and irreconcilable parties, while Alsace-Lorraine refused to elect any deputies until 1874.

The administration of Alsace-Lorraine (Elsass-Lothringen); its organization as a *Reichsland*, or territory of the Empire (1879); its governors, Manteuffel (1879-85) and Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst (1885-94).

The reorganization of France; by the policy of Thiers and the financial skill of Pouyer-Quertier, the war indemnity was paid; France finally evacuated by the German army (16 Sept., 1873).

The Constituent Assembly at Versailles: the position of parties; the majority consisted of monarchists and ultramontanes; deliberate tardiness shown in drawing up a new constitution for France; pending its adoption, the presidency of Thiers was renewed (31 Aug., 1871).

The majority of the Assembly, which favored monarchy, divided into Legitimist, Orleanist, and Bonapartist parties, and therefore unable to agree upon a king or emperor; increasing influence of the republican minority, led by Gambetta, in France.

The monarchical majority in the Assembly forced Thiers to resign (24 May, 1873), and elected MacMahon to the temporary presidency of the Republic; the administration of the Duc de Broglie (b. 1821); he prepared the way for the restoration of monarchy by appointing antirepublican préfets and officials; fusion of the Legitimist and Orleanist parties; the Comte de Paris (b. 1838, d. 1894), grandson of Louis Philippe, recognized the Comte de Chambord (b. 1820, d. 1883), grandson of Charles X., as the legitimate king, regarding himself as next heir to the throne as the representative of hereditary, not of parliamentary, monarchy (5 Aug., 1873); the impracticable character of the Comte de Chambord; his refusal to abandon the white flag or to make any recognition of parliamentary institutions (27 Oct.); the cause of the Comte de Chambord abandoned by the Duc de Broglie and the parliamentary monarchists; election of MacMahon as President of the French Republic for seven years (19 Nov.).

Completion of the French Constitution (25 Feb., 1875): its conservative nature; the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies; the presi-

dency to be held for seven years and the President to be elected not by popular vote, but by a joint ballot of the two Chambers; the working of parliamentary government in France; frequent changes of ministry, the result of the existence of parliamentary groups instead of well-defined parties.

Condition of Spain: election of Amadeus (b. 1845, d. 1890), second son of Victor Emmanuel, to be King of Spain (16 Nov., 1870); assassination of Marshal Prim (30 Dec.); Amadeus commenced his reign (2 Jan., 1871); Don Carlos (b. 1848), grandson of the first Don Carlos, raised a rebellion in the northern provinces (1872); the Carlist War not discouraged in the southern provinces of France, owing to the monarchical character of the Constituent Assembly and its desire to please the Comte de Chambord; difficult position of Amadeus; his resignation of the throne of Spain (11 Feb., 1873).

Proclamation of a Spanish Republic (11 Feb., 1873); Emilio Castelar (b. 1832, d. 1899) elected President (9 Sept.); General Pavia dissolved the Cortes by armed force (3 Jan., 1874); Serrano assumed the presidency (3 Jan.); the "intransigente" insurrection suppressed at Cartagena (12 Jan.).

Pronunciamento of Martinez Campos (29 Dec., 1874); overthrow of Serrano; Alfonso XII., only son of Queen Isabella, recognized as King of Spain (31 Dec.); suppression of the Carlist rebellion completed (March, 1876).

The political situation in Italy: the government transferred from Florence to Rome (1871); the difficulties in the way of building up a national government based upon parliamentary institutions; particularism; hostility of the Papacy; the Right, or conservative party, in power under Lanza (1869-73) and Minghetti (1873-76); the Left, or radical party, admitted to office under Depretis (Feb., 1876); the influence of Victor Emmanuel.

The attitude of the Papacy towards European politics since the formation of the Kingdom of Italy: Pius IX. and Cardinal Antonelli, his Secretary of State, refused to recognize the new order of things; their religious policy; meeting of an Œcumenical Council, the first since the Council of Trent, held at Rome (Dec., 1869–Oct., 1870); effect on the Papacy of the conquest of Rome and its recognition as the capital of the Kingdom of Italy (1870).

Increased power given to the Catholic Church in Germany by the absorption of the South German states into the Empire; Bismarck's dislike of Ultramontanism, which he regarded as impairing the spirit of national unity; owing to the strength of the Ultramontane party in the Reichstag, Bismarck attacked the Roman Catholic Church in Prussia only, where the Protestants had a majority in the Landtag; the Kulturkampf; laws passed, restraining the power of the Catholic Church (1872–1876), especially the May Laws (11–14 May 1873); expulsion of the Jesuits from Prussia (4 July, 1872); attitude of Pope Pius IX.; protests of the South German states, and especially of Bavaria, against Bismarck's anti-Catholic policy.

The foreign policy of Bismarck: his aim to prevent France from obtaining any allies in Europe; he remained on friendly terms with Russia, whose Tsar, Alexander II., was the nephew and friend of the Emperor William, but suspected the Russian Chancellor, Gorchákov; being unwilling to trust entirely to Russia, he looked for other allies; England under Gladstone (1868–74) refused to interfere in Continental politics; Bismarck therefore entered into close relations with Austria.

The position of Austria: discontent of the Slavs with the Dual Constitution; Russia encouraged the Pan-Slavic idea, and, therefore, in spite of the memory of Sadowa, the Emperor Francis Joseph was ready to enter into alliance with the Emperor William; dismissal of the Austrian Chancellor Beust, the enemy of Prussia (8 Nov., 1871); he was succeeded as Minister of Foreign Affairs by Andrassy (b. 1823, d. 1890).

Formation of the Dreikaiserbund, or Alliance of the Three Emperors, of Germany, Russia, and Austria (Sept., 1872); comparison between the Dreikaiserbund and the Holy Alliance; its aims: (1) to maintain the *status quo* in Europe; (2) to act in harmony on the Eastern Question; (3) to oppose the progress of revolutionary, Socialist, and Nihilist movements.

Triumphant position of Bismarck; he became the dictator of Europe, as Metternich formerly had been; characteristics of his diplomacy.

Authorities: Müller, Kaiser Wilhelm; Hahn, Wilhelm, der erste Kaiser des neuen deutschen Reichs; Oncken, Das Zeitalter des Kaisers Wilhelm; Simon, L'Empereur Guillaume et son règne; Forbes, William of Germany; Heigel,

König Ludwig II. von Bayern; Lowe, Life of Bismarck; Busch, Our Chancellor; Hahn, Fürst Bismarck; Kohl, Fürst Bismarck; Müller, Reichskanzler Fürst Bismarck; Simon, Histoire du prince de Bismarck; Klaczko, The Two Chancellors; Mohl, Das deutsche Staatsrecht; Whitman, Germany; Blum, Das deutsche Reich zur zeit Bismarck's; Hahn, Geschichte des Kulturkampfes im Preussen; Schulte, Geschichte des Kulturkampfes in Preussen; Wiermann, Geschichte des Kulturkampses; Lefebvre de Béhaine, Léon XIII. et le prince de Bismarck; Pressensé, La politique religieuse de la Prusse; Véron, Histoire de l'Allemagne depuis Sadowa; Zévort, Histoire de la troisième république; Jules Simon, Le gouvernement de M. Thiers; Doniol, M. Thiers (1871-1873); Chesnelong, La campagne monarchique d'Octobre 1873; Daudet, La vérité sur l'essai de restauration en 1873; Du Barail, Mes souvenirs; Broglie, La mission de M. de Gontaut-Biron à Berlin (1872-78); Séché, Jules Simon, sa vie, son temps, son œuvre (1814-96); Hippeau, Histoire diplomatique de la troisième république; Chaudordy, La France et la suite de la guerre de 1870-71; Gambetta, Discours; Rogge, Œsterreich von Világos bis zur Gegenwart (1849-73); Beust, Memoirs; Houghton, Origin of the Restoration of the Bourbons in Spain; Valras, Don Carlos VII. et l'Espagne Carliste, and Gallenga, Iberian Reminiscences.

LECTURE 86.

THE EASTERN QUESTION: THE RUSSO-TURKISH WAR, 1877-78.

Condition of the Turkish Empire during the latter years of the Sultan Abdul Aziz: increasing weakness of the civil and financial administration; the pledges given after the Crimean War for the more tolerant government of the Christians broken; relying on the protection of the Western Powers, all reforms were refused.

Attitude of the Sultan towards Egypt: increased importance of that country to England after the completion of the Suez Canal (17 Nov., 1869); the title of Khedive made hereditary by primogeniture in the family of Mehemet Ali (27 May, 1866); the power of the Khedive in local affairs increased (June, 1867); the two previous grants confirmed and the Khedive allowed to make treaties with foreign powers and to maintain an army (June, 1873).

Continued interest taken by Russia in the Eastern Question: the Tsar Alexander II., having freed himself from the restrictions of the

Treaty of Paris (1871), desired to intervene on behalf of the Christian subjects of the Sultan; by pursuing vigorously the classic policy of Russia he hoped to counteract the growth of Nihilism.

The progress of Russia in Central Asia: the Khan of Khiva forced to cede a large part of his territories and to acknowledge the suzerainty of the Tsar (24 Aug., 1873); Khokand annexed (14 Mar., 1876); Russian intrigues in Afghanistan; gradual advance towards the frontiers of British India.

Growth of the Pan-Slavic idea in Russia: the writings of Katkov (b. 1818, d. 1887).

Character and policy of Alexander Gorchákov (b. 1798, d. 1883), Minister of Foreign Affairs (29 Apr., 1856-3 Apr., 1882).

Attitude of Europe towards the Eastern Question: England, where Disraeli (b. 1804, d. 1881) succeeded Gladstone (1874), was apprehensive of the Russian advance on India and Constantinople; purchase of the Khedive's Suez Canal shares (25 Nov., 1875); Austrian jealousy of Russian interference in southeastern Europe, and dislike of the Pan-Slavic propaganda; France too much occupied with internal disputes to interfere; Bismarck's declaration that the Eastern Question "is not worth the bones of a Pomeranian grenadier."

Outbreak of insurrection among the Christians of Bosnia and Herzegovina (July, 1875); encouraged by Prince Milan of Servia and Prince Nicholas of Montenegro; the condition of Servia; adoption of a representative constitution (1869); the position in Montenegro; Daniel, the founder of the dynasty, succeeded by his nephew, Nicholas (1860), who fomented disturbances against the Turkish government in the neighboring provinces.

The Great Powers presented a joint note to the Sultan (31 Jan., 1876), demanding reforms and religious liberty for the people of Bosnia and Herzegovina; the Tsar Alexander forbade the Turks to attack Servia or Montenegro; the Dreikaiserbund threatened the Turks with punishment, if reforms were not granted (12 May); refusal of England to act with the other powers (19 May).

Excitement among the Muhammadan population in the Turkish dominions; policy of Midhat Pasha; palace revolution (30 May, 1876); overthrow and subsequent murder of Abdul Aziz; Murad V. proclaimed Sultan.

Prince Milan of Servia declared war against the Turks (30 June, 1876); the Servian army organized and commanded by Russian officers under Chernaiev; Prince Nicholas of Montenegro declared war against the Turks (2 July); the insurgents in Bosnia and Herzegovina declared those provinces annexed to Servia and Montenegro.

Excitement in Turkey; defeat of the Servians (July-Sept.); "the Bulgarian massacres"; intervention of the Great Powers in the name of humanity (1 Sept., 1876).

Deposition of Murad V. and accession of Abdul Hamid II. (31 Aug., 1876); the Porte promised reform, and the creation of a Turkish parliament; illusory nature of this step; Ignatiev, the Russian ambassador, presented an ultimatum to the Sultan demanding the effective protection of the Christians in Turkey (31 Oct.).

Conference of the Great Powers at Constantinople (12 Dec., 1876-20 Jan., 1877); the Sultan refused to grant the demands made of him (18 Jan.); overthrow of Midhat Pasha (5 Feb.).

Russia and the Turks prepared for war; military enthusiasm in both countries; peace signed between Servia and the Sultan (28 Feb.).

The Tsar declared war against the Turks (24 Apr., 1877).

The campaign of 1877: Loris Melikov (b. 1826, d. 1888) advanced into Armenia, and the main Russian army under the Tsar traversed Romania, crossed the Danube and invaded Bulgaria; the Balkans reached and the Shipka Pass seized by Gurko; successes of the Turks; retreat of Loris Melikov and check of the main Russian army by Osman Pasha (b. 1832) at Plevna; reinforcement of the Russian armies; assistance rendered by the Romanians; Loris Melikov took Kars (18 Nov.), and Todleben stormed Plevna (10 Dec.); the Russian advance on Constantinople; passage of the Balkans (Jan., 1878); defeat of the Turkish armies; achievements of Gurko (b. 1828), and of Skobelev (b. 1843, d. 1882); occupation of Adrianople (20 Jan.); an English fleet entered the Dardanelles; Convention of Adrianople (31 Jan., 1878); conclusion of an armistice; the English fleet anchored before Constantinople (13 Feb.).

Treaty of San Stefano (3 Mar., 1878) between Russia and Turkey: the Turks agreed to the entire independence of Romania, Servia and Montenegro with some extension of their territories; to the creation of

a principality of Bulgaria, and to the grant to Bosnia and Herzegovina of the reforms demanded by the Conference of Constantinople, with autonomy; Russia received Kars and Batum and the retrocession of Bessarabia from Romania in exchange for the territory ceded to Romania by Turkey; by this treaty the power of the Turks in Europe would have been practically destroyed.

General alarm in Europe: protest of Austria against the increase of the power of Russia; demand of England, where Salisbury (b. 1830) succeeded Derby as Foreign Minister (2 Apr., 1878), that the Treaty of San Stefano be submitted to a Congress of the Powers; England made a secret convention with the Turks (4 June), by which she received Cyprus and the charge of defending the dominions of Turkey in Asia; Bismarck declared himself "an honest broker".

The Congress of Berlin (13 June-13 July, 1878): the representatives present were: for Germany, Bismarck, Bülow and Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst; for Austria, Andrassy, Károlyi and Haymerlé; for Russia, Gorchákov, Shuválov and Oubril; for England, Beaconsfield, Salisbury and Odo Russell; for France, Waddington, Saint-Vallier and Desprez; for Italy, Corti and De Launay; and for Turkey, Caratheodori Pasha, Sadullah Bey and Mehemet Ali Pasha.

By the Congress of Berlin the Treaty of San Stefano was modified: Russia retained the accessions of territory she had then received; Servia, Montenegro and Romania were recognized as independent states and received small additions of territory; Austria was entrusted with the government of Bosnia and Herzegovina; the large principality of Bulgaria, as defined by the Treaty of San Stefano, was replaced by a small principality of Bulgaria, under Turkish suzerainty, and a semi-independent Turkish province of Eastern Roumelia, while Macedonia remained part of the Turkish Empire; Greece received an extension of frontier in Thessaly and Epirus.

Disgust of Alexander II. and Gorchákov at the proceedings of the Congress of Berlin, but Russia was too exhausted by the war to undertake active opposition: particular resentment felt by Alexander and Gorchákov towards Bismarck, whom they declared wanting in gratitude for the services Russia had rendered to Prussia in 1866 and 1870; practical dissolution of the Dreikaiserbund, or Alliance of the Three Emperors.

Authorities: Most of the books cited under Lecture 83 deal also with the period of the Russo-Turkish War; but see also Léouzon-Leduc, L'Empereur Alexandre II.; Bamberg, Geschichte der orientalische Frage; Gallenga, Two Years of the Eastern Question; Vambéry, Central Asia and the Anglo-Russian Frontier Question, and The Coming Struggle for India; Hellwald, The Russians in Central Asia; Rawlinson, England and Russia in the East; Popowski, Rival Powers in Central Asia; Liwof, Michel Katkof et son époque; Leroy-Beaulieu, La France, la Russie et l'Europe; Wyrouboff, La Question d'Orient et le Traité de Berlin; Rogge, Æsterreich seit der Katastrophe Hohenwart-Beust, (1873-78); Rüstow, Der orientalische Krieg in den Jahren 1877 und 1878; Le Faure, Histoire de la guerre d'Orient, 1877-78; Farcy, La guerre sur le Danube, 1877-78; Greene, The Russo-Turkish War; Hozier, The Russo-Turkish War; Baker, The War in Bulgaria; Williams, The Armenian Campaign; Daily News, War Correspondence, 1877-78; Gay, Plevna, the Sultan and the Porte; Bacarescu, Rumänien's Antheil am Kriege, 1877-78, and Brunswick, Le Traité de Berlin.

LECTURE 87.

EUROPE TO 1890: THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

In his fear of the resentment of Russia for his attitude at the Congress of Berlin, Bismarck drew closer to Austria and signed an offensive and defensive alliance with the Emperor Francis Joseph (7 Oct., 1879); this alliance, when joined in 1882 by Italy, became the Triple Alliance, which agreed to check the desire of France to recover Alsace and Lorraine, and the attempts of Russia to reopen the Eastern Question; from the accession of the Tsar Alexander III. (1881) until the end of the administration of Bismarck (1890), the Triple Alliance was on more or less friendly terms with Russia, dominated Europe, and maintained peace; frequent interchange of royal visits.

Germany: internal policy of Bismarck; after the death of Pope Pius IX. and the election of Pope Leo XIII. (1878), Bismarck softened the application of the May Laws (1880–87), and entered into negotiations with the Papacy; end of the Kulturkampf (1887); Bismarck and Socialism; his legislation against the Socialists; relations between Prussia and the other German states; Bismarck's colonial policy; death of the Emperor William I. (9 Mar., 1888); death of his successor, the Em-

peror Frederick (15 June); accession of the Emperor William II. (b. 1859); his character and policy.

Russia: assassination of the Tsar Alexander II. (13 Mar., 1881); the reign of the Tsar Alexander III. (1881-94); his character and policy; Gorchákov succeeded by De Giers (3 Apr., 1882) as Minister of Foreign Affairs; relations with Turkey and the Balkan States; progress of Russia in Central Asia; annexation of Merv (11 Feb., 1884); the affair of Penjdeh (30 Mar., 1885); war with England averted; the Trans-Caspian and Trans-Siberian railroads; Russian finance; De Witte (b. 1849); internal affairs; Nihilism.

France: MacMahon, President of the French Republic (1873-79), Jules Grévy (1879-87), and Sadi Carnot (1887-94); desire to recover Alsace and Lorraine; the second ministry of the Duc de Broglie (17 May-20 Nov., 1877); he made another fruitless effort to restore the monarchy; since his overwhelming defeat at the elections of 14 Oct, 1877, the government of France has been frankly republican; the influence of Gambetta; struggle with the Catholic Church similar to Bismarck's Kulturkampf (1879-81); death of Gambetta (31 Dec., 1882); banishment of the Orleanist and Bonapartist princes (22 June, 1886); the Panama Canal scandal; Boulanger (b. 1837, d. 1891); the Centenary of 1789 and Paris Exposition (1889); material prosperity of France, but increasing discredit of parliamentary government; frequent changes of ministry; France in Africa, Madagascar and the Farther East.

Italy: death of Victor Emmanuel and accession of Humbert (9 Jan., 1878); death of Pope Pius IX. (7 Feb., 1878) and election of Leo XIII. —Pecci—(20 Feb.); death of Garibaldi (2 June, 1882); relations between the Italian kingdom and the Papacy; "Italia irredenta"; colonial policy; attempt to occupy the Abyssinian coast of the Red Sea; financial distress of Italy; the ministries of Depretis (b. 1813, d. 1887) and Crispi (b. 1819), Italy as a member of the Triple Alliance.

Austro-Hungary: the dual monarchy; its failure to promote a national patriotism; the selfish policy of the Magyars; discontent of the Czechs and Slavs; wise policy of the Emperor Francis Joseph, whose personality has held the Empire together; his share in the Triple Alliance; Andrassy, State Chancellor (1871-79), Haymerlé (1879-81)

and Kalnoky (1881–95); relations with Turkey and the Balkan States; the Austrian administration of Bosnia; the ministries of Taaffe (b. 1833, d. 1895) in Austria, and of Tisza (b. 1830) in Hungary.

Sweden and Norway: reigns of Marshal Bernadotte under the title of Charles John XIV. (1818-44), of Oscar I. (1844-59), of Charles XV. (1859-72) and of Oscar II. (1872-); opposition in Norway to the dual monarchy; democratic and republican ideas of the Norwegians; since 1815 Sweden has ceased to play a prominent part in European politics.

Denmark: reign of Christian IX. (1863-); constitutional struggles; his relations with Russia and England.

The Netherlands: death of William III. (23 Nov., 1890); succeeded in the Netherlands by his daughter, Wilhelmina (b. 1880), and in Luxemburg by Adolphus, Duke of Nassau.

Belgium: character and policy of Leopold II. (1865-); his interest in the Congo Free State.

Spain: death of Alfonso XII. (25 Nov., 1885); succeeded by his son, Alfonso XIII. (b. 17 May, 1886), under the regency of his widow, Maria Christina; the ministries of Canovas del Castillo (b. 1828, d. 1897) and of Sagasta (b. 1827).

Portugal: reigns of Pedro V. (1853-61), Luis I. (1861-89) and Charles I. (1889-); the career of Saldanha (b. 1791, d. 1876); growing spirit of nationality; financial troubles.

Switzerland: growth of republican and democratic ideas.

The Eastern Question after the Russo-Turkish War: attitude of Russia, England and the Triple Alliance; danger of European war arising out of the situation in Bulgaria.

Turkey: the Sultan Abdul Hamid II.; his personal government; introduction of Western ideas; clever foreign policy.

Greece: reign of George I.; action of Greece during the Russo-Turkish War; Thessaly given to Greece by the Congress of Berlin and occupied (1881); desire to annex Crete and Macedonia.

Romania declared an independent kingdom and Prince Charles proclaimed king (26 Mar., 1881); development of parliamentary government; John Brateano (b. 1822, d. 1891); "Romania irredenta."

Montenegro: Prince Nicholas; his close relations with Russia; the addi-

tional territory, including the port of Antivari, granted by the Congress of Berlin, transferred by the Turks under the pressure of the Great Powers (1881.)

Servia: proclamation of Prince Milan as king (6 Mar., 1882); war with Bulgaria (1885); abdication of Milan (6 Mar., 1889) in favor of his son, Alexander I. (b. 1876).

Bulgaria: Alexander of Battenberg elected Prince of Bulgaria (29 Apr., 1879); general uprising in Eastern Roumelia (18 Sept., 1885) and declaration of its union with Bulgaria; Servia declared war against Bulgaria (14 Nov.); victories of Prince Alexander at Slivnitza (16–19 Nov.); armistice signed (21 Dec.); Prince Alexander forced to abdicate and withdraw from Bulgaria (3 Sept., 1886); power and influence of the Regent Stambulov (b. 1855, d. 1895); he secured the election of Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, as Prince of Bulgaria (7 July, 1887), but continued in power as Prime Minister; disapproval by the Great Powers, especially Russia, of events in Bulgaria.

Egypt: the rivalry of England and France in the Mediterranean: dual control established over the government of Egypt, which was practically bankrupt (1878); deposition of the Khedive Ismail (26 June. 1879); Arabi Pasha raised an insurrection against the new Khedive, Tewfik (1881); riot in Alexandria (11 June, 1882); England intervened, bombarded Alexandria (11 July), overthrew Arabi Pasha in the battle of Tel-el-Kebir (13 Sept.), and maintained a garrison in Egypt; opposition of France and protests of the Sultan; first appearance of the Mahdi in the Sudan in the summer of 1881; his destruction of two Egyptian armies under Hicks Pasha (3-6 Nov., 1883), and under Baker Pasha (4 Feb., 1884); England undertook to defend Egypt against the Mahdi; return of Gordon Pasha (b. 1834) to Khartum (Feb., 1884); expedition of Wolseley to relieve Khartum (Sept., 1884-July, 1885); fall of Khartum and murder of Gordon (26 Jan., 1885); the Mahdi complete master of the Sudan; his death (21 June); desultory warfare carried on against his successor, the Khalifa; organization of a new administrative and judicial system in Egypt under English supervision; the work of Sir Evelyn Baring, Lord Cromer (b. 1840).

Africa: France established a protectorate over Tunis (12 May, 1881); the Germans occupied Angra Pequena on the west coast of Africa (2

May, 1883); Massowah, on the Red Sea, occupied by the Italians (6 Feb., 1885); interest in the Congo region of Leopold, King of the Belgians, who called for a conference on Africa, which met at Berlin (15 Nov., 1884–26 Feb., 1885); the Conference, in the General Act of 24 Feb., 1885, decided that occupation of territory, in order to be recognized, must be effective, established a free trade zone, and required the suppression of the slave trade and slavery; another result of the Conference was the establishment of the Congo Free State under the sovereignty of Leopold II.; rapid progress of the partition of Africa; the Brussels Conference (18 Nov., 1889–2 July, 1890) took further measures to suppress the slave trade and regulated the sale of fire-arms and spirituous liquors to the natives; the work of Stanley (b. 1841).

Bismarck, the dominant force in European politics of this decade; effect upon his position of the death of the Emperors William I. and Frederick; his disagreement with the Emperor William II.

Attempts to form a Franco-Russian Alliance to oppose the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria and Italy.

Dismissal of Bismarck (17 Mar., 1890); retrospect of his twenty years' dictatorship over Europe.

Authorities: The events described in this lecture are too recent to permit of satisfactory historical treatment, but contemporary accounts of all the events may be found in the Annual Register and in Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia, while general accounts are to be found in Dilke, Present Position of European Politics, published in 1887, and in Seignobos, Histoire politique de l'Europe contemporaine (1814-96). Reference may be made to a few special works, such as: Daudet, Histoire diplomatique de l'alliance Franco-Russe (1873-1893); Leroy-Beaulieu, La France, la Russie, et l'Europe ; Lefebvre de Béhaine, Léon XIII. et le prince de Bismarck; Philippson, Friedrich III. als Krouprinz und Kaiser; Rodd, Frederick, Crown Prince and Emperor; Morrison, Russia under Alexander III.; Lowe, Alexander III. of Russia; Krausse, Russia in Asia; Zévort, Histoire de la troisième république: Leconte, Les ralliés, histoire d'un parti, 1886-1898; Stillman, Francesco Crispi; Smith, Memoirs of Saldanha; King Charles of Romania, Aus dem Leben, Aufzeichnungen und Augenzeugen; Sergeant, Greece in the Nineteenth Century; Bérard, La Turquie et l'Hellénisme contemporaine; Laveleye, The Balkan Peninsula; Huhn, The Struggle of the Bulgarians for National Independence under Prince Alexander; Milner, England in Egypt; Traill, Lord Cromer; Hake, Journals of Gordon at Khartum; and Keltie, The Partition of Africa.

APPENDIX



APPENDIX I.

THE RULERS OF EUROPE.

1600-1899.

THE GREAT POWERS.

Names of Ministers,—not necessarily Prime Ministers or State Chancellors—but most important Ministers,—in Italics.

Russia.	Boris Goddmov (since 1598). (False Dmitri). Vasili Shuinski. (The "Troublous Times").	Michael Románov.	Alexis.
Brandenburg: after 1701, Prussia; after 1871 also German Emperors.	Elizabeth (since 1598). Lerma. (since 1598). Since 1598). James I. John Sigismund. (The "Troublous Trimes").		Alexis.
. Spain.	Philip III. (since 1598). Lerma.	IV. ivares.	
Great Britain.	Elizabeth (since 1558). James I.	Charles I. Luis de Haro.	
France.		De Luynes (to 1621). Richelieu. Mazarin (to 1661). Louis XIV. ANNE OF AUSTRIA, REGENT (to 1651).	
Emperors, Holy Roman Empire : Austria.	1600 Rudolph II. (since 1589). Henry IV. (since 1589). Sully. 1603. 1605. 1606. 1606. 1606. 1601. 1601. 1601. 1610. MARIE DE MEDICIS, REGENT (to 1617). 1612.	1613	1645

Russia.		Feodor II. [Ivan V.	Peter I. (alone).	
Brandenburg: after 1701, Prussia; after 1871 also German Emperors.		Frederick III. (after 1701 Frederick I., King of Prussia).	Prussia.	Frederick I. Frederick Villiam I.
Spain.	Charles II. Donna Marianna, REGENT (to 1675).	Don John (to 1679). Medina Cali. Oropesa (to 1690).	Philip V.	
Great Britain.	Commonwealth. Oliver Cromwell. Richard Cromwell. Charles II. Clarendon.	Danby (to 1679). James II.	Mary II. William III. (alone.)	Anne. Godolphin. Harley.
France.				
Emperors, Holy Roman Empire: after 1886, Austria.	1649 1653 1658 Leopold I. 1665	6891 5890 6891 6891 6891 6891 6891 6891	1694 1696 1700	1701 1702

Emperors, Holy Roman Empire: after 1806, Austria.	France.	Great Britain.	Spain.	Prussia.	, Russia.
1714		George I Alberoni (to 1719).	Alberoni (to 1719).		
1715 Louis A.V. Orleans, (forza)	Cours AV. ORLEANS, REGENT				
1717		Stanhope.			
	Bourbon.	v ar pore.	1 1		,
	•		Philip V. (again).		
			vipper uu.		Menchikon
1726. 1727	Fleury (to 1743).	George II	Patiño (to 1736).		Peter II. Anne.
1740 (Maria Theresa succeeds to the Aus-				Frederick II	Biren. Ivan VI.
trian dominions). 1741 1742 Charles VII (Elec-			Campillo.		ANNE, REGENT. Elizabeth. Bestushev.
tor of Bavaria). 1743. 1744	D' Argenson (to	Carteret, to 1744). Pelham.	La Ensenada.		
1745 Francis I. (husband of Maria Theresa).	1747).		Ferdinand VI.		
1753 Kannitz. 1754		Newcastle	Wall (to 1763).	Hertzberg.	4
1757 Bernis	Bernis	(with Pitt). (with Pitt)			
1758	Choiseul	• •	Charles III.	:	M. Vorbnisov.

Russia.	Peter III. Catherine II. Panin.	Paul I.	
Prussia.		Fred'k. William II. Schulenburg. Haugwitz.	
Spain.	Aranda. Florida Blanca.	Charles IV. Aranda Godoy.	e e
Great Britain.	George III. (Pitt resigns). Bute G. Grenville. Rockingham. Graffon. North. Rockingham.	Portland. W. Pitt.	•
France.	5.		Consulate.
Emperors, Holy Roman Empire: after 1866, Austria.	1760 1761 1763 1765 1765 1765 1770 1777 1774 1776 1776 1780 1781 1781 1781 1781 1782 1780 1781 1781 1781 1781 1781 1781 1781 1781 1782 1783 1784 1783 1784 1784 1784 1785 1786 1786 1787 1787 1788	aft 18 mper p.194	:

(296)

Russia.	Alexander I. A. Vorontsov. Czartoryski		Budberg. Rumiantsov.			Nesselrode.					Nicholas I.	
Prussia.	Hardenberg.		Haugwilz (Feb.) . Hardenberg(Nov.) Stein .		Hardenberg (to 1822).		-		Bernstorff.			
Spain.				Joseph Bonaparte.			Ferdinand VII.	ī				
Great Britain.	Addington		Grenville Portland	Perceval.		GEORGE, PRINCE REGENT. Liverpool	Cashereagn, F. S.		George IV.	Canning, For. S.	Canning, Prime M.	Wellington.
France.	Addington. Napoleon, Emperor Pill.						Louis XVIII., King	Or France. Napoleon, (again). Louis XVIII.(again)	Decazes Richelieu	Charles X., King of France.		Martignac
Emperors, Holy Roman Empire: after 1886, Austria.	1801 Cobenzl	Austria.	1806 Francis I	1808								
Hol	1801 C 1802 . 1804 .		1806	1808.	97)	1811.	1814.	1815.	1818. 1820.	1822	1825	1828 .

Russia.	V-	Alexander II. Gorchâkov.
Prussia.	Ancillon (to 1837).	Frederick Wm IV. Brandenburg. Manteuffel. WILLIAM, REGENT. Hohenzollern. William I. Bismarck.
Spain.	I-abella II. Christina, RGT.	ESPARTERO, RGT. (to 1843). Narvaez. Pacheco. Narvaez. Murillo. Espartero. Narvaez. O'Donnell. Narvaez.
Great Britain.	William IV. Grey. Melbourne (Ju'y) Peel (Dec.). Melbourne.	Victoria. Peel. Russell Derby (Feb.). Aberdeen (Dec.). Palmersion. Derby. Raussell Kaussell Derby
France.	Louis Philippe, K. of the French. Laffitle. Revier. Cassmir, Périer. Soull.	Thiers. Mole Guizot Guizot Louis Napoleon, Prince President. Napoleon III. Emp. Drouyn de Lhuys. Thouvenel. Thouvenel. Drouyn de Lhuys.
Austria.	1830	1836 1841 1840 1841 1841 1841 1841 1844 1844

Russia.			Alexander III. De Giers.	Nicholas II. Lobánov. Muraviev.
Prussia.		Germany.	William I., Emp.	Hohenlohe
Spain.	Provisional Government: Serrano, Prim and Topete. SERRANO, REGENT. Amadeus I.		Castelar, President. Serrano, President. Anfonso, XII. Canovas del Castillo Martinez Campos. Canovas del Castillo. Sagasta. Canovas del Castillo. Sagasta. CHRISTINA, RG'T. (Nov.). Alfonso XIII. (May)	Sagasta. Canovas del Castillo. Sagasta
Great Britain.	Disraeli (Feb.). Gladsione (Dec.)		Feb.).	Gladslone. Rosebery. Salisbury.
France.	La Valette		Thiers, President. MacMahon, Pres't. Grévy, President.	Casimir Périer, Pres. Faure, President. Loubet, President.
Austria.	1867 Beust. 1868		ndrassy (aymerlé alnoky)	1895 1895 1897 1897 1899

APPENDIX II.

THE RULERS OF EUROPE. 1600-1899.

THE LESSER POWERS.

Names of Ministers,—not necessarily Prime Ministers or State Chancellors—but most important Ministers,—in Italies.

Catholic Netherlands. Governors under Spain.	Archduke Albert, Infanta Isabella (since 1599).	Infanta Isabell a (alone).			Cardinal-Infant Ferdinand,	Francisco de Mello. Marquis of Castel	Archduke Leopold.
Protestant Netherlands. Princes of Orange-Nassau,	Philip William (since 1584), but not Stadtholder.	Maurice (Stadt- holder since 1587).		Frederick Henry (Stadtholder).	:		William II (Stadtholder).
Portugal.	(United to Spain since 1580).	:		•	Tohn IV		:
Turkey.	Muhammad III. (since 1595). Ahmad I.	Mustapha I. Othman II	Mustapha I. (again). Murad IV.		Thrahim Tohn IV		:
Poland.	Sigismund III., Vasa (since 1587).			Tadislac VII	. :		
Denmark.	Christian IV. (since 1588).				• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		
Sweden.	1600 Sigismund, King of Poland (since 1592).		1624.) 1622	1625	1633	1641	1647

Catholic Netherlands. Governors under Spain.		Archduke John. Marquis of Fro-	miata. Marquis of Castel	Duke of Feria.	Ct. of Monterey.	mosa.	Alexander Farnese of Parma. Marquis of Casta-	Maximilian Em- manuel, (Elector of Bavaria).
Protestant Netherlands. Princes of Orange; Nassau.	Wm. III. (Stadt- holder 1672, K. of G. B., 1689.).							:
Portugal.	:	Affonso VI.		DOM PEDRO, REGENT.		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Pedro II	
Turkey.	Muhammad IV.	Muhammad Kiuprili.	Ahmad Kiuprili			Kara Mustapha		Sulaiman II. Mustapha Kiu- prili (to 1691). Alimad II.
Poland.	John Casimir.			•	Michl Koributh Vichnevetski. John Sobieski.			
Denmark.	Frederick III.	:			Christian V			
Sweden.	1648	1654 Charles X. 1656	1660 Charles XI.	1668	1679	1676	1678	1689

(301)

Catholic Netherlands. Governors under Spain.	Marquis of Bedmar. Elector of Bavaria (again).	(Council of State). (Conseil de la Con- férence).	Governors under Austria. Count of Königsegeg, Frince Bugene of Savoy.	Archduchess Maria Elizabeth.	Ct. Fred. von Harrach-Rohrau. Archduchess Maria Anna and Charles of Lorraine.
Protestant Netherlands. Princes of Orange-Nassau.	William IV (Stadtholder, 1747).				
Portugal.		Јоћп V		•	
Turkey.	Mustapha II. Hussain Kiu- prili (to 1702).	: :		Mahmud I.	
Poland.	AugustusI. (Elector of Saxony).	Stan. Leczinski Aug. I. (again).	- :	Aug. II. (Elector	of Saxony).
Denmark.	Frederick IV.			Christian VI	
Sweden.	1695 Charles XII 1699 1701 1703	1704 1706 1709 1710	1714	1719 Ulrica Eleanor and Fred'k I. 172,	1741 Fred'k 1.(alone)

(302)

Catholic Netherlands. Governors under Austria.	Charles of Lorraine (alone).				Archduchess Maria Christina and Albert of Saxe-Teschen.	(Anxd. to France).	
Protestant Netherlands. Princes of Orange-Nassau.	:	William V. (Stadtholder).				Batavian R	lic.
Portugal.		Joseph Pombal.		Pedro III. and Maria I.	: : :	Maria I. (alone).	JOHN, RGT.
Turkey.			Othman III. Mustapha III.	Abdul Hamid I.		Selim III.	
Poland.			(Interregnum) Stanislas Ponia- tovski.	(First Partition)		(Sec. Partition)	
Denmark.	Exadoriot V	J. H. Bernstorff	Christian VII.	A. Bernstorff	FREDERICK, RGT. A. Bernslorff	(to 1797.)	
Sweden.	1745	1750	stein-Gottorp. 1754 1757 1764 1764	1772		1786	1799

Denmark. Turkey.							
harles XIII. Frederick VI Mustapha IV. Mahmud II. harles XIV. Bernadotte). Bernadotte). Bernadotte		ıark.		Turkey.	Portugal.	Protestant Netherlands.	Catholic Netherlands.
harles XIII. harles XIV. Bernadotte). Christian VIII. Frederick VI. Abdul Medjid. Frederick VII. Abdul Aziz I.						Louis Bonaparte,	
harles XIIV. Bernadotte). I harles XIV. Scar I. Frederick VII. Frederick VIII.		sk VI		Mustapha IV. Mahmud II.		kg. of Holland.	
harles XIV. Bernadotte). Christian VIII. Abdul Medjid. scar I. Frederick VII. harles XV. Christian IX. Abdul Aziz	·					Anxd. to France	
harles XIV. Sernadotte). Christian VIII. Abdul Medjid. scar I. Frederick VII. harles XV. Christian IX. Abdul Aziz						Kingdom of	Kingdom of the Netherlands.
Sernadotte). Christian VIII. Frederick VII. harles XV. Christian IX. Abdul Aziz	S XIV.				John VI.	William I.	
scar I. Frederick VII. harles XV. Christian IX. Abdul Aziz	idotte).	:		:	Pedro IV. Maria II.		
scar I. Frederick VII. harles XV. Christian IX. Abdul Aziz					Miguel.		
scar I. Frederick VII. Abdul Medjid. harles XV. Christian IX. Abdul Aziz						The Netherlands	Belgium.
scar I. Frederick VII. Abdul Medjid. harles XV. Abdul Aziz					Maria II.	William I	Leopold I.
XV. Christian IX. Abdul Aziz		n VIII.	• • •	Abdul Medjid.	(again).	William II.	٠
iarles XV. Christian IX.		ck VII.			Pedro V.	William III.	
		n IX.		Abdul Aziz	Luis I.		I extrald 11
1876 Murad V Abdul Hamid II.	: : : : :			Murad V. Abdul Hamid II.	•	•	
					Charles.	Wilhelmina.	

(304)

APPENDIX III. THE RULERS OF ITALY.

1600-1899.

Dukes of Modena. Este.	Cesare d'Este (since 1597).		Alfonso III. Francis I.	Alfonso IV.	Francis II.
Dukes of Parma. Farnese.	Ranuccio I., Farnese (since 1597).	Odoardo.		Ranuccio II.	
Grand Dukes of Tuscany. Medici.	Ferdinand I., de' Medici (since 1587).	Ferdinand II.			Cosmo III.
The Two Sicilies.	Philip III., King of Spain (since 1598).	Philip IV., King of Ferdinand II. Spain.			Charles II., King of Spain.
Dukes, Savoy: after 1713, King of Sicily: after 1720, Kings of Sardinia: after 1861, Kings of Italy.	Charles Emmanuel I. (since 1580).		Victor Amadeus I. Francis Hyacinth. Charles Emmanuel		
The Popes.	1600 Clement VIII. (Al-dobrandini) (since 1580). 1592). 1605 Leo XI. (Medici). 1605 Paul V. (Borghese).	1621 Gregory XV. (Luboros). 1623 Urban VIII. (Barbertni)	1628 1629 1630 1637 1637	1644 Innocent X. (Pam- 1646 1655 Alex. VII. (Chigi).	1665

APPENDIX III. - Continued.

•	Dukes of Modena. Este.	Rainaldo	
	Dukes of Parma. Farnese.	Francis	Antonio.
	Grand Dukes of Tuscany. Medici.	ing of harles, Sicily. Sicily. Stor Amadeus II. Duke of Savov.	Giovanni Gastone
	The Two Sicilies.	ip V., K Jain. Austria.	Naples and Sicily. Emperor Charles VI.
	Dukes, Savoy: after 1713, King of Sicily: after 1720, Kings of Sardinia: after 1861, Kings of Italy.	Victor Amadeus II. Phil Phil Phil Phil Phil Phil Phil Phi	unia. woy, ardinia. mmanuel avoy, dinia.
	The Popes.	1675	1720

Kings of	Sardinia;	Kings of Sardinia; Naples and Sicily.	Grand Dukes of Tuscany.	Dukes of Parma.	Dukes of Modena.
of Italy.		Spanish Bourbons.	Hapsburg-Lor- raine.	Spanish Bourbons.	Este.
			:	Don Carlos, aft. King of Naples	
പ്പു വ	ద్ది	Don Carlos, aft Charles III. Spain	:	and Sicily. Emperor Charles VI.	
			Francis of Lorraine,		Francis III.
		:		Maria Theresa.	
		:	:	Don Philip. Du Tillof (to 1771).	
	Fe .	Ferdinand IV.	Leopold, aft. Em- Don Ferdinand.	Don Ferdinand.	
			peroi.		
Victor Amadeus III. of Savoy II. of Sardinia.					
7	7	La Sambuca	- :		Hercules III.
Harles Emmannel	٠_ ٢		Ferdinand III.		
IV. of Sardinia.					
		:	:		Part of the Cisal-
(Piedmont occupied Pa		Parthenopean Republic.			The section of
	4	A I manna			nercules 111.

(307)

6	Kings of Sardinia; Kings of the Two	Kings of the Two	Grand Dukes of Tuscany.	Dukes of Parma. Dks. of Modena	Dks. of Modena
Ine Popes.	after 1801, Kings of Italy.	Spanish Bourbons.	Hapsburg- Lorraine.	Spanish-Bourbons. Hapsburg-Este.	Hapsburg-Este.
1849	Victor Emmanuel II			Charles III.	
1852 1854 1859 1860	Cavour. La Marmora. Cavour.	Francis II.	Ferdinand IV. Robert I.	Robert I.	
1861		Victor Emmanuel I., King of Italy.	I., King of Italy.		
		Ricasoli. Rattazzi.			
, 1864		. La Marmora. Ricasoli.			
1867		Rattazzi. Menahrea			
1869		. (Rome annexed).			
1873		Minghelli. Depretis. Humbert I			
	•	Cairoli. Depretis.			
1881		Depretis.			
1891		Rudini.			
1892 1893 1896		Crispi. Rudini.			
1898		Felloux.			

APPENDIX IV.

RULERS OF GERMANY:

ELECTORS OF THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE,

1600-1806;

PRINCES OF THE GERMANIC CONFEDERATION,

1814-1866; PRINCES OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, 1871-1899.

1	•	
Elector-Arch- bishops of Trèves.	Lothar von Metternich (since 1599).	Philip von Sötern.
Elector-Arch- bishops of Cologne.	Ernest of Bava- ria (since 1583). Metternich (since 1599).	Ferdinand of Bavaria.
Elector-Arch- bishops of Mayence.	Wolfgang von Dalberg (since 1582). John Adam von Bicken. John Schweick- hard von Kro- nenberg.	George Frederick von Greif-
Dukes, aft. Electors, of Hanover.		
Electors of Saxony.	Christian II. (since 1591).	John George I.
Dukes, aft. Electors, of Bavaria.	Maximilian (since 1596).	Electors Maximilian.
Electors Palatine.	1600 Frederick IV. 1610 (since 1583). 1601	forfeited, d i e d 1633). 1612 1623
(310)	

Elector-Arch- bishops of Trèves.			Charles Caspar		John Hugo von	Orsbeck.			
Elector-Arch- bishops of Cologne.	,	Maximilian Henry of Bavaria.			•			Joseph Clement of Bavaria.	
Elector-Arch- bishops of Mayence.	Anselm Casimir von Wambold. John Philip von Schönborn.	:	:	Lothar Frederick von Metternich.	Damian Hartard von der Leyen.	Chas. Henry von Metternich. Anselm Francis	von ingellieim.		
Dukes, aft. Electors, of Hanover.						Ernest	Augustus.		Ernest Augustus.
Electors of Saxony.				John George II.			John George		John George IV.
Electors of Bavaria.			Ferdinand.			Maximilian Emmanuel.			
Electors Palatine.	1629	1040 (Declorate Testored). Charles Louis I. 1650	1651	(1656	1675	1679	1680 Charles Louis II. 1685 Philip Wm.	1690 John William.	1692

013/10/03	ice. Cologne. Treves.	ancis nborn.		Charles Ioseph	of Loraine,		of Neuhito	Clement Augustus of Neuburg.				Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria.	Clement Augustus of Bavaria. In Soft Bavaria. Maximilian Frederick von Königseck- Rotherfele
_	Hanover. Mayence.	Lothar Francis	George I., King	ain, 1714.							ge II., King Gt. Britain.	George II., King of Gt. Britain. Francis Louis of								ho.	ho	
	Saxony. Ha	AugustusII. (I.of		or o		•					George	George Gt	George Grand			George of Gt						
	Bavaria.	A							Charles Albert (Emp. Charles	Charles Albert (Emp. Charles VII., 1742-45).	Charles Albert (Emp. Charles VII., 1742-45).	Charles Albert (Emp. Charles VII., 1742-45).	Charles Albert (Emp. Charles VII., 1742-45).	ø · · · .	vo · · · ·	ø · · · · ·	v · · · · ·	ø · · · · · ·	ø · · · · · · ·	v · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	v · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	ø · · · · · · · · ·
ourse of stories	Liectors Fatatine.	1694	8691	1121	*/**	1710 Charles Fillip.	1724	_	1726	1726	1726	1726	1726	1726	1726	Charles Theo	Charles Theo	Charles Theo.				

Elector-Arch- bishops of Treves.	Clement Wences- las of Saxony.		(Electorate abolished).		Hesse-Darm- stadt; Grand Dukes, 1806.	Louis I.
Elector-Arch- bishops of Cologne.		Archduke Maximilian.	(Electorate abolished).		Hesse-Cassel; Electors, 1803, Gr. Dukes, 1814.	(Merged in kgm. of Westphalia).
Elector-Arch- bishops of Mayence.	Frederick Chas.		Charles Dalberg.	orates abolished.	Baden; Elec- tors, 1803, Grand Dukes, 1809.	Charles Fred'k. Charles Louis Frederick.
Electors of Hanover.				Holy Roman Empire and all electorates abolished.	Wurtemberg; Electors, 1803, Kings, 1806.	Frederick I
Electors of Saxony.	Frederick Augustus (Dec.).			Holy Roman Em	Hanover; Kings, 1814.	(Merged in kgm. of Westphalia).
Electors of Bavaria.		re (unites the ites).	epa II. 		Saxony; Kings, 1806.	Frederick Augustus I.
Electors Palatine.	1763	1777 Charles Theodore (unites the	1803 1803 1805 Maximilian Joseph II.	1806	Bavaria; Kings, Saxony; Kings,	1807

(313)

Bavaria.	Saxony.	Hanover.	Wurtemberg.	"Baden.	Hesse-Cassel.	Hesse-Darm- stadt.
1820		Geo. IV., King of Great Britain.				
1821 1825 Louis I				:	William II.	
1827	Anthony.	Wm. IV., King	:	Charles Leopold.	:	Louis II.
1831		or Great Diffailt.			FREDERICK WM REGENT	
1836	Frederick Au-					
337	gustus II.	Emest I.		· · · · ·	T TAX TO TAX	
1848 Maximilian Jo-					riedelick will.	Louis III.
seph 11. 1851		George V.		Louis II. Frederick. Rgt.		
1854	John		Frederick I.	Frederick I.		
1864 Louis II		(Annexed to Prussia)	Charles I.	:	(Annexed to Prussia.)	
1871		German Empire established	npire established.			
1873	Albert	Part of Prussia			Part of Prussia.	Louis IV.
1889 Unio 1. LEOPOLD, RGT. 1891			William II.		Louis V.	Louis V.

APPENDIX V.

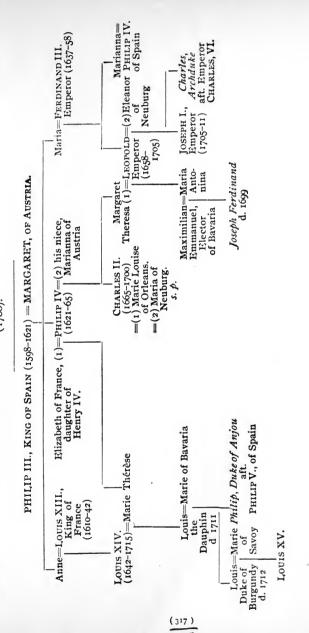
RULERS OF INDEPENDENT AND SEMIINDEPENDENT STATES, FORMED FROM THE TURKISH EMPIRE DURING THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

MONTENEGRO. BULGARIA. EGYPT.	ccular dynasty cog. 1878; amal- Semi-independ- founded, 1851; gamated with ence recognized, Indep, recog. Eastern Rou- 1878. melia, 1885.	Pashas of Egypt Mehemet All.			Said.	s I.
MONTE	Secular dynasty founded, 1851; Indep. recog. 1878.			:	Daniel I	Nicholas
SERVIA.	The two Danubian provinces con-Indep. claimed, 1806 stituted into the Principality of and 1817; Semi-In-Romania, 1881; Independence of act recognised, 1878.	Kara George. (overthrown 1813) Princes of Servia. Milosch Obrenovitch	Milan Obrenoviteh Michael Obrenoviteh	A. Katageorgeviich		Milosch Obrenovitch (again). Michael Obrenovitch (again) (again)
ROMANIA.	The two Danubian provinces constituted into the Principality of Romania, 1861; Independence of Romania recognized, 1878.	Moldavia.	. Hospodars: (Under the constitution of 1832). Michael Stourza.		Gregory Ghica. (Austrian occupation.)	Alexander John Couza.
ROM	The two Danubia stituted into thu Romania, 1861; Romania recog	Wallachia.	Hospodars: Hospodars: (Under the constitution of 1831). stitution of 1832) Alexander Chica. Michael Stourza Dibecon	George proesco.	Barbe Stirbeiu. (Austrian occupation.)	Alexander John Couza.
GREECE.	Independence of Greece recog- nized, 1829.	1805		1848	1849 1851 1854	1859

EGYPT.	Semi-Independ ence recognized 1841.	Ismail.	. Khedives. Ismail.	Tewfik.			Abbas.
BULGARIA.	Semi-Indep, recog, 1888; amal. Semi-Independ gamated with ence recognized, Eastern Rou-	Ismail.		. Princes of . Tewfik. Bulgaria.	Battenberg (overthr'n, 1886).	Ferdin. of Saxe- Coburg-Gotha.	Abbas.
MONTENEGRO. BULGARIA.	Secular dynasty founded, 1851; Indep. recog., 1878.						
SERVIA.	Indep. claimed, 1806 and 1817; Sem: In- dep. recog., 1812, 1820 and 1826; Indep. re- cog., 1878.		Milan Obrenovitch		Kings of Servia.	. Alexander I.	
ROMANIA.	Independence of Stituted into the Principality of and 1817; Semi-In- Greece recog- Romania, 1861; Independence of dep. recog., 1812, 1820 Indep. recog., Romania, 1861; Independence of and 1826; Indep. recog., 1878. Romania recognized, 1878. Romania recognized, 1878. Romania recognized, 1878. Restern Roumelta, 1885.		Charles of Hohenzollern Sigmaringen.		King of Romania		
GREECE.	Independence of Greece recog- nized, 1829.	1863 George I., King of the Hellenes.	1868	1879	(316)		1892

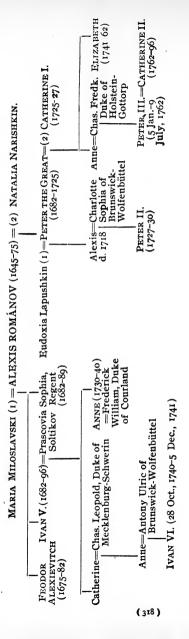
APPENDIX VI.

TABLE REPRESENTING THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE CLAIMANTS TO THE SPANISH SUCCESSION (1700)



APPENDIX VII.

TABLE REPRESENTING THE SUCCESSION TO THE RUSSIAN THRONE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.



APPENDIX VIII.

TABLE REPRESENTING THE CLAIMANTS TO THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION (1740) AND THE CHILDREN OF MARIA THERESA.

