XIX

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION

(1688)

Awakening of Liberal Ideas in England (1673–1679). — The reply of the Protestant powers to the revocation of the edict of Nantes was the English revolution, which hurled from the throne the Catholic James II and placed thereon the Calvinist William III.

Charles II had hired himself out to Louis XIV, but England had not ratified the bargain. In 1668 she forced her king to join the Swedes and Dutch in rescuing the Spanish Netherlands. Again in 1674 she compelled him to renounce the French alliance, and then by opposing France to bring about the peace of Nimeguen. The king, defeated on a political question, was defeated again on a question of religion. He was suspected of favoring Catholicism. Therefore Parliament voted the Test Bill, which obliged officials to declare under oath that they did not believe in transubstantiation. Thus public employment was closed to Catholics and their exclusion lasted until 1829. The Popish plot, imagined by the wretched Titus Oates, and the memory of the fire of London in 1666 which had been attributed to the Catholics, provoked extremely rigorous measures. Eight Jesuits were hanged. Viscount Stafford was beheaded in spite of his seventy years, and the Duke of York, the king's brother, who had abjured Protestantism, was threatened with deprivation of his rights to the crown. In order to restrain the royal despotism the Whigs or liberals who controlled Parliament passed the famous bill of habeas corpus in 1679, which confirmed the law of personal security written in Magna Charta, and so often violated. Every prisoner must be examined by the judge within twenty-four hours after his arrest, and released or set at liberty under bail if the proofs were insufficient.

Catholic and Absolutist Reaction. James II (1685). —

Thus Parliament at the same time repressed the dissenters and the court. The English were peacefully effecting their internal revolution when the violent put everything in peril. The Puritans rose in Scotland. They were crushed and a new Test Bill imposed upon the Scotch passive obedience to the king. At London a conspiracy to prevent the Duke of York from succeeding his brother led to the execution of many Whig chiefs and to the exile of others. Thus the liberal party was defeated. So James II quietly took possession of the throne in 1685, the year when the edict of Nantes was revoked. His nephew Monmouth and the Duke of Argyle tried hard to overthrow him, but both perished after the defeat of Sedgemoor, and the odious Jeffries sent many of their partisans to the block. If the Anglican clergy and those among the aristocracy who were called Tories or conservatives were disposed to pardon the Stuarts for their despotism, they had no intention of allowing royalty by right divine, a *deo rex*, a *rege lex*, to bring back Catholicism which surely would demand restitution of the immense church property which they had seized. When James sent to the Vatican a solemn embassy to reconcile England with the Roman Church, the archbishop of Canterbury protested. He was thrown into the tower with six of his suffragans.

Fall of James II (1688). **Declaration of Rights. William III** (1689). — These acts of violence together with the birth in 1688 of a Prince of Wales whose mother was an Italian Catholic, and whose rights of inheritance would precede those of the Calvinist William of Orange, the son-in-law of James II, made the stadtholder of Holland accede to the propositions of the Whigs. James deserted by all fled to France, and Parliament proclaimed William III king. It first made him sign the Declaration of Rights, which substituted royalty by consent for royalty by divine right, and which contained nearly all the guarantees of a free government: the periodical convocation of Parliament, the voting of taxes, laws made by the joint consent of the Chambers and the king, and the right of petition. A few months later Locke, one of those whom James II had persecuted, set forth the theory of the revolution of 1688, by recognizing national sovereignty and liberty as the sole legitimate and durable principles of a government.

A New Political Right. — Thus a new right, that of the people, arose in modern society in opposition to the absolute right of kings, and humanity entered upon a new stage of its journey. Feudalism had been an advance over Carlovingian barbarism. Royalty had been likewise an advance over mediæval feudalism. After having constituted the modern nations, developed commerce and industry, favored the blossoming of the arts and letters, royalty undertook to render its absolute right eternal, and demanded of the Catholic Church to aid it in maintaining itself therein. England had the good fortune, thanks to her insular position and to her traditions, to grasp the principle which was destined to be that of the future. To her wisdom she already owes two centuries of tranquillity amid the ruins which have been crumbling around her.

XX

COALITIONS AGAINST FRANCE

(1688–1714)

Formation of the League of Augsburg (1686). — In the sixteenth century and in the first half of the seventeenth, France took in hand the defence of Protestantism and of the general liberties of Europe against the Hapsburgs of Madrid and of Vienna and against the ultramontanism of the Vatican. But with Louis XIV she threatened the conscience of the adherents of the Reformation and the independence of states. England took up the rôle which France was abandoning and grew mighty in it, as had done Henry IV and Richelieu.

While the Protestants who had been expelled from France carried in all directions their resentment against Louis, he wantonly braved Europe by aggressions made in time of peace. By duplicity he gained possession of twenty cities, among which was Strasburg (1681). He treated the Pope with arrogance and compelled the Doge of Genoa to come and humble himself at Versailles. He bought Casal in Italy so as to dominate the valley of the Po, claimed a part of the Palatinate as the dowry of his sister-in-law, opposed the installation of the archbishop of Cologne, and occupied Bonn, Neuss and Kaiserwerth. The Powers, rendered uneasy by such ambition, formed as early as 1686 the League of Augsburg which England joined in 1689.

War of the League of Augsburg (1689–1697). — Louis directed his first blows against William. He gave James II a magnificent reception, and furnished him with a fleet and army, which landed in Ireland but lost the battle of the Boyne. Tourville, forced by the king's orders to attack ninety-nine vessels with forty-four, suffered the disaster of La Hogue (1692). Thenceforth the sea belonged to the English and French commerce was at their mercy despite the exploits of bold captains like Jean Bart. On land the

French maintained the advantage. Luxemburg beat the allies at Fleurus, and Neerwinden. Catinat occupied Piedmont and assured its possession by the victories of Staffarde and La Marsaille. But France was exhausting herself in an unequal struggle. "Half of the kingdom," wrote Vauban, "lives on the alms of the other half." Moreover Charles II of Spain was dying. The Spanish succession was at last about to be thrown open, and Europe needed repose in order to prepare herself for this event. Hoping to obtain peace, Louis instigated dissensions among his enemies. The desertion of the Duke of Savoy, to whom his states and even Pignerol were restored, induced the allies to sign the treaty of Ryswick (1697). Louis XIV recognized William III as king of England, restored to the empire with the exception of Alsace whatever had been awarded him, put the Duke of Lorraine again in possession of his duchy, but kept the west of San Domingo, Landau and Sarrelouis.

War of the Spanish Succession (1701–1714). — At Madrid the elder branch of the house of Austria was about to become extinct. France, Austria and Bavaria each disputed the inheritance of Charles II. Louis XIV asserted the rights of his wife, Maria Theresa, the eldest child of Philip IV. Leopold I had married her younger sister, Margarita. The Elector of Bavaria laid claim in the name of his minor son, the grandson of this same Margarita. The first plan for the partition of the Spanish monarchy, favorably entertained by William, was rejected by Charles II who preferred the boy Duke of Bavaria. That youth died. France and Austria being thus left as the only claimants, Charles by a will bequeathed his estates to the Duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV, in the hope of preserving the integrity of his monarchy.

Europe was alarmed at this added greatness of the French Bourbons. Louis XIV alarmed it still more by preserving for the new king, Philip V, his rights of eventual succession to the crown of Saint Louis. Such succession would have rëestablished to the advantage of France the enormous power of Charles V. Louis posted French garrisons in the Spanish Netherlands to the great consternation of Holland. Then on the death of James II he recognized his son as king of England, thereby openly violating the treaty of Ryswick (1701). A new league was soon concluded at The

Hague between England and the United Provinces. Prussia, the empire, Portugal and even the Duke of Savoy, the father-in-law of Philip V, successively joined it (1701–1703). Three superior men, Heinsius, Grand Pensioner of Holland, Marlborough, leader of the Whig party in England, a clever diplomat and great general, and Prince Eugene, a Frenchman who had emigrated to Austria, guided the coalition. France had Chamillart to replace Colbert and Louvois. Fortunately her generals, except the incapable Villeroi, were better than her ministers.

Austria began hostilities by reverses. Eugene was defeated at Luzzara by the Duke of Vendôme (1702), as was another imperial army at Friedlingen and at Hochstedt by Villars. But Marlborough landed in the Netherlands, and the Archduke Charles in Portugal. The Duke of Savoy deserted France and the Camisards rose in the Cevennes. The loss of the second terrible battle of Hochstedt or Blenheim drove the French out of Germany (1704). The battle of Ramillies gave the Netherlands to the allies; that of Turin gave them Milan and the kingdom of Naples (1706). Toulon was menaced (1707). To arrest the enemy in the Netherlands Louis XIV collected another magnificent army. It was put to rout at Oudenarde. Lille surrendered after two months of siege (1708). The winter of 1709 added its rigors to the French disasters and Louis sued for peace. The allies required that he should himself expel his grandson from Spain. He preferred to continue the fight. Villars had still 100,000 men. They were defeated at Malplaquet.

In the meantime Vendôme secured the throne of Spain to Philip V by the victory of Villaviciosa (1710), and the Archduke Charles, the candidate of the allies, became emperor of Germany by the death of his brother (1711). The European balance of power would have been disturbed in a much more threatening manner by his uniting to the imperial crown the crowns of Naples and Spain, than by Philip V at Madrid. Thus England had no more interest in this war. The Whigs who wished to continue it fell from power, and the Tory ministry that replaced them entered upon negotiations with France. Several months later the imperial army was beaten at Denain by Villars. This glorious victory hastened the conclusion of peace, which was signed at Utrecht, by England, Portugal, Savoy, Prussia and Holland (1713).

Treaties of Utrecht and Rastadt (1713–1714). — Louis accepted the succession as established in England by the revolution of 1683, ceded to the English the island of Newfoundland, pledged himself to demolish the fortifications of Dunkirk and agreed that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united on one and the same head. Holland obtained the right of placing garrisons in most of the strongholds of the Spanish Netherlands so as to prevent their falling into the hands of France. The Duke of Savoy received Sicily with the title of king. The Elector of Brandenburg was recognized as king of Prussia, having just purchased that title from the emperor. The latter, left alone, continued the war, but the capture of Landau and Freiburg induced him to sign the treaty of Rastadt (1714) by which he acquired some of the foreign possessions of Spain, the Spanish Netherlands, Naples, Sardinia, Milan and the fortresses of Tuscany.

France made many sacrifices but Spain, no longer distracted by her Netherlands, became her natural ally instead of being as for two centuries her constant enemy. This change meant security on the southern French frontier and hence greater strength in the northeast. Louis XIV died shortly afterwards (1715). He had reigned seventy-two years.

Louis XIV the Personification of Monarchy by Divine Right. — He left the kingdom without commerce, without manufactures, drained of men and money, with a public debt which would amount at the present day to $1,600,000,000. Thus the setting of that long reign did not fulfil the promise of its dawn. The acquisition of two provinces, Flanders and Franche-Comté, and of several cities, Strasburg, Landau and Dunkirk, was a small compensation for the frightful misery which France endured and which she might have been spared, had Louis remained faithful to the policy of Henry IV and of Richelieu. Moreover she had declined in just the same degree as others had risen. Spain had not recovered her strength. Austria still remained feeble. But two youthful royal houses, Sardinia and Prussia, formed in Italy and Germany the cornerstones of mighty edifices whose proportions could not as yet be described, and England already grasped the rôle, which she was to retain for a century and a half, of the preponderant power in Europe by virtue of her commerce, her navy, her colonies and her gold.

By the matchless brilliancy of his court, his magnificent festivals, his sumptuous buildings, his taste for arts and letters; by his lofty bearing, the dignity which he showed in everything, the serene confidence which he cherished in his rights and his superior intelligence, Louis was the most majestic incarnation of royalty. To him is attributed the saying: "I am the state." In consequence of the energetic centralization which placed all France at Versailles, and Versailles in the study of the prince, the saying was true. He firmly believed, and others believed with him, that the property as well as the lives of his subjects belonged to him; that he was their intelligence, their will, their spring of action; that is to say, that 20,000,000 of men lived in him and for him. But his errors, his vices, were sacred also, like those of the gods of Olympus whose images filled his palaces. At need the judiciary served his passions, the army his caprices, the public treasury his pleasures, and debauchery became a royal institution which conferred on the mistresses of the king rank at court.

Such a government might suit the Orient which knows only force and submits to it with resignation. It could not last in our Western world where humanity has come to consciousness of itself and of its lofty rights. By developing manufactures and commerce and consequently the fortunes of his people, and by favoring arts and letters or in other words the development of the mind, Louis himself paved the way for the formation of two new powers which were destined, first to undermine, then to overthrow his system.

XXI

ARTS, LETTERS AND SCIENCES IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

Letters and Arts in France. — The sixteenth century effected religious reform. The eighteenth was to effect political reform. Placed between these two revolutionary ages, the seventeenth was and has stood forth, especially in France, as the great literary epoch. The generations which live in stormy times rise higher and descend lower, but never reach that calm beauty which is the reflection of a peaceful yet fertile age, where art is its own end and its own recompense. Long before Louis XIV took the government in hand and reigned by himself (1661), France had already reaped half of the literary glory which the seventeenth century had in store. Many of her great writers had produced their masterpieces and nearly all were in full possession of their talent. The *Cid* was acted in 1636, and the *Discourse on Method* appeared in 1637.

Thus the magnificent harvest, then garnered by French intellect, germinated and fructified of itself. When under Henry IV and Richelieu, calm succeeded to the sterile agitation of religious struggles, intellectual questions took the precedence over those of war; and when several great men appeared, all the higher society followed them. People discussed a beautiful verse as formerly they had discussed a handsome gun. They would even have lost themselves in the mental refinements and elaborate subtleties of the Hôtel de Rambouillet, had it not been for the manly accents of Corneille and of his heroes, the supreme good sense of Molière, Boileau and La Fontaine, the biblical eloquence of Bossuet, the energy of Pascal and the penetrating grace of Racine. On that roll of honor let us also place the names of Madame de Sévigné for her *Letters*, of La Rochefoucauld for his *Maxims*, of La Bruyère for his *Characters*, of Fénelon for his *Télémaque*, of Saint Simon for his formidable *Memoirs* and of Bourdaloue for his *Sermons*.

Such learned men as Casaubon, Scaliger, Saumaise, du Cange, Baluze and the Benedictines illumined the confusion of our origin and gave us a better acquaintance with antiquity. Bayle continued the traditions of Rabelais and of Montaigne. Descartes was the great revolutionist of the time, demanding that the mind should banish all preëxisting ideas, so as to be free from all prejudice and all error and thus admit only such truths as evidence should invincibly force upon the reason. Through prudence Descartes veiled the eyes of his contemporaries to the consequences of his *Method*, yet that method became the essential condition of philosophical progress. It is the law of science and it will become the law of the world.

At that time France possessed four painters of high rank: Poussin, Lesueur, Claude Lorraine, and at some distance from them Lebrun; one admirable sculptor, Puget; the talented architects, Mansart and Perrault; and a clever musician, Lulli.

Letters and Arts in Other Countries. — In Italy there was literary as well as political decline. In Spain appeared Lope de Vega and Calderon. The *Don Quixote* of Cervantes belongs in date and subject to another century when men still thought of the Middle Ages, even though only with ridicule. Then England boasted her glorious literary age with Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden and Addison. Germany was passing through her age of iron. The Reformation, which had fallen into the hands of princes as Italian Catholicism had into the hands of the Jesuits, seems to have arrested thought.

The Dutch Grotius and the Swede Puffendorf settled the rights of peace and war according to the principles of humanity and justice. The English Hobbes, a pensioner of Charles II, maintained in his *Leviathan* that war was the natural state of humanity and that men needed a good despot to keep them from cutting each other's throats. This was the theory of absolute power according to philosophy, as Bossuet had expounded it according to religion. This doctrine was happily refuted by another philosopher, Locke, in his essay on *Civil Government*. Therein the councillor of William III demonstrated that civil society is subjected to the established power not otherwise than by the consent of the community. "The community," said he, "can set up whatever government it sees fit. That government in order to conform to reason must fulfil two conditions: the first is, that the power of making the laws, binding upon the subjects as well as upon the monarch, ought to be separated from the power which executes them; the second is that no one shall be required to pay taxes without his consent, given personally or by his representatives." "Equality," he said, in another place, "is the equal right which each man has to liberty, so that no one is subjected to the will or authority of another." This treatise appeared in 1690, just a century before the French Revolution, of which Locke is one of the precursors. What is the necessity of common consent, established as a principle of all political society, but the recognition of the sovereignty of the nation! The ideas of the English philosopher, like those of Descartes, were destined to make progress slowly throughout the eighteenth century.

Two other philosophers deserve mention for their influence in the realm of metaphysics. They are the pantheist Spinoza, a Jew of Amsterdam, and Leibnitz, the universal genius.

In the arts the first rank then belonged to the Dutch and Flemish schools, represented by Rubens, Van Dyck, Rembrandt and the two Téniers. Spain possessed Velasquez, Murillo and Ribera, who left no heirs. Italy brought forth Guido and Bernini, who mark the decline against which nevertheless Salvator Rosa was a protest. England and Germany had not a single artist.

Science in the Seventeenth Century. — The universe is twofold. There is a moral and a physical world. Antiquity traversed the one in every direction. It extended and developed the faculties of which God has deposited the germs in our mortal clay. But of the physical world it knew almost nothing. This ignorance was destined to last so long as the true methods of investigation were unknown. They could be found only after men had become convinced that the universe is governed by the immutable laws of eternal wisdom and not by the arbitrary volitions of capricious powers. Alchemy, magic, astrology, all those follies of the Middle Ages, became sciences on the day when man, no longer halting at isolated phenomena, strove to grasp the laws themselves which produced them. That day began in the sixteenth century with Copernicus, but it is only in the seventeenth that the revolution was accomplished

and triumphant with Bacon and Galileo. The former proclaimed its necessity; the latter by his discoveries demonstrated its benefits.

At the head of the scientific movement of this century were Kepler of Wurtemberg, who proved the truth of Copernicus' system; Galileo of Pisa, who expiated in the cells of the Inquisition his demonstration of the motion of the earth; the Englishman Newton, who discovered the principal laws of optics and universal gravitation; Leibnitz, who disputes with him the honor of having created the differential calculus; Pascal, the inventor of the calculus of probabilities; Descartes, equally celebrated as a man of learning and a philosopher, for these mighty minds did not confine themselves to a single study.

In their train a throng of men entered eagerly upon the paths thus thrown open. Papin ascertains the power of steam as a motive force; Rœmer, the velocity of light; Harvey, the circulation of the blood; and Cassini and Picard fix the meridian of Paris. To the thermometer constructed by Galileo, Toricelli adds the barometer, Huygens the pendulum clock, and science finds itself armed with precious instruments for investigation.

Thus in this century three countries were in full decline. They are Germany, which had Leibnitz but almost allowed Kepler to die of misery; Italy, which persecuted Galileo, and Spain, where we find only painters and playwrights. The two peoples, France and England, to whom strength and preponderance had passed, were on the contrary in the full tide of their literary age.

XXII

CREATION OF RUSSIA. DOWNFALL OF SWEDEN

The Northern States at the Beginning of the Eighteenth Century. — The East and Northern Europe were an unknown region to the Romans and Greeks. In the Middle Ages, the activity of the nations was displayed in countries of the centre and west. The Slavs and Scandinavians remained generally apart, uninfluential and obscure. The Russians had been subjugated by the Mongols. After long silence the Swedes had burst upon the empire under Gustavus Adolphus like a thunderbolt. Thanks to their victories over the Germans, Poles and Russians, the Baltic at the middle of the eighteenth century was a Swedish lake surrounded by an extended line of fortified posts, but their domination was fragile. It was constructed in defiance of geography and was surrounded by enemies who had an interest in its ruin.

Poland still stretched from the Carpathians to the Baltic and from the Oder to the sources of the Dnieper and Volga, but its anarchical constitution and its elective royalty rendered it defenceless to the attacks of foreigners. An elector of Saxony was then king of Poland.

The Russians were cut off by the Swedes, the Poles and the duchy of Courland from access to the southern Baltic. Likewise they were separated on the south from the Black Sea by Tartar hordes and by the warrior republic of the Cossacks, unruly subjects of Poland. They were shut in from every direction except toward the desert regions of Siberia. When the powerful republic of Novgorod fell in 1476, their road was open to the Arctic Ocean and the eastern Baltic. By the destruction of the Tartars of Astrakan, they had reached the Caspian Sea. At the treaty of Vilna (1656) they forced from the Poles the cession of Smolensk, Tchernigoff and the Ukraine. This was their first step toward the West. They already possessed formidable elements of power. Ivan III had abolished in his family the

law of appanage, thereby establishing the unity of authority and of the state. On the other hand he had retained it among the nobility, which in consequence became divided and enfeebled. In the sixteenth century Ivan IV spent fifteen years in breaking the boyars to the yoke with that implacable cruelty which won for him the surname of the Terrible, and a ukase in 1593 reduced all peasants to the servitude of the soil by forbidding them to change master and land.

Peter the Great (1682). — He, who was destined to be the creator of Russia, in 1682, when ten years old, received the title of Tsar. Guided by the Genevese Lefort, who extolled to him the arts of the West, in 1697 he went to Saardam in Holland to there learn the art of building vessels. Afterwards he studied England and her manufactures, and Germany and her military organization. At Vienna the news reached him that the Strelitzi had revolted. He hurried to Moscow, had 2000 hanged or broken on the wheel and 5000 beheaded. Then he began his reforms. He organized regiments, in which he compelled the sons of the boyars to serve as soldiers before becoming officers. He founded schools in mathematics and astronomy, and a naval academy, and undertook to unite the Don and the Volga by a canal. A great war interrupted these achievements.

The preponderance of Sweden weighed upon her neighbors. At the death of the Swedish king, Charles XI, Russia, Denmark and Poland thought the time had come for despoiling his successor, Charles XII, a youth of eighteen, and for wresting from the Swedes their provinces on the Baltic (1700). "If Charles XII was not Alexander, he might have been Alexander's foremost soldier." He forestalled the attack by an impetuous invasion of Denmark. Then he marched rapidly against 80,000 Russians, whom he defeated with 8,000 Swedes at the battle of Narva, expelled the Saxons from Livonia, pursued them into Saxony, dethroned Augustus II and forced him by the treaty of Altranstädt to abdicate his Polish crown in favor of Stanislaus Lechzinski.

But while he was wasting five years in these successful but fruitless wars (1701–1706), in his rear Peter the Great was creating an empire and forming an army modelled upon what he had seen in the kingdoms of the West. Peter conquered Ingria and Carelia and founded Saint Petersburg

(1703), so as to take possession of the Gulf of Finland. Charles XII then returned against him. While trying to effect a junction with Mazeppa, the Hetman of the Cossacks, who had promised him 100,000 men, he lost his way in the marshes of Pinsk and afforded the Tsar time to crush a Swedish relief force. The cruel winter of 1709 increased his distress. His defeat at Poltava (1709) forced him to flee with 500 horse to the Ottomans. From Bender, his place of refuge, he roused them against the Russians. One hundred and fifty thousand Ottomans crossed the Danube, and Peter, surrounded in his camp on the banks of the Pruth, would have been crushed had not the grand vizier been bribed by Catherine the Tsarina (1711). The Tsar restored Azoff and promised to withdraw his troops from Poland.

By this treaty Charles XII was vanquished a second time. He persisted in remaining three years longer in Turkey and then set out again for Sweden, which the northern powers were despoiling. George I of England, Elector of Hanover, was buying Bremen and Verden. The king of Prussia was seizing Stettin and Pomerania. Stralsund still held out. Charles XII threw himself into it, defended it for a month, then returned to Sweden and met his death at the siege of Frederickshall, perhaps by treason (1718).

He left Sweden exhausted by this war of fifteen years' duration. She was deprived of her foreign possessions, without agriculture, without manufactures, without commerce, and had lost 250,000 men, the flower of her people, and her ascendency in northern Europe. This heroic adventurer had annihilated the fortune of his people and ruined his country for a century.

Peter on the contrary was creating the fortune of his empire. By the treaty of Nystadt he granted peace to the Swedes (1721), but only on condition of their renouncing all claim to Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, a part of Carelia and the country of Viborg and Finland. When the ambassador of France implored less onerous terms, Peter replied, "I do not wish to see my neighbor's grounds from my windows."

Thus Sweden declined and Russia ascended. Thus a twofold example was furnished to the world of what one man can do for the ruin or the advancement of nations not yet capable of controlling their destiny themselves. In 1716

the Tsar undertook another journey throughout Europe. This time he came to France, where he offered to replace Sweden as the ally of France against Austria. Cardinal Dubois, who was the hireling of England, caused the rejection of his proposals.

This journey was as fruitful as the first one in developing the resources of Russia. From it she gained engineers and workmen of all sorts, with manufactories and foundries. The Tsar established uniformity in weights and measures, a commercial tribunal, canals and shipyards. He opened mines in Siberia and highways for the products of China, Persia and India. He foresaw the future of the Amour River, which empties into the Eastern Sea. In order to make the clergy entirely dependent upon him, he replaced the Patriarch by a synod, which he recognized as the supreme head of the Church, and he made of the Russian nation a regiment, by applying the military hierarchy to the whole administration of his empire. His son Alexis was active against these reforms. The prince was tried, condemned to death and probably executed. At all events Alexis died on the day after his sentence and many of his accomplices perished. A general was impaled and an archbishop was broken on the wheel. By means of this savage energy he succeeded, as he himself said, in dressing his herd of animals like men. "The Tsar Peter," said Frederick II, "was the nitric acid which eats into iron." He died in 1725.

XXIII

CREATION OF PRUSSIA. DECLINE OF FRANCE AND AUSTRIA

Regency of the Duke of Orleans; Ministries of Dubois, the Duke of Bourbon and of Fleury (1715–1743). — The successor of Louis XIV was only five years old. Therefore, Parliament conferred the regency upon the Duke of Orleans, a brave and intelligent prince, but weakly amiable and of dissolute character, who intrusted the power to his former preceptor, Cardinal Dubois. Through fear of Philip V of Spain, who by birth was nearer to the throne of France than was the regent, Dubois made a close alliance with England, which paid him a pension; and the spectacle was presented of the French being on their guard against the Spaniards, their friends of yesterday. Suddenly Cardinal Alberoni, the minister of Philip V, revealed his plan of restoring to Spain what the treaty of Utrecht had taken from her. He endeavored, by the help of the Ottomans, to keep Austria busy, to overthrow the regent by a conspiracy and reëstablish the Stuarts through the sword of Charles XII. But Prince Eugene defeated the Ottomans at Belgrade (1717). The conspiracy against the regent failed. Charles XII perished in Norway. The English destroyed the Spanish fleet near Messina. The French entered Navarre. So Spain found herself crippled by the struggle and France was still under the regent and Dubois.

Louis XIV had left behind him financial ruin. The state owed 2,500,000,000 francs, of which nearly one-third was already due. Two years' revenues had been spent in advance. Though the budget was 165,000,000 francs, the deficit was 78,000,000. The regent, after having exhausted every other means to no purpose, decided to have recourse to the expedients of Law. That bold Scotch financier had founded a wonderfully successful bank and also the India Company, which, successful at first, ended in a complete failure. By clever manœuvres, the bonds of the company were