conceived a strong antipathy for each other; and when the father attempted by corporal punishment to coerce his son, the proud prince resolved to run away. In the year 1730 he tried, with the aid of some friends, to carry out his design, but was caught in the act. Frederick William almost lost his mind from rage. He threw his son into prison, and spoke wildly for a time of executing him as a common deserter from the army. When the prince was at last released he was put through such a training in the civil and military administrations, from the lowest grades upward, as perhaps no other royal personage has ever received. The stern discipline was felt as a heavy burden by Frederick, prince and *dilettante;* but Frederick, the responsible king, was enabled thereby to know every branch of his vast administration like a thumbed book.

Accession of Frederick II., 1740.

In the year 1740 Frederick II., who had now reached the age of twenty-eight, succeeded to the throne. As he had spent the last years of his father's life in rural retirement, gathering about himself a circle of intimates with whom he devoted his leisure to the pursuit of art and literature, everything else was expected of him rather than military designs and political ambition. But an unexpected opportunity carried him straight into the ranks of the leaders.

The death of Emperor Charles VI.

A few months after Frederick's accession, in October, 1740, the Emperor Charles VI., the last male of the line of Hapsburg, died. Long before his death he had sought to forestall all trouble by regulating the succession in an ordinance, called the Pragmatic Sanction, in which he named his oldest daughter, Maria Theresa, the sole heir of his undivided dominions; and during his last years he knocked at the doors of all the European cabinets to get them to indorse and guarantee his act. Such guarantees having been received from all the leading states, sometimes at a great sacrifice, he died with composed conscience, and the Archduchess Maria Theresa prepared immediately to assume the rule of Austria, Bohemia, Hungary, and the other Hapsburg lands. It was at this point that Frederick stepped in. He was young, ambitious, capable, with a full treasury and a fine army and before him in the momentary confusion at Vienna lay an unexampled opportunity to settle the old conflict over the Silesian lands. Having reflected upon the situation for some days, he took the bull by the horns and in December, 1740, marched his army into the disputed province. His act was the signal for a general rising. The German states, Bavaria and Saxony, and the great foreign powers, France and Spain, followed his example and on some trumped-up claim to the heritage of Charles VI. prepared to invade the Austrian dominions. To poor Maria Theresa's indignant remonstrances they turned a deaf ear. Thus hardly was the last male Hapsburg cold in his grave, when it was apparent that the Pragmatic Sanction was not worth the paper it was written on.

The War of the Austrian Succession begins.

It might have gone hard with Maria Theresa if she had not found splendid resources of heart and mind in herself, and if she had not gained the undivided support of the many nationalities under her sway. Her enemies were descending upon her in two main directions, the French and their German allies from the west, by way of the Danube, and Frederick of Prussia from the north. Unprepared as she was, her raw levies gave way, at first, at every point. On April 10, 1741, at Mollwitz, Frederick won a great victory over the Austrians, clinching by means of it his hold upon Silesia. In the same year the French, Saxons, and Bavarians invaded Bohemia. So complete, for the time being, was the dominion of the anti-Austrian alliance that when in January, 1742, the imperial election took place, the combined enemies of Austria were able to raise their candidate, the Elector Charles of Bavaria, to the imperial throne. The

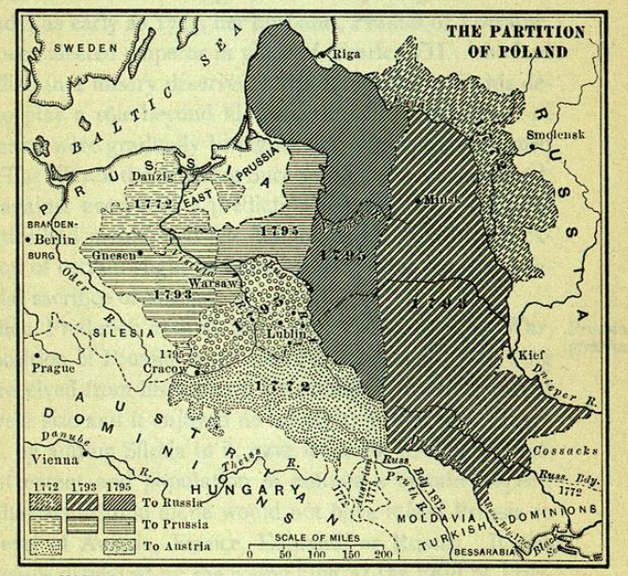
elector assumed his new dignity with the title of Emperor Charles VII. (1742–45), and for the first time in three hundred years the crown of the Empire rested upon another than a Hapsburg head.

Maria Theresa makes over Silesia to Frederick, 1742.

But at this point Maria Theresa's fortunes rose again. Her own magnetic enthusiasm did wonders in restoring and organizing her scattered forces. Not only was the army of the coalition driven out of Bohemia, but Bavaria, the land of the enemy, was invaded and occupied. The Prussians, who had likewise entered Bohemia in order to help their allies, were hard pressed, but saved themselves by a victory at Czaslau (May, 1742). Thereupon Maria Theresa, who saw that she could not meet so many enemies at one and the same time, declared her willingness to come to terms with her most formidable foe. In 1742 she signed with Frederick the Peace of Breslau, by which she gave up practically the whole province of Silesia. What is known in Prussia as the First Silesian War had come to an end.

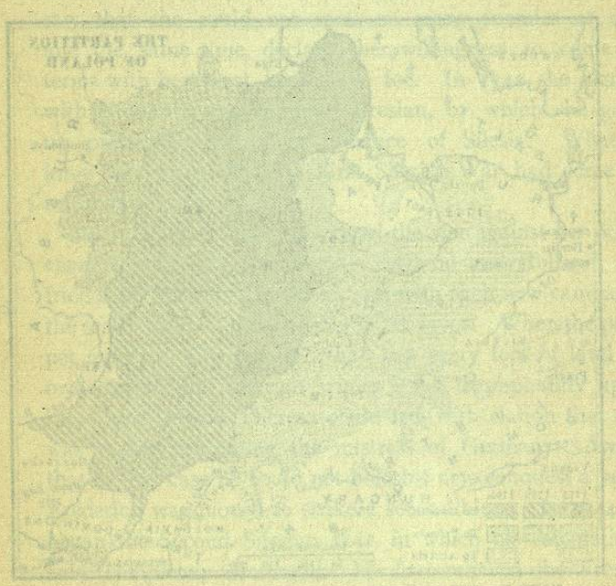
Maria Theresa's success and Frederick's second attack upon her.

Maria Theresa now prosecuted the war against her other enemies with increased vigor. England and Holland, old friends of Austria, joined her, and with each new campaign the scales inclined more visibly in her favor. When the puppet emperor, Charles VII., had lost every foot of land he owned, and the Austrian armies stood triumphantly upon the Rhine, Maria Theresa could feel with elation that she was rapidly becoming the mistress of Germany. Aware that in that case he could not hold his new conquest a year, Frederick was moved to strike a second blow. In 1744 he began the Second Silesian War, in which his calculations were completely successful. He first relieved the French and the Bavarians by drawing the Austrians upon himself, and then he defeated the enemy signally at the battle of Hohenfriedberg (1745). On Christmas day, 1745, Maria



NOTE TO THE STUDENT:

Russia and Prussia shared in all three partitions; Austria in two. After many changes in the era of Napoleon, the Congress of Vienna (1815) adopted a rearrangement which has lasted until our time. By its terms Austria and Prussia kept little more than their acquisitions of 1772, giving up the rest to Russia. Thus Russia is by far the leading beneficiary from the overthrow of Poland.



Theresa bought her second peace of Frederick by a renewed cession of Silesia (Peace of Dresden).

Close of the War of the Austrian Succession.

For a few more years the general war continued. After Frederick's retirement it was waged to some extent in Italy, but chiefly in the Austrian Netherlands, where Maurice de Saxe, a German prince in the employ of Louis XV., saved the military reputation of France by winning a number of brilliant victories over Maria Theresa and her English and Dutch allies. Finally, in 1748, everybody being tired of fighting, the contestants signed the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (Aachen), by which Maria Theresa was universally recognized as the sovereign of the Hapsburg dominions. Already, as early as 1745, her husband, Francis of Lorraine, had been elected emperor in place of Charles VII., who had just died in a misery deservedly visited upon him by his desire to play a rôle beyond his powers. Thus the affairs of Germany were gradually brought back into the accustomed rut. The War of the Austrian Succession had come to an end, and against everybody's prediction the empress's splendid qualities had maintained her dominions intact, with the exception of certain slight cessions in Italy and the one substantial sacrifice of Silesia.

Prussia a great power.

When Frederick retired from the Second Silesian War, the position of Prussia had been revolutionized. The king had received from his father a promising state, but it was of no great size and it enjoyed no authority in Europe. Frederick, by adding Silesia to it, gave it for the first time a sufficient extent and population to enforce a certain respect; but that acquisition alone would not have raised Prussia to the level of Austria, France, England, or Russia. It was the genius displayed by the young king at the head of Prussia which fell so heavily into the balance that Prussia was henceforth counted among the great powers of Europe.

Frederick, having thus won his military laurels, settled

Frederick's internal labors.

down to the much harder work of governing his country with wisdom by increasing its resources and by raising its standards of civilization. The ten years of peace which followed the Second Silesian War are crowded with vigorous domestic labors. He continued the thrifty policy of his ancestors of reclaiming waste lands and settling homeseekers upon them, his greatest achievement of this kind being the drainage of the swamps along the Oder, where he was enabled to found several villages with a total of twelve hundred families. He promoted the internal traffic by new canals, and fostered home industries, especially the manufacture of woollen and linen goods. Finally, he carried through a reform of the procedure of the courts by which everybody from high to low was assured a swift and impartial justice.

The personality of Frederick.

All of Frederick's heavy political duties never destroyed in him the artistic instinct, which had come to him as a gift of nature. He engaged in literature with as much fervor as if it were his life-work, and took constant delight in composing music and in playing the flute. What pleased him most, however, was a circle of congenial friends. He was especially well inclined to Frenchmen, because that nation represented, to his mind, the highest culture of the Europe of his day. A larger or smaller circle of polished neighbors from beyond the Rhine was about him all his life to philosophize, to comment, and to laugh, and for a number of years (1750–53) he even entertained at his court the leader of contemporary thought and the quintessence of Gallic wit, Voltaire. But after a period of sentimental attachment the king and the philosopher quarrelled, and Voltaire vanished from Berlin in a cloud of scandal. In any case, the momentary conjunction of the two most characteristic figures of the eighteenth century—the one its greatest master in the field of action, the other the herald of a renovated Europe—has an historical interest.

Maria Theresa plans to get back Silesia.

All this while Frederick was aware that Maria Theresa was not his friend. A high-spirited woman like the empress was not likely to forget the violence of which she had been the victim. She hoped to get back Silesia, and for years carefully laid her plans. As early as 1746 she entered upon a close alliance with Russia, which the two contracting parties understood to be aimed at Frederick. Next, her minister Kaunitz, a most skilful player of the diplomatic game, planned the bold step of an alliance with France. In the eighteenth century an alliance between Hapsburg and Bourbon, the century-old enemies, was generally held to be out of the question. The rule in Austria had been to meet the aggression of France by an alliance with England, and any other arrangement seemed to be contrary to the law of nature itself. But since the Silesian wars Austria had come to regard not France but Prussia as her leading enemy, and Maria Theresa and Kaunitz were very anxious to have France understand that thenceforth they had no further quarrel with her. Their plans were greatly aided by the following circumstance: England and France were making ready, about the middle of the century, to contest the empire of the sea.[1] Both were looking for continental allies; and as Prussia, after holding back a long time, was induced at last to sign a convention with England, France, in order not to be isolated, accepted the proffered hand of Prussia's rival, Austria. In the spring of 1756 this diplomatic revolution was an accomplished fact. The two great political questions of the day, the rivalry between England and France, involving the supremacy of the seas, and between Prussia and Austria, touching the control of Germany, were about to be fought out in the great Seven Years' War (1756–63), and the two northern and Protestant powers, England and Prussia, were to consolidate their claims and interests against the claims and interests of the

The diplomatic revolution of 1756.

[1] For France and England see the next chapter (Chapter XV.).

Catholic powers, France and Austria. The remaining great power of Europe, Russia, instead of remaining neutral in a dispute which did not concern her, sided with the cabinets of Versailles and Vienna.

War between England and France. Position of Prussia.

The war between France and England was formally declared in May, 1756, and the struggle between these two powers immediately began in America, India, and on all the seas. For a moment the hope was entertained of keeping the conflict out of the Continent of Europe, but only for a moment. Then the long-threatening storm burst; and as England, for the present at least, was engaged with all her forces elsewhere, the concentrated fury of the tempest descended upon her ally, Prussia. Coolly reviewing the situation of 1756, one may fairly say that the Austrian diplomacy was justified in the belief that the hated rival of Austria was as good as annihilated. The union with France and Russia was the basis of the confidence of Maria Theresa, but there were also negotiated, or about to be negotiated, a series of treaties with such secondary powers as Saxony, Sweden, and the Empire. The plan of the Austrian cabinet was that the Austrians should march upon Frederick from the south, the French from the west, the Russians from the east, the Swedes from the north, and so shut in and choke to death the new power of which they were all jealous.

The marvellous campaign of 1757.

Frederick's one chance in this tremendous crisis was to move quickly. Before the allies had perfected their plans against him, he therefore, by a lightning stroke, occupied Saxony, and invaded Bohemia (autumn, 1756). The next year his enemies marched upon him from all points of the compass. Again he planned to meet them separately before they had united. He hurried into Bohemia, and was on the point of taking the capital, Prague, when the defeat of a part of his army at Kolin (June 18th) forced him to retreat

to Saxony. Slowly the Austrians followed and poured into the coveted Silesia. The Russians had already arrived in East Prussia, the Swedes were in Pomerania, and the French, together with the German troops furnished by the many small states of the Empire, were marching upon Berlin. Even the friends and family of Frederick were ready to declare that all was lost, while his enemies exulted openly. He alone kept up heart, and by his courage, swiftness, and intelligence freed himself from all immediate danger by a succession of surprising victories. At Rossbach, in Thuringia, he fell (November 5, 1757), with 22,000 men, upon the combined French and Germans of twice that number, and scattered them to the winds. Then he turned like a flash from the west to the east. During his absence in Thuringia the Austrians had completed the conquest of Silesia, and were already proclaiming to the world that they had come again into their own. Just a month after Rossbach, at Leuthen, near Breslau, he signally defeated, with 34,000 men, more than twice as many Austrians, and drove them pell-mell over the passes of the Giant Mountains back into their own dominions. Fear and incapacity had already arrested the Swedes and Russians. Before winter came both had slipped away, and at Christmas, 1757, Frederick could call himself lord of an undiminished kingdom.

Altered position of Frederick from 1758 on.

In no succeeding campaign was Frederick threatened by such overwhelming forces as in 1757. By the next year England had fitted out an army, largely of German mercenaries, which, under Ferdinand of Brunswick, operated against the French upon the Rhine, and so protected Frederick from that side. As the Swedish offence, through the total incapacity of the government, displayed no energy, Frederick was permitted to make light of his Scandinavian enemy, and give all his attention to Austria and Russia. No doubt, even so, the odds against Prussia were enormous.

Prussia was a poor, barren country of 5,000,000 inhabitants, and in men and resources Austria and Russia together outstripped her many times; but at the head of Prussia stood a military genius with a spirit that neither bent nor broke, and that fact sufficed for a while to establish an equilibrium.

Growing feebleness of Prussia.

It was Frederick's policy during the next years to meet the Austrians and Russians separately, in order to keep them from rolling down upon him with combined forces. In 1758 he succeeded in beating the Russians at Zorndorf and driving them back, but in 1759 they beat him in a battle of unexampled carnage at Kunersdorf. For a moment now it looked as if he were lost, but he somehow raised another force about him, and the end of the campaign found him not much worse off than the beginning. However, he was evidently getting feeble; the terrible strain continued through years was beginning to tell; and when on the death of George II., the new English monarch, George III. refused (1761) to pay the annual subsidy, by which alone Frederick was enabled to fill the thinned ranks of the army each year and equip the men, the proud king himself could hardly keep up his hopes.

Peace with Russia, 1762.

At this crisis Frederick was saved by a turn of the wheel of fortune. Frederick's implacable enemy, the Czarina Elizabeth, died January 5, 1762, and as Russia had no direct interest in the war, but had engaged in it only because the Czarina had a personal dislike for Frederick, there was no reason why her successor, Peter III., who was an ardent admirer of the Prussian king, should not come to terms with him. Peter in his enthusiasm even insisted on allying himself with his country's late enemy; but little came of this plan, as he was overthrown and murdered in July, 1762, and Catherine II., who succeeded him, would not engage further in the war. However, she made Frederick eternally grateful by at least ratifying the peace which Peter had concluded.

This same year England and France came to an understanding (Preliminaries of Fontainebleau, 1762) and hostilities between them were at once suspended at all points. So there remained under arms of the great powers only Austria and Prussia; and as Austria could not hope to do unaided what she had failed to do with half of Europe at her side, Maria Theresa, although with heavy heart, resolved to come to terms. In the Peace of Hubertsburg (February, 1763) the cession of Silesia to Frederick was made final.

Third cession of Silesia, 1763.

Labors of peace.

Counting from the Peace of Hubertsburg Frederick had still twenty-three years before him, which he devoted with unslacking energy to the works of peace. And all his skill and husbandry were required to bring his exhausted country back to vigor. We now hear again, as during the first period of peace (1745–56), of extensive reforms, of the formation of provincial banks, the draining of bogs, the cutting of canals, and the encouragement of industries, in a word, of all those peaceful activities which a wise ruler has always set above the ephemeral glories of war.

Frederick acquires West Prussia.

Only two political events of the last period of Frederick's life claim our attention. In 1772 the ancient anarchy and weakness of Poland precipitated the event which intelligent observers had long foreseen. Her three neighbors, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, agreed to appropriate each one some convenient province of the stricken country. Frederick received as his share the province of West Prussia, which had been won by Poland from the Teutonic Order many hundred years ago, and by means of it established the territorial continuity of his eastern and central provinces. In 1778 another war threatened to break out with Austria. Joseph II., who, on the death of his father, Francis I., in 1765, had succeeded him as emperor, and who, even in the lifetime of his mother, had been admitted to a share in the government of the Hapsburg dominions, was a young man of high-flying

plans and ambitions. On the extinction, in 1777, of the reigning branch of the House of Wittelsbach, he schemed to acquire Bavaria. As that would have given back to Austria her ancient predominance in Germany, Frederick II. was resolved to resist the project at all costs, and took the field. But the quarrel was patched up before a battle had been fought by the intervention of Maria Theresa, who had no taste for again trying conclusions with Prussia. The gist of the settlement was that Joseph sacrificed his ambition, and in 1779 the so-called War of the Bavarian Succession came to an end without bloodshed. In 1786 Frederick died at his favorite country-seat, called Sans Souci, which he had built for himself near Potsdam. His memorable reign had lasted forty-six years.

Frederick vetoes Joseph's attempt to absorb Bavaria.

Rivalry between Prussia and Austria.

It has already been pointed out that Frederick won for Prussia a position among the great powers of Europe. A consequence of that success, which is implied in every page of his history, is that he became the rival of Austria for the supremacy in Germany. From now on the open and secret struggle of these two states, the one trying to maintain its traditional ascendancy, the other resolved not to lose what it had won, is the main theme of German history. The fact that one lay in the north and was Protestant, while the other held the south and was Catholic, gave a sectional and religious edge to their rivalry, which continued to disturb and paralyze Germany until a new war in 1866, within the memory of the generation which is only just vanishing, swept the old issue out of existence by giving the victory and its fruits to Prussia. Thereupon Prussia planned and, in 1871, carried to successful issue a new unification of Germany, in which the student will not fail to perceive that Frederick the Great had a hand.

CHAPTER XV

ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

REFERENCES: GARDINER, Student's History of England, Parts VIII., IX., pp. 649–819; GREEN, Short History of the English People, Chapter IX. (beginning Section 7), Chapter X. (Sections 1–3); TERRY, History of England, pp. 805–941; TRAILL, William III.; PERKINS, France under Louis XV.; PARKMAN, Half Century of Conflict; PARKMAN, Montcalm and Wolfe; MALLESON, Dupleix (Rulers of India); also Clive (Rulers of India); MAHAN, Influence of Sea Power upon History; LECKY, England in the Eighteenth Century, 8 vols. (a detailed review).

SOURCE READINGS: ROBINSON, Readings, Vol. II., Chapter XXXIII. (The English in India and America); ADAMS and STEPHENS, Documents, No. 237 (First Mutiny Act), Nos. 240–58 (including Act of Settlement, Act of Union with Scotland, Act of Union with Ireland); COLBY, Selections from the Sources, Part VII.

The significance of the "Glorious Revolution."

THE "Glorious Revolution" of 1688 put an end to the long civil wars of England. By supplanting James with William and Mary, it secured the *Protestant religion;* by the Bill of Rights, it brought the king in all respects under the law and added the coping stone to the *constitutional monarchy;* and by the Toleration Act, it gave the right of worship to Dissenters, and paved the way for *religious peace.* Protestantism, constitutionalism, and religious peace, these three, are the main pillars of modern England, which may thus be said to have come into being with the advent of William.