

to call for a general council of the church to consider the question. Between 1525 and 1532 the Lutheran Church was established in Saxony, the electors of which were fast friends of the Reformation. Albert of Brandenburg, Grand Master of the German Knights, embraced the new faith. The emperor's brother, Ferdinand of Austria, became King of Hungary and Bohemia in 1526. The Turks appeared before Vienna three years afterward, and the necessity under which the Emperor lay of support from the people led to a cessation for several years of the persecutions with which the Lutherans had been pursued. The Emperor overcame his antagonist, Francis I, in Italy, and, capturing him, compelled him to sign a humiliating peace. When hostilities again broke out, an imperial army, composed mainly of German Lutherans, captured Rome, and Charles received the crown of the Cæsars from the Pope at Bologna in 1530. The Diet of Spire in 1529 resolved to attack the Reformation. Nineteen states of the empire, led by Saxony, protested, their action on this occasion earning for the reformers the name of "Protestants." At the Diet of Augsburg in 1530 the protesting members presented their confession of faith, since known as "The Augsburg Confession," which is regarded as the foundation of Protestantism. An attempt to reconcile differences failed, and both parties prepared for war. In 1531 the Protestant leaders formed the "Smalcald League" at the town of that name in Thuringia. The affairs of Spain called Charles to that country, but before he went he caused the election by the Catholic electors of his brother Ferdinand as German Emperor. An attack on Austria by the Turks led the Emperor to make terms with the Protestants in "The Religious Peace of Nuremberg" in 1532. In the ten years which followed a number of the German princes joined the Protestants. The Smalcald League, which was renewed in 1537, now contained nearly all the Protestant princes. A Catholic league, headed by Bavaria, was formed in opposition, but it accomplished little against the overwhelming odds which confronted it. Even the Catholic princes of the empire attempted to reform the abuses in the church, but without any sympathy with the Reformation. In 1534 Pope Paul III took his seat in the papal chair. Recognizing the impossibility of reuniting the church by force, he undertook to accomplish that end by policy. A conference between the reformers and the church dignitaries ended in a violent controversy, and the whole matter was referred to the council which subsequently met at Trent in the Tyrol. Meanwhile the Reformation had spread beyond Germany into Norway, Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, England, France and Switzerland, although the movement in those countries, as in Germany, had a political as well as a religious aspect. In 1544 the Emperor, with the assistance of Henry VIII of England, compelled Francis I to make the Peace of Crespy, which left the German monarch free to carry out his projects of breaking down the power of the princes and bringing the empire back to its old allegiance to the Church of Rome. The two leaders in the Smalcald League were placed under the ban of the empire. The Protestants collected an army, but were deserted by the Electors of Brandenburg and the Palatinate and the Dukes of Mecklenburg and Pomerania. This was but the beginning of defection. Luther died in 1546. In 1547 all south Germany had given its adhesion to the Emperor. Charles invaded Saxony, beat the protestant army at Muhlberg and captured Wittenburg. By his successes the empire was placed firmly in his hands. The princes and the imperial cities were humbled, and the fate of the new doctrine seemed to be at his disposal. Acting with moderation, he permitted the Lutheran doctrine to be preached. In 1548 he caused to be prepared the "Augsburg Interim," a system of doctrine and practice which yielded nothing to the Protestants but the sacrament in both kinds and the marriage of the

-The Augsburg Confession."

Progress of the Reformation.

clergy. The Interim gave no satisfaction to either party. The Spanish troops introduced by Charles scoffed at the Lutheran doctrine and perpetrated outrages upon its professors. The war was resumed between Charles and France, which enabled Maurice of Saxony and other princes to contract an alliance with the French king, Henry II. In exchange for French aid Henry was to take possession of four German towns on the western border of the empire—Metz, Cambrai, Verdun and Toul. In 1552 Maurice marched against the Emperor, who was then at Innsbruck in the Tyrol. The march was made so secretly that Charles narrowly escaped capture. At the same time the French king invaded Germany, and Charles was compelled to sign the Truce of Passau, which provided for toleration of Lutheranism. In 1555 he signed the "Religious Peace of Augsburg," which contained a provision that the princes and barons should have religious freedom and the right to promote the Reformation in their own territories. Church estates were not to be secularized, and the ecclesiastical princes were to tolerate the Protestant worship. If a prelate adopted the reformed faith, he must give up his clerical estates and dignities. This last clause was the subject of much future dissension, for the Lutherans insisted that it was invalid, and several prelates who subsequently went over to Lutheranism retained their secular estates. The followers of Zwingli and Calvin were not included in this peace. Charles V abdicated the throne in 1556 and retired to a monastery in Spain, where he remained until his death in 1558. To his son Philip he had given Spain and the Netherlands with Naples and Sicily, while Ferdinand remained Emperor of Germany.

Ferdinand I became sole ruler of Germany in 1556. He was an ardent Catholic, devoted to the promotion of the interests of the church. He gave material assistance to the Jesuits in their efforts to produce a reaction in favor of the papacy, which met with some success in the period of comparative inaction that succeeded the fierce strife of the early Reformation. He attempted also to bring about a reconciliation between the Protestants and Catholics. His reign had no important effect on German history. Ferdinand I died in 1564.

Maximilian II, the son of Ferdinand I, was suspected of leaning toward Lutheranism. While he did not join the Protestants, he gave them religious liberty not only in the empire generally but in his hereditary state of Austria, where every departure from the Catholic faith had hitherto been rigorously dealt with.

Maximilian II died in 1576 and was succeeded by his son Rudolph II. This prince had been educated by the Spanish Jesuits, and, so far as his weak will permitted, he was their agent in the attempted destruction of Protestantism. Regardless of the guaranties of religious freedom given by his father, he resumed the persecutions, which led to so much disorder that in 1606 the imperial government was taken from him and given to his brother Matthias. Rudolph continued to rule in Bohemia, but was compelled by his subjects to grant them religious freedom. He died in 1612. In Germany, the war on the Protestants was led by Bavaria, whose duke was an earnest Catholic. The reign of Matthias was an unfortunate period for the new doctrine. The Emperor was almost a nonentity, but the imperial power in the hands of the Jesuits was used with terrible effect on the adherents of Lutheranism. The principal agents of this zealot order were Maximilian of Bavaria and Ferdinand of Styria, who had both been educated by the Jesuits and were fierce enemies of the Reformation. Styria was wholly Protestant when Ferdinand assumed control of affairs in that province. "Better a desert than a country full of heretics," was his favorite expression. He marched through Styria with an army, closing the Lutheran churches, burning Protestant Bibles, and setting up Catholic ceremonies everywhere. He also introduced

a band of Capuchin friars, who secured an apparent re-conversion of the Styrians to the Catholic faith. The breaking up of a Catholic procession in Donauworth gave Maximilian, of Bavaria, an excuse for seizing that free evangelical city. The Protestants of south Germany formed a league called "The Union" for protection against Maximilian, who himself built up a "League" composed of Catholic princes. An alliance was contracted between "The Union" and the French king Henry of Navarre, who was interested in breaking down the power of the Austro-Spanish family of the Hapsburgs. The assassin Ravaillac, who murdered Henry, prevented a general war. The Union and the League came to terms in 1610 because of Maximilian's jealousy of the house of Hapsburg, whose power he did not wish to increase. Matthias drove his brother Rudolph out of Bohemia and procured the election of Ferdinand of Styria as the future king of that country. Ferdinand promised the Bohemians religious liberty, but the promise was not kept. Hussite churches were torn down, and on appeal to the Emperor the Protestant nobles were met with threats. Believing Matthias to have been influenced in his action by two of his councillors, Martinetz and Slavata, the nobles threw the latter out of the windows of the castle at Prague. The councillors fell eighty feet, but were not killed, and their escape was regarded by the Catholics as a miracle. This act of violence, which immediately preceded the Thirty Years' War, occurred in 1618. The Bohemians at once took arms to protect themselves from the vengeance of the Emperor. Actual hostilities began under his successor.

Matthias died childless in 1619 and Ferdinand of Styria, cousin of Rudolph II, was chosen emperor with the title of Ferdinand II. He was a fierce bigot, determined to restore the papacy to its ancient authority in Germany.

The Thirty Years' War has been divided into four periods, the Bohemian, Danish, Swedish and French. First is that of Bohemia, where the war began. The Bohemians refused to acknowledge Ferdinand, and chose as their king the Elector Palatine, Frederick IV. Frederick, who was a Calvinist, was immediately involved in difficulties with the Hussites, who preserved many of the old Catholic forms, which were repugnant to their king. Ferdinand was aided by Maximilian of Bavaria, who was now left at liberty by a Peace with the Union. With the forces of the League under the command of Tilly, and an army raised by threats from other German princes, together with some Hungarians, Spanish and Italian troops, he advanced into Bohemia. Frederick's army retired before him to Prague, where, on the White Hill, November 6th, 1620, was fought a battle which decided the campaign. Frederick was defeated, and barely escaped capture. Ferdinand brought into use in Bohemia the methods he had employed in Styria for the destruction of the heretics, and it is estimated that when peace came three-fourths of the population of the kingdom had been massacred or driven into exile.

Ferdinand as emperor declared Frederick deposed from his Electorate of the Palatinate. This was an assumption of authority which the north German nobles resented, and they formed an alliance with Christian IV of Denmark, who, as Duke of Holstein, belonged to the Circle of Lower Saxony. Under Tilly and Maximilian the troops of the Emperor devastated the Protestant lands and cities of the Palatinate and began the ravages which marked the Thirty Years' War. The Protestants retaliated, with the result that the country was almost depopulated. In 1622 the Emperor's forces were victorious, the Union was dissolved, and Maximilian received the Palatinate as his reward. Tilly was then sent into north Germany, where he defeated Christian IV and restored the Catholic religion. Ferdinand, being embarrassed by his obligations to Maximilian, sought the assistance of Wal-

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lenstein. This general was born of a Protestant family in Bohemia, but became a Catholic to further his own ambitious purposes. He was a man of great military talent, tall and thin in person, mysterious, stern, and pitiless. Acquiring wealth by marriage, he had obtained princely estates and rank by purchase from the Emperor at the time of the Bohemian confiscations. Wallenstein proposed to subsidize his army by plunder, and on these terms took service under the Emperor. Christian IV opposed the imperial armies under Tilly and Wallenstein. Tilly defeated the Danish king at the battle of Lutter in 1626. Wallenstein pursued the Protestant general Mansfeld into Hungary and, returning, joined Tilly in the north. The Danes were driven to the islands in 1627 and Wallenstein supported his army at the expense of Mecklenburg and Pomerania. Here he formed a scheme to crush Sweden and to obtain control of the northern seas by the capture of the Hanse towns. His plan was frustrated by the heroic defense of Stralsund. Believing himself invincible, Ferdinand in 1629 issued the "Edict of Restitution," requiring the return of all Catholic property which had been secularized since the treaty of Passau. In addition to this, the private possessions of all the princes were threatened, and the estates of six thousand noblemen were declared forfeited. In the matter of religion, only those who accepted the Augsburg Confession were to be permitted in the realm. The Danes were humbled and signed the treaty of Lubeck in 1629. In 1630 a diet of princes was held at Ratisbon, where, in exchange for a promise of his son's succession, the Emperor relieved Wallenstein from command. The latter retired to his estates and as Duke of Friedland awaited the call of the Emperor, who, he believed, would soon need him.

Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, a man of lofty character, great prudence and fine military ability, was brought into the struggle by a desire to aid the cause of Protestantism, and also to acquire the territory lying along the Baltic, to which he had a claim. Tilly's soldiers captured Magdeburg in May, 1631, and subjected that unfortunate city to a sack, the horrors of which have given it special prominence even in the history of outrages and butcheries. Gustavus met Tilly at Breitenfeld, near Leipsic, in September, 1631, and obtained a decisive victory, which restored the Protestants to confidence and gave the Swedish king a prospect of conquering all Germany. In the spring of 1632 he again defeated Tilly in a battle on the Lech and dispersed his forces. Tilly was wounded in the battle and died a few days afterward. Wallenstein was again placed in command, but was defeated in a battle fought November 6th, 1632, in the great plain of Lutzen. The victory was dearly purchased, for the heroic King of Sweden was slain. The command of the Protestant army fell to Bernard of Weimar. The war continued with varying success. Wallenstein was suspected of a design to usurp supreme power, and was assassinated in 1634. With assistance from France, sent by Cardinal Richelieu, who coveted the Rhine provinces, Bernard maintained the war until the battle of Nordlingen in 1634, where he was defeated. He afterward obtained successes, but died in 1639. The Swedes were defeated in battle, and were forced to retreat to the Baltic.

Ferdinand II died in 1637, and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand III, who pursued the policy inaugurated by his father. Under the Swede Torstensten a number of victories were gained over the imperial troops in Saxony.

In the meantime the French, under Turenne and Condé, were fighting the Emperor's armies on the Rhine and in south Germany. A junction was effected between Turenne and the Swedish army. Together they invaded Bavaria and overthrew Maximilian. In 1648 the war ended where it began, at Prague, in a battle which gave the Protestant army a part of the city and the royal castle. Negotiations, which were

Treaty of Westphalia.

begun in 1640 continued until October 24th, 1648, when a treaty of peace was signed between all the belligerents. By this treaty (Treaty of Westphalia) religious freedom was accorded to Lutherans, Calvinists and Catholics. Germany lost large territories by the war, and also a great part of her influence as a political power in Europe. Upper and Lower Alsace were ceded to France, which power was also confirmed in its possession of Metz, Verdun and Toul. Sweden relinquished Pomerania east of the Oder, receiving the part west of that river, together with four islands, including Stettin, a very important city from both a military and commercial point of view. An indemnity, amounting to five million dollars, was also paid to Sweden. Switzerland and the Netherlands were recognized as independent countries. In the interior the status of 1624 was fixed as the basis of settlement. By this arrangement the Catholic gains in Bohemia were confirmed. The Protestant Elector Palatine was reinstated, ceding to the Catholic Duke of Bavaria the upper Palatinate. The edict of Restitution was revoked. The Pope declared the treaty void, but his fulmination received no more attention than was given by the comet of 1456 to the bull issued against it by Pope Calixtus III. The Treaty of Westphalia secured peace, and was the basis of the legal relations of the states of Europe for a century and a half, but the disintegration of the empire was complete, and in many places the face of the country was a desert. It has been estimated that in the first half of the seventeenth century two-thirds of the people of Germany perished from war, pestilence and famine. One of the effects of the war was the destruction of almost all trade and commerce. The Hanseatic League fell to pieces, and the interior industries of the realm were paralyzed. The decline of the Hanseatic cities was not altogether due to the Thirty Years' War. The changed relations caused by the discovery of America and the ocean route to India aided in depriving the German coast cities of their importance, which was transferred to Antwerp, Lisbon and other southern ports. The people of Germany relapsed into a condition of serfdom, and the princes asserted a royal authority in their dominions. The states acknowledged but a slack allegiance to the imperial crown, and the cities abandoned themselves either to the government of cliques, or accepted the rule of the nobles. The tastes of the people were changed by the introduction of vicious foreign customs. The Germanism of the princes was vitiated by foreign travel and a desire to imitate the luxury of France and other southern peoples. In the midst of these signs of decadence two principles were left alive which alone gave promise for the future. These were the indomitable race vigor—weakened, it is true, but not destroyed—and the spirit of the Reformation. On this joint foundation was built the power of the modern German Empire, which, with Prussia at its head, is one of the principal states of Europe. While the empire remained for a long time inert, the little state of Brandenburg, under its Great Elector, William, was building up a conserving power.

Ravages of the War.

National decadence.

Ferdinand III was succeeded in 1658 by his son, Leopold I, a cold, Jesuitical prince, weak in character and limited in intellect. The government was nominally in the Emperor, but really in the hands of a quarrelsome and factious diet. The ambition of Louis XIV of France and the weakness of Germany spurred the French king to active interference in the affairs of the empire. By conquest and negotiation he made himself master of Franche-Comte and various cities on the borders of the Netherlands, with the fortress of Freiburg and the duchy of Lorraine. These lands and cities were ceded to him by the Peace of Nimeguen in 1678. While the members of the diet were disputing about matters of etiquette, Louis in 1681 seized Strasbourg and other cities, all of which were confirmed to him by treaty. The national honor was sustained only by Frederick William of

Brandenburg, who, through an alliance with Sweden and the Duke of Brunswick, put a stop to the designs of the King of Denmark on Holstein and Hamburg. Subsequently Louis XIV was compelled to give up his claim to a number of the cities, but retained Strasbourg. On the east the empire was threatened by the Turks, who overran Hungary and Transylvania, and in 1683 appeared before Vienna. Neither the Emperor nor the diet made any effort to protect the Capital of Leopold's hereditary state; but the duty which they neglected was ably discharged by other hands. The Electors of Saxony and Bavaria moved in person to the relief of the beleaguered city; the Great Elector sent eight thousand soldiers. Charles of Lorraine at last brought up the imperial army, which was joined by the heroic king of Poland, John Sobieski. The Turkish army was destroyed and Europe was relieved from the menace of Moslem rule. Within a century Austria repaid the inestimable services of Sobieski by the partition of Poland. Hungary having joined the Turks in the war, that kingdom was severely punished. At the Diet of Presburg in 1687 the Hungarians yielded their right to elect a king, and declared the crown of their country hereditary in the male Hapsburg line. In 1701 Brandenburg was erected into a kingdom, with Frederick I, son of the Great Elector, as sovereign. On the death of Charles II of Spain, who was the last Hapsburg of that branch, Louis XIV, who had married a sister of Charles, intrigued to secure the succession for his grandson, Philip of Anjou. Leopold claimed Spain for his own son as a descendant of Ferdinand, brother of Charles V. The German emperor formed an alliance against France with England and Holland, both of which powers were jealous of the increase of strength of Louis XIV. This alliance brought on the "War of the Spanish Succession," of which lasted from 1701 to 1713, and resulted in the Treaty of Utrecht, by which the Spanish crown was successively given to Philip of Anjou, but with a renunciation by him for himself and his heirs of all claims to the throne of France. Prussia obtained the province of Guelders, and was recognized as of royal dignity, and received the addition of Sicily.

Leopold died in 1705. His son, Joseph I, had a short reign, in which he sustained the War of the Spanish Succession, and died in 1711. As he left no son, the crown went to his brother, Charles VI. Austria had not taken part in the treaty of Utrecht, but continued the war with France for another year. In 1714, by the treaty of Rastatt, Austria relinquished all claim to Spain, but received the Netherlands, the Duchy of Milan, the Kingdom of Naples, and Sardinia. The latter was ceded to Savoy in 1720 in exchange for Sicily, and Savoy was from that time known as the Kingdom of Sardinia. To Charles is due one of the four Pragmatic Sanctions of history. The Austrian throne was held under the Salic law, which forbade the coronation of a female. Having no son, Charles endeavored to secure the succession in Austria to his daughter, and for that purpose prepared a Pragmatic Sanction, or solemn ordinance, settling his dominions on the Arch Duchess Maria Theresa. This was confirmed by the diet and guaranteed by most of the European powers. In 1733 Charles engaged in war with France in support of the claim of the Elector of Saxony to the throne of Poland. The treaty of Vienna in 1735 secured for the Elector the Polish throne, but deprived the Emperor of the two Sicilies, which went to Spain, and the Fortress of Landau. The rival claimant of the crown of Poland, Stanislaus Leszczynski, received as compensation the Duchies of Lorraine and Bar, which he immediately ceded to France. In this reign Prince Eugene of Savoy maintained the glory of the imperial arms against the Turks, driving them out of Hungary and capturing the city of Belgrade. In 1739, after Eugene's death, the Emperor by a disgraceful treaty relinquished to the

Turks not only Belgrade, but the whole southern frontier which had been conquered by the great imperial general. Charles VI appeared to have but a slight regard for the interests of Germany beyond his own hereditary possessions, and when he died in 1740 the people of the empire felt but little regret. Under the provisions of the Pragmatic Sanction, Maria Theresa at once ascended the throne, with no opposition except a protest from Bavaria; she immediately associated with herself in the government her husband Francis Stephen, Grand Duke of Tuscany.

Germany had ceased to have an important influence among the European nations; the local sovereignty of the states had been secured by the Peace of Westphalia, and the title of Emperor was but little more than an empty honor. From the entire empire, outside of his hereditary territories, the sovereign received an annual income of not more than five thousand dollars. The days of the great vassals of the crown were long since passed, and interest centers in the struggles for supremacy between the great states of Austria and Prussia. The Imperial Court was located at Vienna, but exercised no political influence beyond the possessions of the Hapsburgs. Among other changes which occurred was the elevation of the Elector of Hanover to the throne of England in 1714 as George I. His wife was the granddaughter of James I of England, upon which relationship was founded his claim to the throne of Great Britain. In 1697 Augustus of Saxony had become king of Poland. In the southwest the former circles of the empire, Swabia, Bavaria and Franconia, were still of some importance, because in them lay the military strength not of the states, but of the shadowy empire. The internal condition of Germany was deplorable. The extravagance of the Imperial and State officers was supported by the unrequited toil of the people, but there were glimpses of the dawning of that broad intellectual life which in the following century gave to Germany a greater glory than had ever been achieved by her arms.

In 1740 Frederick II ascended the throne of Prussia. His father, Frederick William, an obstinate, parsimonious monarch, had organized a splendid army, and accumulated a great hoard of treasure. The young king, afterward known as Frederick the Great, was 28 years of age when he assumed the crown. His early reign was characterized by a reckless ambition with which were united a military genius and an executive talent of the highest order. Reviving an old claim to the Duchy of Jagodine and other territories in Silesia, he invaded that province with an army of one hundred thousand men and proposed to hold it as security for his claim. Advantage was taken at the same time of the supposed weakness of the woman Maria Theresa by the Elector of Bavaria, who claimed the whole of the Austrian hereditary possessions. A secret alliance was made in 1741 by France, Bavaria, Prussia, Spain, Sardinia and Saxony to despoil the Austrian queen of her possessions. The arrangement was that she should retain only Carinthia, Carniola, Styria, Hungary and Lower Austria. England, Holland and Russia declared in favor of Maria Theresa. After obtaining possession of Silesia, Frederick offered to uphold Maria Theresa under the Pragmatic Sanction if she would recognize his claims to the province which he had occupied. The high-spirited queen refused Frederick's offer, and appealed to the Hungarian nobles, who rallied enthusiastically to her support. A Bavarian and French army moved down the Danube and occupied Linz, while a French and Saxon army invaded Pomerania.

In 1741 Charles Albert, Elector of Bavaria, became King of Bohemia and Bavaria, and in 1742 received the Imperial Crown as Charles VII. In the same year Maria Theresa concluded with Frederick the Great a peace by which Silesia and the County of Glatz were confirmed to the Prussian king and his heirs. She then made vigorous war on the other allies, driving

Charles Albert out of her territories and also out of his own kingdom of Bavaria. The Peace of Breslau followed, guaranteeing to the Austrian queen all her possessions except Silesia. An alliance formed by her with other powers in 1743 led Frederick to believe that she intended the recovery of Silesia, and he espoused the cause of Charles Albert. In 1744 the Prussian king began the second Silesian war by an invasion of Bohemia. The campaign ended in his forced withdrawal to Silesia, where he was followed by the Austrian army. Here he sustained himself and in 1745 made a treaty with the Austrian queen, Frederick retaining Silesia and annexing to his kingdom all of East Friesland.

Charles VII died in 1745. His successor was the husband of Maria Theresa, Francis I. The Prussian king, after the close of the war, turned his attention to the development of his domain, and on the conclusion of the ten years of peace which followed found himself at the head of a formidable power. In 1748 Maria Theresa negotiated with France a treaty of peace, Austria losing some territory in Italy but coming out of the struggle with honor. The Austrian empress, as she was called, gave herself up to regrets for the loss of Silesia, and her people grew jealous of the rising power of Prussia. The emperor, her husband, was a mild, benevolent man, but with no talent for government, the whole burden of which fell upon his wife. The genius of Frederick the Great alarmed other crowned heads than that of Austria. In 1755 their fears culminated in an agreement for the partition of Prussia, in which France, Russia, Saxony and Austria, and eventually Sweden, took part. Out of this compact grew the Seven Years' War, for Frederick, without waiting to be attacked, dashed into Saxony hoping to catch his adversaries unprepared. (See Austria).

During the war, which lasted from 1756 to 1763, the Prussian monarch, with a population of not more than five millions, made head against nearly all Europe and placed Prussia on a foundation of greatness which, with a short interval during the Napoleonic wars, she has since maintained. Regarding the nobles as the principal support of his throne, Frederick set himself to the task of repairing their fortunes, which had been shattered by the war. Ruling with vigor and yet with kindness, he inaugurated and maintained a system of economical administration in the kingdom which soon healed the wounds of strife. His army was kept ever ready for war, for it could hardly be hoped that the rival state of Austria would neglect any opportunity to recover the leading position it had lost to Prussia. In 1764 the Prussian king contracted an alliance with Russia, each power guaranteeing to the other the integrity of its possessions for eight years. During this period Russia showed a disposition to acquire Poland, which unhappy country, rent by civil strife, had fallen into a deplorable state of weakness. On the death of Francis in 1765, the Imperial Crown passed to his son, Joseph II, who had been elected in 1764. In order to prevent the great Northern Empire of the Czar from absorbing the whole Polish kingdom, Frederick joined with Austria and Russia in the first partition of Poland. The Prussian king asserted to this iniquitous transaction for the purpose of restraining Russia, and Maria Theresa was forced into it only by the sternest political necessity. By this act Prussia received an addition to her territory of about nine thousand square miles, with a population of six hundred thousand; Austria obtained Galicia and Lodomeria, in all about sixty-two thousand square miles, while the remainder, more than eighty-seven thousand square miles, went to Russia. In 1786 the Prelates of Cologne, Treves, Mayence and Salzburg agreed to renounce the supremacy of Rome and form an independent German Catholic Church—so wide had become the gap between the papacy and even the Catholics of Germany. The lower classes of Germany, with the exception of those

in the dominions of Maria Theresa, were sinking into a state of servitude but little short of slavery. In her possessions she introduced many reforms which alleviated the misery of the peasants; she also supported schools and churches, and provided educational institutions for the nobles, who were in a lamentable state of ignorance. In 1777-79, and again in 1785, Frederick resisted attempts of Joseph II to possess himself of parts of Bavaria, and prevented him from accomplishing his designs. After the operations of 1785 Frederick observed a growing friendship between Austria and Russia, and, to counteract it, founded the "Confederation of German Princes," which was a combination of the smaller states under the lead of Prussia. Frederick the Great died in 1786, and the Prussian throne fell to his nephew, Frederick William II. Maria Theresa died in 1780, and Joseph II wore the crown of Austria as well as that of the Empire. He had visions of reform which were impracticable. His failures depressed his spirits and an attack of malarial fever carried him to the grave in 1790.

Confederation of German princes.

Frederick William II.

Emperor Leopold II.

French Revolution.

Leopold II, brother of Joseph and Grand Duke of Tuscany, came to the throne in a time of gloom for the monarchs of Europe. That wonderful though savage outbreak of the lower classes in France which is styled the "French Revolution," was viewed with alarm throughout Europe as presaging a general downfall of thrones. The "Divine Right" of Kings was indeed questioned outside of France, but the fidelity of the peasantry to their rulers and the hopelessness of a struggle with the disciplined forces of royalty held the mass of the people in check. Frederick William of Prussia hoped to profit by disorders in Austria, but the common danger to European crowns compelled a cessation of his projects and led to a compact in 1791 between the two sovereigns to support the cause of the French king, Louis XVI, against the Revolution.

Emperor Francis II.

Second and third partitions of Poland.

Campo Formio.

Frederick William III.

Leopold died in 1792, and was succeeded by his son Francis I of Austria and Francis II of Germany. The National Assembly of France in 1792 demanded that the French emigrants in Germany should immediately disperse or war would be declared. The German emperor naturally refused and war followed at once. The alliance between Austria and Prussia was strengthened by the accession of the other states of the empire. In 1793 occurred the Second Partition of Poland, which was made by Russia and Prussia. The Third Partition, which was made in 1795 between Russia, Austria and Prussia, erased Poland from the map of Europe. On the execution of Louis XVI in 1793, Russia, England and Holland joined the German alliance against France. The French took possession of Holland, and Prussia withdrew from the coalition. The young French general, Napoleon Bonaparte, led an army into Italy in 1796 and fought his way to Klagenfurt in Styria, and in 1797 compelled Austria to make the Peace of Campo Formio.

Frederick William II was succeeded on the Prussian throne in 1797 by Frederick William III, whose reign extended to 1840. In 1799 war was renewed with the French Republic, Austria acting in concert with England and Russia, while Prussia refused to join the coalition, hoping to profit by the disasters of Austria. The Austrians were beaten at Marengo and Hohenlinden and begged for peace. Napoleon, now First Consul, and soon to be Emperor of France, exacted from Germany twenty-four thousand square miles of territory, occupied by three million five hundred thousand people. The boundaries of Germany were established at the Adige in Italy and along the Rhine on the west. Napoleon also formed the state on the eastern bank of the Rhine, which was now under his control, into a territory that he regarded as a barrier against Austria and Prussia. The Peace of Amiens, concluded in 1803 between England and France, secured a cessation of conflict on the Conti-

nent, but it was the quiet between the paroxysms of a fever, for the French Emperor (elected in 1804) had undoubtedly determined to make himself master of all western and central Europe. In 1804 Francis II recognized Napoleon as Emperor of France; Prussia also acknowledged him, but England, Turkey, Russia and Sweden refused the title recognition. The aggressions of the French emperor brought on a war in 1805 between a coalition composed of nearly all the European powers except Prussia, against the French, who were assisted by Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden. Napoleon immediately advanced into Germany and at the battle of Austerlitz, fought December 2, 1805, shattered the Austrian and Russian armies. By the Peace of Presburg, which followed, Germany was humiliated as never before. Venice was ceded to the kingdom of Italy, the Tyrol and Vorarlberg to Bavaria, and other territories to Wurtemberg and Baden. Bavaria and Wurtemberg were erected into kingdoms, the "Confederation of the Rhine" was formed by the French conqueror, and the German Empire was broken up. Francis II abandoning the title of emperor. Up to this time the Prussian king had remained quiet, but seeing in Napoleon's actions a desire to readjust the relations of the whole of Europe, and consequently danger to his own kingdom, made ready for war. Napoleon, who had heard with ill-concealed anger the Prussian boasts of the invincibility of the "Soldiers of Frederick the Great," eagerly embraced the opportunity, and himself at Jena and Marshal Davoust at Auerstadt on the 14th of October, 1806, cut it pieces or captured the larger part of the Prussian army. By the Treaty of Tilsit in 1807, made between the Russian emperor and the Prussian king on one side, and Napoleon on the other, the territories of Prussia were reduced nearly one-half, and its monarch treated with contempt. An attempt by Austria in 1809 to recover her lost position led to the defeat of her army at Wagram, and by the subsequent Peace of Schonbrunn Austria was compelled to relinquish large tracts of her territory. The immense losses of the French in their invasion of Russia in 1812, and the constant waste of Napoleon's resources by the savage war in Spain, so weakened his strength that the Germans entertained hopes of deliverance from the bondage to which he had subjected them. The coalition formed by Austria, Russia and Prussia in 1813-14 beat Napoleon at Leipzig and forced him back to France. At Fontainebleau he abdicated and was sent to Elba. Returning in the spring of 1815, he was definitively overthrown at Waterloo and imprisoned at St. Helena, where he died in 1821. The Congress of Vienna, which began its labors on the first abdication of Napoleon and concluded them after Waterloo, restored with several changes the boundaries of the German states. Prussia received more than half of Saxony, the Rhine province with its old possessions in Westphalia, Posen and other small acquisitions, but lost its Slavonic populations in the east. It was now a strictly German state. To Austria were given the Bavarian and Italian Tyrols, Lombardy and Venice, which states, under the astute management of Metternich, gave the Hapsburg empire a predominant influence in Italy. Bavaria was guaranteed its territory, receiving in exchange for the Tyrol the Grand Duchy of Wurzburg and the Palatinate on the left bank of the Rhine. Hanover was increased by an addition of territory which gave that kingdom control of the mouths of the Elbe, the Ems and the Weser. The kingdom of the Netherlands was enriched by the annexation of Luttich and the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen and Frankfurt-on-the-Main became free cities. The new "German Confederation" consisted of thirty-nine states, including the two great monarchies of Austria and Prussia, four Kingdoms, one Electorate, seven Grand Duchies, nine Duchies, ten Principalities and four free Cities. The territories of each state were guaranteed by the others; the citizens

The Empire dissolved.

Jena.

Wagram.

Leipzig.

Restitution.

of each had certain rights in all, and freedom of religious opinion was established. Disputes between states were to be settled by a diet sitting at Frankfurt, with an Austrian for permanent president. Immediately after Waterloo the Emperors of Russia and Austria and the King of Prussia executed a peculiar compact called the "Holy Alliance," by which they bound themselves as the representatives of the three branches of the Christian church to treat one another as Christian brethren and to govern their people on the basis of Christian principles. The Pope and the Sultan were ignored, but the other monarchs of Europe were invited to join the alliance and did so, with the exception of England, whose Prince Regent could not act without the direction of the Parliament.

As might have been foreseen, the jealousies and divisions of the German states deprived that country for a long time of any weight in European politics, but internal peace was secured and the ravages of the Napoleonic wars were covered over by the industry of the people. The condition of the masses was improved physically, but a new force was moving among them and they were beginning to aspire to something higher than submission to kingly decrees. The French democracy which sprang into action out of its bloody cradle was diffused throughout central Europe by the passage of the French armies, and wherever they penetrated they left with the people an aspiration for freedom. Recognizing this sentiment in their peoples, the rulers of the German states endeavored to retain the old supremacy of the Throne. To them, the political agitation of the years succeeding the Napoleonic wars was but a continuation of the struggle, although the enemy was now their own subjects. In 1816 the Prussian government suppressed a democratic journal which demanded fulfillment of the royal promises to the people, given after the return of Napoleon from Elba. Popular leaders remonstrated against the suppression and demanded constitutional freedom, but the Prussian government refused to fulfil its pledges until compelled by the revolution of 1848. A few states which granted constitutions so restricted them that they were practically inoperative. In Austria, Metternich, the efficient instrument of the Throne, labored to silence every voice raised against absolute monarchy. Repressed at home, German liberalism extended its sympathies to all peoples who strove to throw off the yoke of despotism. The assassination of the dramatic author, Kotzebue, in 1819, on the suspicion that he was a Russian spy, did the cause of freedom much harm, for this act was used as an argument in favor of the repressive measures which the governments of the states at once adopted to crush the popular aspiration for liberty. The Carlsbad Resolutions of 1819, the "Final Act" of 1820, and subsequent measures confirmed the power of the Holy Alliance and made it an engine for the oppression of the people. The French revolution of 1830 found a sonorous echo in the Rhine provinces. In 1832 thirty thousand men gathered at Hambach in the Palatinate to consider means for the emancipation of Germany, but the Bavarian troops put an end to the demonstration. Disturbances in Frankfurt, Brunswick, Cassel and Saxony were quickly put down. Hanover in 1833 granted a liberal constitution to its subjects. Francis of Austria died in 1835 and the crown passed to his son Ferdinand. Liberal government was expected from him, but he adhered to the principle of absolutism. His subjects continued their demands for reform, but obtained nothing. In 1837, on the death of William IV of England, who was also King of Hanover, the latter kingdom was separated from the British crown and given to the Duke of Cumberland, who overthrew the constitution and banished its principal supporters. Prussia was prosperous in her industries and trade. Her schools became models for the other nations of Europe. The old universities were fostered and a new one was founded at Bonn. Religious toleration was the rule; in 1817 an Evangelical union was formed

through a reconciliation of the Lutheran and Reformed Churches. Between 1828 and 1834 the German states, with the exception of Austria, united in the "Zollverein" or Customs-Union, with Prussia at its head. Under this union the commerce and trade of Germany were rapidly developed. The steamship and the locomotive were adopted at once by the commercial centers, and the German merchant navy rose to the third rank, standing next to those of the United States and Great Britain.

Frederick William III was succeeded in 1840 by his son, Frederick William IV. This sovereign had a sincere desire for progress, but the revolutionary party in Prussia was not satisfied with the concessions made by him, and the political agitation increased. In self-defense he turned back to his kingly prerogative, and the result was an alienation from him of the affections of his people. The French revolution of 1848 rolled into and over Germany with a force before which the thrones were powerless. In an endeavor to avert the ruin of their states, the various rulers made large concessions to the liberal party, but without avail. Berlin and Vienna were captured by the populace, and it seemed as if the bloody scenes of '93 in France were about to be repeated. Hungary and Austrian Italy were aflame with insurrection. Frederick William gave way to the demands of the radical party, and in a proclamation pledged himself to maintain the freedom of the press and also to strive for a union of all Germany in a federal state. A national parliament met at Frankfurt, but the delegates split into two factions and did little else than quarrel among themselves. The republicans were too radical, and the constitutionalists too conservative, to furnish any hope of united action. The Italian insurrection was put down by Marshal Radetzky, and the revolutionists in Vienna were suppressed with an iron hand by Prince Windischgratz. The Emperor Ferdinand abdicated and was succeeded by his nephew Francis Joseph, then eighteen years of age. By a decree promulgated in 1849, Austria became a constitutional monarchy. General Wrangel quelled the disturbances in Berlin, and a constitution was given to the kingdom of Prussia. The National Parliament elected the Prussian king, Frederick William, Emperor of Germany, but he declined the imperial crown. After changing its place of meeting several times, the National Parliament came to an end at Stuttgart in 1849, having accomplished nothing. In Hungary the insurrection became formidable and assumed the character of a race war. At first the Magyars were successful, and Louis Kossuth was proclaimed President of the Hungarian Republic. The Austrian emperor appealed for aid to the Czar of Russia, who immediately sent a large army into Hungary, and in 1849 the Magyars were overcome. Many of the leaders were exiled and others were put to death by Marshal Haynau, who, by his atrocities, earned the title of the "Hungarian Butcher." Schleswig and Holstein had been annexed to the Danish kingdom, but contained a large German population, who had attempted to set up an independent sovereignty. Their scheme was thwarted by the Danish king in 1846. In 1848 Schleswig and Holstein revolted, and with the assistance of Prussian troops expelled the Danes from the provinces and invaded Jutland. England and Russia threatened to interfere, and the war flagged. Prussia concluded a peace with Denmark, which the people of Holstein rejected and renewed the war. Austria and Prussia ordered that hostilities should cease, and an Austrian army in 1852 disarmed the duchies and surrendered them to Denmark. The question was disposed of for the moment by foreign influence, evidenced by a document called the "London Protocol." Other revolts in north Germany which grew out of the agitation of 1848 were suppressed by Prussian troops.

The prominent part taken by Austria in the Schleswig-Holstein matter added to the bitterness of feeling in Prussia against the former power. After the ex-

Struggle for leadership between Prussia and Austria.

citement caused by the outbreaks of 1848 the question of supremacy in Germanic affairs took definite form. Prussia endeavored to form the "League of the Three Kings"—Prussia, Saxony and Hanover—in order to provide a center around which to rally the north German states against Austria. The latter power called on the south German governments to renew the Federal Diet. Austria was joined by Bavaria and Württemberg, and also by the northern powers of Saxony and Hanover, and the diet was declared restored in 1851. A trifling conflict of authority between the people of Hesse and their Elector was used as a stepping-stone by Austria, whose troops invaded the principality to sustain its ruler. Prussian troops occupied Cassel, and war between the two principal powers of Germany seemed imminent. An effort was made to enlist the Russian emperor on the side of Prussia, but the czar not only refused to act, but made threatening declarations against the northern German power. Manteuffel, the Prussian minister, met the Austrian minister Schwarzenberg at Olmutz, and in the negotiations Austria was triumphant, but in the end she paid bitterly for her victory. King Frederick William also withdrew his opposition to the Federal Diet. The true sentiments of the Austrian ruler with regard to a liberal government were now displayed. Confident in his strength, the Emperor abolished the constitution granted during the insurrections of 1848-9 and restored the power of the Romish church. Austria also directed at Prussia a blow in the form of an attempt to weaken and dissolve the Zollverein, in which the influence of Prussia was predominant. As in Austria, the constitution of Prussia was regarded as a menace to the throne, and although it was not withdrawn, it was so weakened and hampered as to be useless as a measure of reform. Encouraged by the example of Austria and Prussia, the smaller potentates withdrew their concessions to the people and absolutism became the rule of government throughout Germany. None of the states took part in the Crimean war until near its close, when Austria assumed such a threatening attitude toward Russia that the latter was forced into a humiliating peace. The mind of Frederick William IV succumbed and in 1857 his brother, William I, assumed the government as regent, and on the death of the king in 1861 he received the crown. On taking the regency he had declared that "Prussia is ready everywhere to protect the right," and dismissed the Manteuffel ministry. This was a significant act, because it was supposed to refer to the surrender of the Germans in Schleswig-Holstein to Denmark. In 1859 the position of Austria in German affairs was materially weakened by the outcome of war with Sardinia and France. The Germans generally looked on the Italians as an oppressed people, and to a certain extent their sympathies were with them, but the dominant influence was a fear of the aggrandizement of France. Austria demanded the support of Prussia, which was refused. Later, Prussia took alarm at the prestige and power of Napoleon III and put her army on a war footing, but failed to appear on the field. After William I came to the throne he began to prepare for the inevitable struggle with Austria. Dimly in the future was seen a unified Germany, whose destiny should be controlled by the leading German state. Prussia was determined to occupy this position, while Austria, although relegated to the second place by the conflict in Italy aspired to her old-time leadership. William I met with great opposition in his preparatory measures, seemingly because of his assumption that "The King received his crown from God," and not from the people. Fortunately for Prussia's ascendancy, William in 1862 placed at the head of his ministry Count Otto Von Bismarck, then Prussian Ambassador at Paris, one of the most daring and unscrupulous statesmen to be found in history. With a firm belief in the great destiny of a united German people, and devoted to the interests of Prussia, he bent every energy of his powerful mind

Constitutional government virtually abolished.

William of Prussia.

The Italian War.

and iron will to the accomplishment of the task before him. In the direction of German unity he was sure of the support of the German masses, who had seen with pleasure the movement of the people south of the Alps toward Italian unification. With the aspirations of his race to political freedom, Bismarck had no sympathy. Prussia was engaged in a constitutional struggle, and Austria took advantage of the consequent distraction to increase her own influence. On the invitation of Austria, a congress assembled at Frankfort in 1863 and declared that a Parliament should be established, composed of a House of Princes and a House of Delegates, the latter to be selected by the legislative houses of the several states, one-third by the hereditary family of each state, and two-thirds by a popular vote. Control of the whole machine was to be in the hands of Austria. Prussia refused to participate in the congress, and was supported by several of the smaller states. The movement came to naught. With contemptuous audacity, Bismarck advised the Austrian minister Rechberg to transfer the capital of Austria to Hungary, *outside of Germany*.

In 1863 the Schleswig-Holstein question became prominent by the death of Frederick VII of Denmark. The London Protocol provided that he should be succeeded by Prince Christian of Glücksburg as Christian IX. When the incorporation of Schleswig with Denmark was attempted in 1863, that province stood on a different footing from Holstein, which was a member of the German Bund. Holstein was occupied by a force of Saxons and Hanoverians. Prussia and Austria, having both signed the London Protocol, were in an embarrassed position. Prussia protested against the incorporation of Schleswig, and Bismarck declared that the first cannon-shot fired in the attempt to enforce it would destroy the obligation imposed on Prussia by the Protocol. Austria could not afford to sacrifice her influence by abandoning the Germans in Schleswig, and therefore favored the protest of Prussia. England withdrew from the dispute on the ground that, as the Protocol was the joint act of the great powers, none of them could act singly to enforce its provisions. At the same time the English encouraged the Danes to resist. Prussia and Austria sent an army into the disputed country and drove out the Danes, following them to the extremity of Jutland. In 1864 a peace was concluded, by which the King of Denmark ceded all his claims upon Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg to the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Austria. Difficulties immediately sprang up between the two great German states over the duchies, which they were supposed to hold in trust. Bismarck in fact declared that Germany held Schleswig-Holstein and Lauenburg for Frederick of Augustenburg, but subsequently he demanded that the troops of the duchies should be incorporated with the Prussian army, that their foreign relations should be under the control of Prussia, and that the fortress of Kiel be given to the same power. Austria expected to establish in the duchies a state which would embarrass Prussia in its plans for supremacy, and supported Frederick in his refusal to accede to the Prussian terms. At a personal interview held between the King and the Emperor at Gastein in 1865, Lauenburg was ceded to Prussia, and a money indemnity therefor paid to Austria, while Schleswig was to be governed by the former power, and Holstein by the latter. Austria encouraged Frederick of Augustenburg in his claims as against Prussia. That power determined to enforce its demands upon the duchies, and to require of several other states that their military organizations be placed under her control. Austria threatened to pass the Schleswig-Holstein controversy over to the Confederation, which could be depended upon to decide against Prussia. Early in 1866 the Austrian government called on all the states under its influence to prepare for war. Bismarck issued a circular letter to the German states setting out that to conserve German inter-

ests a reorganization of the Confederation was necessary; that if Prussia's strength were broken, Germany would cease to be a power in Europe. He also called upon them to state specifically how far Prussia could rely on them for support if attacked by Austria. In addition to this he demanded the assembling of a German parliament. With a hope of rescuing Venetia from Austrian domination, Italy concluded an alliance with Prussia. The Schleswig-Holstein question was passed over to the Confederation by Austria. Bismarck at once declared the Gastein convention broken, and the Prussian troops drove the Austrians out of Holstein. In the meantime the opposition in the Prussian House of Deputies denounced the course of its own government, which continually violated the constitution, but Bismarck, relying on the loyalty of the people, went on with his preparations for war, proposing to strike down Austria with one blow. The Confederation assembled in Vienna, and on its adoption of a motion inimical to Prussia, the ambassador of that country declared the Bund dissolved because of its unconstitutional proceedings. At the same time he brought forward a new constitution, which the states were asked to accept. The war came on at once. Oldenburg, Brunswick, Coburg-Gotha, Mecklenburg and other northern principalities joined with Prussia, while Austria was allied with Hanover, Saxony, Hesse, Bavaria, Württemberg, Darmstadt and Baden. Hanover, Saxony and Hesse-Cassel were at once seized by Prussia. The Prussian forces entered Bohemia and pressed rapidly forward. The Austrian army under Benedek consisted of two hundred and thirty thousand Germans, Hungarians, Slavs and Italians, the latter from the Austrian provinces in Italy, serving unwillingly. The Prussians were superior in numbers, and under the discipline and organization of Von Moltke had reached a high state of efficiency. The two armies met at Königgratz July 3rd, 1866, and when the day closed on the defeated and dispersed army of Austria that power had sunk to a minor place and Prussia occupied the proud position of the leader of Germany. In a frantic attempt to maintain herself, Austria endeavored to secure an alliance with the French emperor, and to set free her own troops in Italy, by the cession of Venetia to Louis Napoleon. This act was viewed throughout the states as decidedly un-German, and alienated all the nationalists from the cause of Austria. Napoleon accepted the cession, but interfered no farther than to offer a peaceable mediation. An armistice was entered into July 22nd at Nikolsburg, which was followed by the Peace of Prague, August 23rd, 1866. Results of the most substantial kind were secured to Prussia by this treaty. Hanover, Schleswig-Holstein, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau and Frankfurt were annexed, uniting the hitherto geographically separated sections of Prussia. The voice of discontent in the kingdom was hushed by the decisive victory of Königgratz; the King, Bismarck and Von Moltke became objects almost of worship. The unconstitutional usurpations by the Crown were ratified, and an act of indemnity was passed for all acts and expenditures which had gone beyond legitimate authority. Nor was the effect less in the direction of German unification. Bismarck was as relentless in the prosecution of his project as he had been in his operations for the supremacy of Prussia, which was only a first step. In conformity with a plan brought forward by him in 1867, all the states north of the Main were formed into a Confederation with Prussia at its head. This union was more than a mere confederation. It was a united state, in which Prussia held control of the military forces, foreign affairs, the postoffice and the telegraphs, weights and measures, and coinage; to the smaller states were left their own matters of internal administration. Secret treaties of offensive and defensive alliance were made by Prussia with Württemberg, Baden, Bavaria and Hesse-Darmstadt, which effectually separated those states from Austria. That empire with its

Königgratz.

mixed nationalities was excluded from the German Confederation. The South German states, except Austria, were also bound to the Confederation by the Zollverein, which was firmly established by a customs-parliament of all the states. The wise government of the Confederation by Prussia soon reconciled petty rivalries, and expressions of regret were frequently heard that the line of the river Main had been permitted to shut out the South German states from membership in the new Bund.

Italy had also profited by the day of Königgratz. The Italian army and navy were both defeated by the Austrians, the first at Custoza and the latter at Lissa, but the Prussian victory caused the annexation of Venetia to Italy, and the long intimacy and conflict between the two countries was signalized by a friendly act of the German power looking to the formation of an undivided Italian state, occupying the whole peninsula.

Notwithstanding the treaties with the south German states, there was developed in them a dislike of Prussia, founded among the political radicals upon the arbitrary, unconstitutional methods of Bismarck, and among the Catholics upon the fact that the leader in German affairs was a great Protestant state. The Causes of socialistic element also began to make head. Centuries of caste had so fixed the social status that an aspirant for higher honors than those which were recognized as legitimate to his class found himself surrounded by an iron wall, to be overleaped only by transcendent genius. Through ages the peasants in the fields had had for ancestors other peasants of the fields, doomed to a life of toil without adequate reward. To them and to the toilers in the workshops the socialistic equality springing from the annihilation of all rank, wealth and position, offered an apparent elysium.

In this situation nothing could more effectually silence internal discontent and forward the cause of unification than a victorious foreign war. The opportunity was soon presented. Louis Napoleon had looked for a long contest between Prussia and Austria, and was both surprised and alarmed by the Prussian victory, which threatened not only to raise up a great German empire, but to destroy the "balance of power" in Europe, to preserve which England and France had taken part in the Crimean war. The events of the Austro-Prussian conflict had followed one another so rapidly, and so uniformly favoring Prussia, that the French emperor had been able to do no more than proffer a peaceable mediation. On the conclusion of the war Napoleon demanded "Compensation for Sadowa" (Königgratz) in the form of a cession to France of the territory on the west bank of the Rhine. Failing in this, the French emperor exhibited a desire to absorb Belgium, and subsequently proposed to annex Luxembourg and part of Limburg. These last named provinces had been placed by treaty in 1815 and 1839 under the sovereignty of the King of Holland. When the German Confederation was dissolved by the events of 1866, they lost entirely their connection with Germany. This demand of Napoleon, made in 1867, threatened to precipitate a war between north Germany and France, but the danger was tided over, ostensibly by a treaty providing that Luxembourg and Limburg should remain under the control of the King of Holland, with a guarantee of neutrality, but really by the unprepared state of the French army. During the next three years both powers were engaged in strengthening their army organizations and endeavoring to make alliances. The great superiority of the needle-gun, demonstrated in the Austro-Prussian war, was sought to be neutralized by the introduction into the French army of the Chassepot rifle, which was really a much better small-arm than the Prussian weapon. The reorganization of the French army, which was effected by Marshal Niel, was more nominal than real, and the emperor was deceived as to the strength of his forces until the stress of the campaign was felt, when the de-