

8th BURAK BORA ANATOLIAN HIGH SCHOOL
MODEL UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCE 2026

JCC: SEVEN YEARS WAR

STUDY GUIDE AND RULES OF PROCEDURE

Heads of Crisis: Onat Kıray and Deniz İslim

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1. LETTERS FROM THE ACADEMIC TEAM

Letters from the Head of Crisis:

Dear delegates of BBALMUN'25

I, the Head of Crisis of this excellent conference and the Under Secretary General of this committee, am delighted to welcome you all to the 8th edition of BBALMUN. It is a great honor to serve you these incredible crisis committees in this lovely conference

Throughout this amazing year we have worked so hard as the BBALMUN academic team. As a result of this hard work, we came up with three great crisis committees. We had a great time and we have made unforgettable memories together in the making of this wonderful conference. We are really excited for these 4 days. We expect creative and sufficient directives which will make the committees only better. In this committee, as the delegates you will use strategies and tactics to rewrite the history.

I want to thank my academic assistants Poyraz and who have worked really hard for this committee. I also want to thank some of my closest friends, our dear Secretary General Duru, Utku the USG of the INTERPOL committee and Elif the USG of the TRIAL committee. I am so grateful that they were with me in this process. Sometimes I can't believe that we are here, time flies when we are having a great time right? I appreciate all crisis Under Secretary Generals Kübra and Demir, academic assistants, our DSG Arel and their work. Lastly, every person that was involved in making this conference deserves a thank.

If you have questions about any of the crisis committees don't hesitate to contact us and I hope you have a great time just like us, see you there!

Best regards,

ONAT KIRAY

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Letters from the Academic Assistants:

Distinguished delegates,

It is my pleasure to welcome you all to the Joint Crisis Committee of Seven Years War. I strongly encourage you to dive deep into the "Further Readings" provided in this guide. Understanding the logistical constraints, the military doctrines of the 18th century and the complex web of colonial interests will be the difference between victory and total collapse.

I look forward to see your diplomacy in the committee room and your strategy on the battlefield. Prepare yourselves for a weekend of intense debate, high-stakes crises and historical reimagination. Fortune favors the bold.

Best regards,

Aysu Ecrin Hızarcıoğlu

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Best regards,

Poyraz Guner

2. INTRODUCTION TO CRISIS COMMITTEES

The procedure of the crisis committees are much different than the GA committees. Firstly, you are not representing a country but representing a character from the date that we will simulate. That means you don't have to use "we" language in these kinds of committees. Crises are the events and updates that the crisis team will give you according to your actions throughout the committee. You will receive lots of them since you will take your next movements according to these crises and updates. One of your main aims in the committee will be solving these crises by taking proper actions. You will take these actions by using your personal or cabinet's power and write directives instead of the resolution papers like in the GA committees. Directives are the documents you write to take immediate actions and create short-term solutions and that is the difference between directives and resolution papers. Now let's learn what exactly are directives and how to write them.

2.1. Directives 101

Types of Directives

Committee Directives: In committee directives, you take actions as the whole cabinet by using the powers of the cabinet. Since these directives will affect all of the committee, it is crucial that you should work together in coordination and reach middle grounds about your ideas and every delegate in the committee must consent to the directive.

Personal Directives: In personal directives, you take actions as yourself by using your own personal powers. Since you will be using your own powers, you should consider what powers does your character have. For example, a character who is a commander can take some military actions etc.

Top Secret Directives: In top secret directives, you also take actions by using your personal powers but the difference is that the directive will not be known by anyone in your cabinet.

Press Releases: In press releases, you are addressing the people in the country by using media organs. They are crucial for controlling the public opinion so you should use them wisely.

How to Write a Good Directive

The directive below was written by us to give you an example for a good directive. It's not similar to most of the directives but a directive like this is good enough for the crisis committees.

[YOUR CABINET] 15.43

From: *Quintus Fabius Maximus Verrucosus*
To: *All the Proconsuls and Military Officials in and near Piacenza*

Every single pig in these villages will be given to military officers. Only 2 pigs will be left in each village in order for villagers to rebreed the pigs. After the pigs have been collected, they will be kept in a rural side of Piacenza in a secure barn and bred constantly. These pigs will be used against the Carthagian Elephants when the time comes. This plan will be explained in the war directive when the battle seems near. This army of pigs will be called "War Pigs".

Features of a Good Directive

- **It bears a proper name:** Always write your character's name and the committee on the directive. It makes life easier for everyone, and also adds another layer of professionalism to the directive.
- **It has the time you sent the directive:** It is highly suggested that you write the time on top of the directive that you are sending. It will be easier for the crisis team to read and reply to your directive.
- **It's reasonable and it's realistic:** While this is a simulation and we do allow some extreme-ness, you can not just write a directive about killing half of the population or things like 'we will use super-duper secret very technological spy devices that can not be noticed or removed of.

- **It's detailed:** It is highly suggested to give enough details in your directives for them to be accepted and evaluated. Your directive must answer the "Five Ws and One H" questions (Who, What, Why, Where, When and How). It is also not specifically written to be a 'Top Secret' so the updates related to this directive will be given to the whole cabinet and not just the delegate.

- **Its purpose and aim is clear:** This is pretty self-explanatory.

- **It's written in a readable manner:** Of course, the crisis team doesn't expect you to use typewriters or pre-Shakespearean English, they only expect a proper handwriting for your own good. Otherwise the crisis team might have a hard time reading your directive which can lead to many bad things. One being the straight-forward rejection of your directive.

- **Importance of ideas:** the most important thing while writing directives is ideas. Every directive comes with pros and cons. So debating upon the idea is the most important part of writing a good directive. Remember that the crisis team will always try to lure you into traps or find the weakest point in your directive. Thus they will force your minds to think the unthinkable.

- **Using accurate information:** Always *QUADRUPLE* check the information and the data you provide in the directive.

- **Stay on the topic, write related directives:** Also self-explanatory.

- **Writing mottos and throwing slogans won't make your directive any better:** We do agree, slogans are fun and help you get in the mindset of your character but cluttering your directive with slogans only makes it harder for the crisis team to read, to understand and to approve.

3. THE CABINET

Prussian Side

Key People

- Hans Joachim von Zieten
- John Campbell, 4th Earl of Loudoun
- Sir Edward Hawke
- Robert Calve
- Charles William Ferdinand
- George Washington
- James Keith
- Seydlits
- George anson
- The duck of Cumberland
- Eyre Coote

Hans Joachim von Zieten

Hans Joachim von Zieten was an important commander for Prussia because of his cavalry management. He was known for his rapid, discipline, and effective leadership in battlefields. Zeiden was a key person for the war and played an important role in several major battles such as the Battle of Leuthen. His cavalry attacks sometimes helped break enemy lines at critical moments. He was especially important in defensive campaigns. His loyalty, honesty to the king and his military skills made him one of Frederick the Great's most trusted commanders.

John Campbell, 4th Earl of Loudoun

John Campbell was a British army officer. He was a commander-in-chief in North America at the beginning of the war. He was the commander who was responsible for defending British colonies against the French. However, his leadership was deemed not enough due to his slow and late movements and ineffective moves. He couldn't capture the crucial French fortress of Louisbourg in 1757. Despite his efforts, he did not achieve major successes. Later British commanders replaced him.

Sir Edward Hawke was one of the most important British admirals. He played a crucial role in providing British sea supremacy in the war. He defeated the French fleet in 1759 in quiberon gulf battle. This victory blocked the French's plan of conquering the England. Hawke's victories guaranteed the authority of England in the seas. His actions weakened French navy strength.

Robert Clive was a soldier and manager who was working for the British army in India. He played a critical role in extending the impact of England via the East India Company. His most known victory is the Plassey battle in 1757. This victory provided England with control of one of the richest regions, Bengal. Clive combined the military forces with political alliances. His success ensured the British superiority in India.

Charles William Ferdinand had been a manager for Prussia in later periods. He was known for his discipline and advanced level military and strategy knowledge. He commanded the Prussian forces against Austria and their allies. He contributed to defending Prussia in difficult terms. He was not as famous as Frederick but he was a crucial military leader.

George Washington served as a young officer in British colonial forces. He gained experience in clashes which happened in Ohio valley. Despite his defeats in the beginning he gained a lot of important things about leadership. Afterwards he became the first president of the United States.

James Keith was a Scottish soldier in the service of Prussia. He was one of the most experienced commanders of Frederick. He had been in important wars including the Pragmatic battle. He was respected because of his professional moves and gallantry. He died in 1758. He was a big loss for the Prussia army.

Seydlitz one of the best cavalry commanders of Prussia. He was known for his powerful and good timing attacks. He played a key role in defeating French forces in Rossbach battle. He gave importance to the discipline and planning before the attacks. His leadership made Prussia's cavalry one of the most powerful ones in Europe.

George Anson was an important British navy commander and he was the first lord of the Admiralty. He organized the royal navy before the war and during the war and he strengthened as well. His reforms developed the discipline and education system. He never been a commander directly but he had an important impact in naval success. He supported global naval operations. His role helped to provide Britain's naval superiority.

The Duke of Cumberland was the son of king II. George and English army commander. In the first terms of the war he commanded the British forces in Europe he was defeated by France in hasten beck battle in 1757. Following this defeat, Hanover signed the Convention of Klosterzeven, which temporarily withdrew it from the war. this decision criticize in Britain. He later withdrew from active command.

Eyre Coote was a British soldier who especially served in India. he fought with French forces. He played a critical role in protecting British domination in south India. He weakened French forces due to victory in the Wandiwash battle . His leadership strengthened Britain's dominance in India.

Key People

- Ernst Gideon von Laudon
- Leopold Joseph von Daun
- Franz Moritz von Lacy
- Pyotr Saltykov
- William Fermor
- Prince Vasily Dolgorukov
- Gottlob Heinrich Curt von Tottleben
- Louis Georges Érasme de Contades
- Louis-Joseph de Montcalm
- Charles, Prince of Soubise
- Hubert de Bienne
- Thomas Arthur, Comte de Lally

Ernst Gideon von Laudon was one of the roughest and most successful generals of Austria who played such important roles, especially against Prussia in the Battle of Kunersdorf. He was a brave commander, especially against Frederick The Great, and wasn't afraid to take risks. Later on, he took part in Ottoman-Austria wars as well. Unlike Daun, he had more of a thrusting command style.

Leopold Joseph von Daun was one of the supreme commanders of Austria and defeated Frederick in the Battle of Kolin which was the first big defeat for Frederick The Great. He used such a cautious and protective strategy but still, he couldn't fully end Prussia and was way too wary.

Franz Moritz von Lacy played a pretty important role in the Austrian Army Reforms and was Daun's best friend. He was pretty skilled in logistics and organising and he helped the military to become more systematic and modern.

Pyotr Saltykov was one of the most successful commanders of Russia who had almost defeated Frederick The Great for good in the Battle of Kunersdorf, which was the most devastating war for Prussia. But even after the victory, there wasn't a march to Berlin due to the lack of coordination between Russia and Austria. After all, he was a disciplined yet wary commander.

William Fermor fought against Frederick in the Battle of Zorndorf which tactically ended unclear but was pretty bloody. It was a clear sign of the durability and resistance of the Russian army. He was later on discharged.

Prince Vasily Dolgorukov as the Russian aristocrat and soldier he was, he held high-level positions during the war. He was efficient in the East Prussia operations of Russia and his political networks helped him in his military career.

Gottlob Heinrich Curt von Tottleben despite originally being a Saxon, he worked for the Russians. In 1760, he took role in the short-term invasion of Berlin. He was more of an adventurous and moot person, which caused his loyalty to be occasionally doubted. He participated in skew and quick operations.

Louis Georges Érasme de Contades was a French commander on the front of Germany and he lost the Battle of Minden against the British and Prussian forces which caused France's position in German to weaken. He was criticized in the military, mostly due to his coordination and systematic mistakes.

Louis-Joseph de Montcalm as the French commander in the front of North America, he was known by the victories of Fort Oswego and Fort William. He tried to emerge the European type of orderly war tactics into the colony yet he was a key person in the loss of French Canada. In the Battle of Quebec, he got defeated and died.

Thomas Arthur, Comte de Lally commanded in the front of India and fought against the British, especially in the Battle of Wandiwash. After the defeats, he was executed once he was back in France, it was later then when there was a restoration of reputation for him. His harsh attitude and bad relationships with local forces were some of the reasons of his failures.

Hubert de Brienne was really efficient in naval forces and colonial operations and he took role in the activities of the French navy in the Atlantic and Caribbean which was strategically pretty important then since the French weakness in naval battles affected the fate of the war.

Charles, Prince of Soubise one of the French commanders in the front of Germany who got defeated really bad by Frederick The Great in the Battle of Rossbach. This one defeat was a big hit to the military prestige of France. His military capability was highly criticized, considering he rose to power thanks to his palace networks.

4. Background Information

FRANCE

During the Seven Years' War of 1756-1763, France was one of the most powerful empires in Europe under the rule of King Louis XV from the Bourbon dynasty. However, the empire was facing several serious internal issues, such as weak finances, corruption, and poor coordination between its army and navy. France joined the war to stop the rise of Prussia in Europe and the increasing dominance of Britain.

Although France was still large in number and respected, its military and naval power were slowly declining. In Europe, French armies, allied with Austria and Russia, fought against Prussia and Britain. After some early successes, they suffered major defeats in important battles, which damaged the country's pride and morale. Overseas, France's colonial empire included North America, the Caribbean, Africa, and even India. French commanders succeeded in Canada at the beginning of the war, but after 1759, the British army proved stronger by taking Quebec and eventually Montreal. In India, French fortunes deteriorated because the British East India Company won important battles and occupied major trading cities.

By the end of the war, France had lost most of its overseas lands and retained only a few small colonies. These losses were confirmed by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. France was left with heavy debt, a damaged military reputation, and growing disaffection among its population toward the monarchy. In the Caribbean and Africa, French colonies did not fare much better, as British fleets seized valuable islands and trading stations.

During the years of conflict, France's supplies were almost depleted, and civilian morale reached a very low point. The once-mighty kingdom was unable to properly defend either its empire or its honor. The war ended with the Treaty of Paris in 1763, and France lost most of its colonies in North America and India. France was no longer the world's leading power, while Britain emerged as the dominant global empire.

The defeat left France seriously in debt, politically divided, and humiliated on the international stage. Still, the French people and their leaders did not forget this defeat. The need for revenge and the restoration of national honor would later encourage

France to support the American Revolution in the 1770s and to seek a new era of glory in the following century.

GREAT BRITAIN

The Seven Years' War took place between 1756 and 1763, during the leadership of King George II and the early years of his successor, George III. Great Britain entered the war with the aim of maintaining its position as the leading global power. Britain saw the war as an opportunity to break France's influence in the world, weaken its overseas empire, and protect British commercial dominance across the globe.

For this purpose, Britain relied mostly on its navy, which was better organized, more disciplined, and generally accepted as the strongest armed force of the period. This enabled Great Britain to protect its trade routes, block enemy ports, and carry troops rapidly to distant colonies. In Europe, Britain supported Prussia and allowed it to handle most of the land battles, while Britain took responsibility for fighting France overseas.

Britain and France were the two largest colonial powers of the period. France controlled New France in North America, which stretched from the St. Lawrence River down to Louisiana, as well as important colonies in the Caribbean, West Africa, and India. These colonies were valuable because of trade, natural resources, and military positioning, but they were scattered and difficult to defend. Britain, on the other hand, had strong and rapidly growing colonies along the eastern coast of North America, key islands in the Caribbean, and expanding influence in India through the British East India Company.

Britain's colonial system was economically powerful, with thriving trades in commodities such as tobacco, sugar, and textiles. This gave Britain a major financial advantage over France. As the war progressed, Britain used its naval superiority to strike at French colonies. The British fleet captured French Caribbean islands, destroyed French ports, and cut off supplies to North America and India.

In North America, British generals conducted successful campaigns against French forces. The occupation of Quebec in 1759 became a major turning point in the war. In India, British commanders defeated French forces and their allies, allowing Britain to take control of key trading centers and weaken France's position. Meanwhile, the British alliance with Prussia kept France under pressure in Europe and prevented it from concentrating its full strength overseas.

By the end of the conflict, Britain emerged as the main victor of the Seven Years' War. The Treaty of Paris in 1763 granted Britain control over almost all of France's territory in North America, many of its Caribbean islands, and large parts of its influence in India. Britain became the strongest global empire of the period. However, the cost of the war placed Britain in heavy debt, which later led to new taxes on its American colonies.

RUSSIA

During the Seven Years' War, Russia was ruled by Empress Elizabeth Petrovna. Under her leadership, Russia followed policies that aimed to modernize the state, strengthen the army, and increase Russia's influence in Europe. Although Russia was not a traditional colonial power like Britain or France, it was one of the largest land empires in the world, stretching from Eastern Europe to the Pacific Ocean.

Russia's main strategic goal in the war was to stop the rise of Prussia, which was becoming a rising and threatening military power in Europe. By forming an alliance with Austria and France, Russia hoped to secure its western borders and improve its political position in Europe.

Russia entered the war with a large army that had been constantly improving due to earlier reforms. The Russian army was known for its size, endurance, and ability to maintain long campaigns, but it was not as modern or as fast-moving as the Prussian forces. Russian soldiers were experienced in fighting in harsh climates because of their

country's geography, and the empire had enough manpower to replace losses during long conflicts.

Russian military organization was still developing, but the state invested heavily in discipline, training, and artillery, which became one of its strengths. Unlike Britain or France, Russia did not rely on a strong navy. Its naval forces in the Baltic Sea were smaller and mainly focused on regional defense rather than global operations.

Economically, Russia was less industrialized than many European countries, but it had significant natural resources and a growing agricultural sector. The Russian economy was mainly based on farming. Although this limited large-scale industrial production, it provided a steady supply of food and raw materials for the army. The Russian government also invested in weapons, uniforms, and military equipment, supported by state-controlled factories.

While Russia lacked the commercial wealth of Britain or the colonial income of France, it compensated with large territory, a large population, and a government willing to devote major resources to military needs. Russia entered the conflict from a position of rising strength. It had recently expanded its borders and was becoming more active in European politics.

Russia's military reforms, geographic size, and population made it a formidable opponent. Even though Russia had limited naval capacity and less economic modernization, it had the advantage of strategic depth and long-term endurance in war. By the start of the conflict, Russia was already a rising European power with growing influence. Its army and political position made it one of the key members of the anti-Prussian alliance.

During the war, Russia achieved several important victories against Prussia and even occupied parts of East Prussia. However, after the death of Empress Elizabeth in 1762, Peter III took Russia out of the conflict and made peace with Prussia. In conclusion,

Russia did not gain major territorial rewards, but it proved its military strength and emerged from the war as one of Europe's most influential powers.

PRUSSIA

Before the war, Prussia was an agricultural country, and much of the land belonged to the Junkers, the aristocratic class of noble landowners. Industry was still quite limited, but Prussia was improving in arms production and ironworking. Its tax system was strict, centralized, and military-focused because it helped finance the army.

During the war, the long conflict placed heavy pressure on Prussia's economy. Grain production fell, and the country was strongly affected by the war. Frederick managed to keep Prussia going through financial reforms and foreign loans. Financial help from Britain also played an important role in supporting Prussia's economy.

In the 18th century, Prussia was located in northern Germany, with Brandenburg as its center. Its lands extended from the Elbe River to the Baltic Sea, with some scattered territories in the west near the Rhine River. This location gave Prussia a major advantage because it acted as a natural bridge between eastern and western Europe, which was useful for trade and military activity. However, the fact that its lands were separated was also a major disadvantage, since it made defense more difficult.

At that time, Prussia was ruled by an absolute monarchy under Frederick II, also known as Frederick the Great, who ascended to the throne in 1740. A highly centralized bureaucracy controlled the state, and almost all government institutions were subordinated to the king. Frederick's vision was shaped by Enlightenment ideas. He saw himself as an enlightened autocrat and described himself as "the first servant of the state." His aim was to break Austria's hegemony and make Prussia one of the five largest powers in Europe.

The army was Prussia's strongest institution and was one of the largest in Europe compared to the size of its population. The officer class consisted mostly of Junker nobles, which kept the aristocracy loyal to the state. The Prussian army was known as one of the most disciplined armies in the world and became famous for its strict training system and drill methods. In terms of weapons and tactics, line infantry tactics were perfected, and fast maneuvers and sudden attacks were used against enemies as surrounding strategies. Frederick II believed that attack was the best defense.

Prussian society was divided into three main groups: Junkers, the peasantry, and the bourgeoisie. The Junkers were the military and political nobles and large landholders. The peasantry formed the financial backbone of the country, as they were dependent on the land and lived under heavy taxation. The bourgeoisie was a smaller but developing class engaged in trade. Discipline, obedience, and military virtues were important qualities in Prussian society. Literacy also increased during Frederick's reign, with education becoming closely related to civil service.

Lutheranism, a form of Protestantism, was the official sect, but there was religious tolerance. Frederick II famously said that in his kingdom, everyone could go to heaven in their own way. German was the official language, but French was common among the ruling class and nobles. Even Frederick II wrote in French and saw himself as connected to French culture.

HUNGARY

In the mid-18th century, Hungary had a rural, agriculture-dominated economy. Its main products were grain, livestock, and wine. Large estates were controlled by the nobility, especially the Magyar aristocracy, while peasants worked under serfdom. Hungary became a crucial supplier of agricultural goods to Austria and Bohemia, which reinforced Vienna's war economy.

The nobility was dominant in society, and the noble class continued to hold important political and economic privileges, including exemption from taxation. Most of the population consisted of serfs tied to noble estates. Although Maria Theresa's early reforms slightly eased the burdens of peasants, true freedom had not yet begun.

Before the Seven Years' War, Hungary was a country with great ethnic diversity. The multiethnic kingdom included Magyars, Slovaks, Germans, Romanians in Transylvania, and Serbs and Croats mostly in border regions. Hungary did not really have an independent army. Instead, its manpower and resources were tied to the imperial army. Hungarian troops were very significant because of their mobility and cavalry skills, especially the hussars.

Even though Hungary was not one of the primary centers of the Seven Years' War, it was vital for troop supplies, agricultural production, logistics, and secure hinterland support for the Habsburg army. By the 1740s and 1750s, Hungarian hussars had become a model for light cavalry across Europe.

In terms of religion, Catholicism was dominant and promoted by the Habsburg dynasty. The Church played an effective and central role in education and social life. Religious tensions had eased compared to earlier centuries, partly because of Maria Theresa's cautious but stabilizing policies.

Because of the country's multiethnic structure, multilingualism was also common. Hungarian, or Magyar, was mostly spoken by the nobles and the majority of the population, but German was becoming increasingly dominant, especially in administration, military affairs, and imperial bureaucracy. Slovak, Romanian, Serbian, Croatian, and German also had strong presences in some regions. Language had not yet become fully politicized, but the tension between German as the imperial language and Hungarian as a symbol of native identity was already visible. This later contributed to nationalism in the 19th century.

AUSTRIA

Before the Seven Years' War, Austria was a large empire ruled by the Habsburgs. It was located in the center of Europe, which meant that it included many different nations. Because the empire was large and diverse, logistics and troop movements were difficult. Also, its border with Prussia made Silesia strategically important.

Austria's economy was mainly agricultural. Hungary and Bohemia were key farming regions. Industry was growing, but it was still weaker than Prussia's. War was very expensive and placed pressure on Austria's already limited financial resources. Taxation was complicated because each region had different laws.

Due to its geographic location, Austria was a multiethnic empire that included Germans, Hungarians, Czechs, Slovaks, Croats, Slovenes, Italians, and many others. Most people were peasants, and feudal relations were still strong. Society was divided into three major groups: nobles, clergy, and peasants.

Religion in Austria was officially Catholicism, and the Habsburgs were seen as defenders of the Catholic faith. Some regions had Protestant minorities, which sometimes caused tension, but these tensions were not the main issue of the period.

German was the official administrative language and was spoken by the elite. However, many different languages were also spoken across the empire because of its ethnic diversity. This made governance harder, but it also contributed to cultural richness.

At that time, Maria Theresa was the ruler. After the War of the Austrian Succession, Austria wanted to recover Silesia. Meanwhile, Prussia was rising as a major power and had become Austria's main rival. Austria changed its alliances and joined France because of the Diplomatic Revolution.

Austria had a large and experienced army, but modernization was still necessary. Maria Theresa introduced reforms to improve discipline and organization in the army.

Austria's main goal was to retake Silesia. To achieve this, Austria relied on cooperation with Russia and France in order to balance Prussia's strong army. Most fighting on this front took place in Central Europe, especially against Prussia.

5. TIMELINE OF EVENTS

GREAT NORTHERN WAR (1700-1720)

At the beginning of the 18th century, Sweden dominated Northern Europe under the rule of Charles XII. Sweden controlled important ports around the Baltic Sea and maintained an effective army. However, its neighbors, such as Russia, Denmark-Norway, and Saxony-Poland, believed that Swedish dominance was limiting their political and economic growth in Northern Europe. A coalition led by Russia, together with Denmark-Norway and Saxony-Poland, started a war to break Swedish power.

Under the rule of Peter the Great, Russia used this conflict as a chance to transform itself. The Russian army adopted Western European military tactics, introduced new artillery systems, and restructured its command hierarchy. Russia also founded St. Petersburg, a new capital designed to face Europe.

In conclusion, when the war ended in 1721, Sweden had lost a major part of its influence in Northern Europe, while Russia emerged as a fully recognized great power with direct access to the Baltic Sea. This shift in power permanently changed the European balance. Russia began to see itself as a protector of stability in Central and Eastern Europe, and later it viewed the rapid rise of Prussia as a strategic danger. The rivalry between Russia and Prussia, rooted in this period, would strongly shape the alliances of the Seven Years' War.

WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION

After the death of Emperor Charles VI in 1740, his daughter Maria Theresa inherited the Habsburg lands. Despite previous agreements, several powers challenged her rule. Frederick II, the king of Prussia, used this moment to conquer Silesia, which was one of Austria's richest provinces.

Prussia's unexpected military success shocked Europe. Frederick's disciplined and strong army defeated Austria several times, proving that Prussia was no longer a minor state but a rising great power. Although Austria survived the war, it was forced to accept the permanent loss of Silesia.

This outcome deeply shaped European politics. Austria sought revenge and became determined to regain its prestige. In conclusion, Prussia became surrounded by enemies such as Austria, Russia, and later France. Britain ultimately turned to supporting Prussia because it feared instability on the continent and wanted to strengthen colonial security. The war created unresolved tensions that directly led to the Seven Years' War.

THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION: THE BEGINNING OF COLONIAL AND NAVAL RIVALRIES (1701-1714)

The War of the Spanish Succession broke out after the death of Charles II, the king of Spain. Other European kingdoms feared that a French-Spanish union under the Bourbon dynasty would create an unstoppable superpower. Because of this, Britain, Austria, and the Dutch Republic formed a coalition to block French power.

The war extended across Europe and overseas colonies. Britain strengthened its navy, protected its trade routes, and attacked enemy colonies. The Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 changed the global balance of power. Spain lost most of its European empire, France

became financially weakened, and Britain gained major commercial advantages, such as trading rights and strategic locations.

In conclusion, Britain emerged from this war as the world's leading naval and colonial power. At the same time, the war created a permanent British-French rivalry based on trade, colonies, trade routes, and naval dominance. This hostility would later explode again during the Seven Years' War.

WHY DID THE SIDES WANT TO FIGHT?

The Seven Years' War did not break out because of only one reason. It was the result of many factors, such as rivalry between European countries, colonial competition, land conflicts, and the balance of power.

During this period, no country was the absolute ruler of the continent. However, Great Britain was becoming more powerful in naval strength and trade, while Prussia was becoming important because of its strong army. France and Austria did not want to lose their influence in Europe.

GREAT BRITAIN

Great Britain entered the war because colonial power and trade rivalry were becoming more important than ever. Britain rapidly became one of the most powerful countries due to its industry and trade power. It had a major advantage in becoming the dominant ruler of the seas because it had one of the most powerful navies. France's power in North America and its trade centers in India were in direct conflict with British interests.

Great Britain wanted to break French influence overseas and become the dominant power in world trade. Furthermore, the fact that the King of England was also the ruler of the Electorate of Hanover in Germany forced Britain to become directly involved in

continental European developments. France's threat to Hanover was a major factor in Britain's active participation in the war through its alliance with Prussia.

FRANCE

France entered the war because it wanted to stop Great Britain's growing global power and protect its great power status. Despite France's strong army and navy in the middle of the 18th century, Great Britain was ahead in colonial power and naval dominance. French lands in North America and trading centers in India were under threat because of Britain.

Furthermore, Prussia's rapid rise in Central Europe disrupted France's traditional balance of power policy. Therefore, France aimed to weaken Prussia and eliminate Britain's ally in continental Europe by forming an alliance with its historical enemy, Austria. Through the war, France sought to protect its colonies and re-establish its political influence in Europe.

PRUSSIA

Frederick II was the ruler of Prussia during this period. At this time, Prussia rapidly became a great power because it had a strong army and a more powerful economy due to Silesia, which it had taken from Austria. However, this situation made Prussia a common target of the great powers in Europe, especially Austria, France, and Russia.

Austria's ambition to take Silesia back was a serious threat to Prussia. With the alliance it made with Britain, Prussia defended itself from all sides and also protected its economy. In conclusion, for Prussia, the Seven Years' War was not mainly a war to expand its lands. Its main purpose was to keep the country alive and defend what it already had.

AUSTRIA

Austria entered the war to take Silesia back and regain its traditional dominance in Central Europe. Losing Silesia made Austria economically and politically weaker. Queen Maria Theresa did not accept the defeat and made the recovery of Silesia a state policy.

For this purpose, Austria did not hesitate to form an alliance with France, which had been its enemy for centuries. It also brought Russia into the coalition, and in this way, Prussia was surrounded from all sides. Therefore, Austria's main purpose was to stop the rise of Prussia and restore its own influence.

RUSSIA

Russia entered the war because it viewed the rise of Prussia as a threat. In the 18th century, Russia wanted to become a permanent and influential great power in European politics. Prussia's military success and powerful army created a serious risk for Russia's western borders.

In this way, Russia wanted to weaken Prussia and shift the balance of power in Central Europe in its own favor by forming a coalition with Austria and France. Furthermore, Russia saw the war as an opportunity to have a voice in European diplomacy and demonstrate its military capabilities. Russia's participation played an important role in transforming the Seven Years' War into a wider power struggle.

COLONIAL SITUATION IN NORTH AMERICA BEFORE THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

In the middle of the 18th century, North America became the center of the rivalry between France and Great Britain. Both powers viewed the continent as an important strategic region that could help determine the dominant global ruler. Spain and Portugal

also had territories in the southern parts of the continent, but the actual rivalry was mainly in the north.

GREAT BRITAIN

Britain controlled thirteen colonies along the Atlantic coast, stretching from New England in the north to Georgia in the south. By 1750, these colonies had a population of more than two million people. This gave Britain a major advantage in manpower, economy, and settlement.

Economically, Britain was very powerful. The northern colonies were strong in shipbuilding, fishing, and trade. The middle colonies produced large amounts of grain, while the southern colonies relied on agriculture and exported tobacco and rice.

This strong economy allowed Britain to provide ships and supplies. British ports were connected to the Royal Navy, which allowed fast movement of troops and resources. Militarily, Britain relied on regular troops and colonial militias. Although the militias were not disciplined enough compared to professional soldiers, Britain's major advantage was its powerful navy, which protected trade routes and reinforced the colonies.

FRANCE

France controlled a sparsely populated empire known as New France. This empire included Canada, the Great Lakes region, and the Mississippi River Valley, extending down to Louisiana. Despite its enormous size, the French population in North America was less than 70,000. This made the territory difficult to defend.

The French colonial economy depended mostly on the fur trade, so France had to cooperate closely with Native American tribes. This approach helped France build strong alliances with Native American groups. France also built many forts along rivers and

lakes in order to control British transportation routes and block British expansion. These forts connected Canada with Louisiana and effectively surrounded the British colonies, threatening their expansion.

Militarily, French forces relied on smaller professional units, colonial troops, and Native American allies. They were effective in forests and frontier combat. However, French forces struggled in large-scale battles and suffered from limited naval support compared to Britain, since France was not as powerful at sea.

CAPITALIST FINANCE AND BANKING

In 1756, Prussia invaded Saxony, which officially triggered the war. Britain and France entered open naval conflict, and the war expanded across four continents: Europe, the Americas, Asia, and Africa. This made it one of the first truly global wars.

In 1757, Frederick the Great won decisive victories at Rossbach and Leuthen, which helped Britain increase its financial and military commitment to the war. In 1758, Britain captured Louisbourg in Canada, and British forces also gained the upper hand against France in India. Because of this, Prussia began to suffer severe manpower and economic losses.

Later, 1759 became known as the "Year of Miracles" for Britain. Britain captured Quebec, securing its dominance in North America. British naval superiority also effectively neutralized France at sea, which pushed France into a deep financial crisis. In the following years, Prussia was on the edge of collapse, but Russia's withdrawal from the war changed the situation. Tsar Peter III, who admired Prussia, ended Russian participation in the war. Spain also joined the war on France's side, but its colonies were attacked by Britain.

Mounting debts and failed tax reforms increased distrust in the French financial system and weakened its capacity. Britain, despite having the largest national debt in the world,

managed to financially sustain itself because of its advanced banking system. To service this debt, Britain introduced taxation in the American colonies, which became one of the key financial reasons behind the American Revolution.

Meanwhile, France remained in a deep fiscal crisis. War debts directly contributed to the financial collapse that later culminated in the French Revolution.

REFORMATION AND COUNTER-REFORMATION

Before the war, there were many reasons that shaped the positions of both sides. Reform drivers such as financial problems, Enlightenment ideas, and bureaucratic states played an important role. Early modern wars were becoming longer and more expensive, which created pressure for fiscal and military reforms. Among elites, ideas of rational governance and merit-based administration began to spread. Central governments tried to standardize taxation, military recruitment, and supply systems.

In 1517, Martin Luther challenged the authority of the Christian Church by publishing the Ninety-Five Theses. The Reformation led to the spread of Protestantism across Europe, especially in German states, England, and Scandinavia. This caused Europe to become religiously divided between Catholic and Protestant powers. Religion began to affect alliances, territorial control, and the legitimacy of rulers.

In response, the Catholic Church began the Counter-Reformation. Catholic doctrine and authority were strengthened by the Council of Trent. Religious tension became closely tied to political rivalry, especially in the Holy Roman Empire.

Before the Seven Years' War, some religious tension still existed, mostly because of the legacy of the Thirty Years' War. With the Peace of Westphalia, state sovereignty and religious tolerance had been accepted. Even though open religious wars decreased, sectarian divisions continued to keep distrust between states alive. The rivalry between Catholic Austria and Protestant Prussia became deeper.

The Seven Years' War was not directly a religious war by itself, but the historical divisions caused by the Reformation and Counter-Reformation still had an impact. Prussia was also seen as a threatening actor for the balance of power in Central Europe partly because of its Protestant identity.

THIRTY YEARS' WAR

The Thirty Years' War started in the Holy Roman Empire and affected the whole of Europe over time. The reasons behind the war included political power struggles, dynastic rivalries, land control, and different understandings of state sovereignty. At first, it began as an internal crisis within the empire, but it soon turned into an international war with the involvement of other European powers.

The Defenestration of Prague was the event that started the war. The nobles in Bohemia launched an open rebellion by throwing out imperial representatives, creating the first major challenge against imperial authority.

Between 1618 and 1623, the rebellion was suppressed, and Bohemia came back under imperial control. The Battle of White Mountain ended with a clear victory for imperial forces. Between 1625 and 1629, King Christian IV of Denmark became involved in the war to increase his influence in northern Germany. The imperial army defeated Denmark, which then retreated with the Treaty of Lubeck.

Between 1630 and 1635, King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden also joined the war to protect Swedish interests in the Baltic region. The course of the war changed with the Battle of Breitenfeld, although Adolphus's death slowed Swedish progress. In the following years, from 1635 until 1648, France directly joined the war to weaken the powers surrounding the Holy Roman Empire. With this, the war increasingly turned into a struggle for hegemony among European powers. The longer the war continued, the more destruction and population loss it caused in Germany.

The Peace of Westphalia finally ended the Thirty Years' War. The sovereignty of imperial principalities was recognized, and the modern state system and diplomatic order gained more importance in Europe. The Holy Roman Empire's central authority weakened. In the end, the balance of power in Europe was reshaped, France and Sweden gained more power, Germany suffered major financial and demographic losses, and interest-based balance of power policies became more important than long-term ideological wars.

THE STATE OF BRITISH AND FRENCH COLONIES IN ASIA AND INDIA

In 1600, the British East India Company was founded. Later, the French Compagnie des Indes was also founded. Both governments established factories in Asia and made agreements with local officials. The goal was not only governance, but also trade in spices, textiles, and other valuable goods.

In India, Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta became important centers for Britain, while Puducherry, Chandernagore, and Karaikal became important centers for France. European powers began to take advantage of the growing weakness of the Mughal Empire. This situation allowed both Britain and France to expand their influence through trade, diplomacy, and military alliances with local rulers.

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