

During the 5th and 6th centuries the country was successively occupied by the Boii, Vandals, Heruli, Rugii, Goths, Huns, Lombards, and Avari. About 568, after the Lombards had settled in Upper Italy, the River Enns became the boundary between the Bajuvari, a people of German origin, and the Avari, who had come from the east. In 788 the Avari crossed the Enns and attacked Bavaria, but were subsequently driven back by Charlemagne, and forced to retreat as far as the Raab, their country from the Enns to that river being then made a part of Germany. It was taken by the Hungarians in 900, but was again annexed to Germany in 955 by Otho I. In 983 the emperor appointed Leopold I., of Babenberg or Bamberg, margrave of Austria, and his dynasty ruled the country for 263 years. He died in 994, and was succeeded by his son, Henry I., who governed till 1018. In 1156 Austria received an accession of territory west of the Enns, and was raised to a duchy by the Emperor Frederick I. The first duke was Henry Jasomirgott, who took part in the second crusade. He removed the ducal residence to Vienna, and began the building of St Stephen's cathedral. His successor, Leopold V., in 1192, obtained Styria as an addition to his territory, and Frederick II. received possession of Carniola. Frederick, in the latter years of his life, contemplated the erection of Austria into a kingdom, but his sudden death in a battle against the Magyars, in 1246, put an end to the project, and with him the line became extinct.

The Emperor Frederick II. now declared Austria and Styria to have lapsed to the imperial crown, and appointed a lieutenant to govern them on the part of the empire. But claims to the succession were brought forward by descendants of the female branch of the Babenberg line; and after various contests Ottocar, son of the king of Bohemia, gained possession about 1252 of the duchies of Austria and Styria. In 1269 he succeeded to Carinthia, a part of Carniola and Friuli; but he lost all by refusing to acknowledge the Emperor Rudolph of Hapsburg, and eventually fell in battle in an attempt to recover them in 1278.

The emperor now took possession of the country, and appointed his eldest son governor; but subsequently, in 1282, having obtained the sanction of the electors of the empire to the act, he conferred the duchies of Austria and Styria, with the province of Carinthia, on his sons Albert and Rudolph, and thus introduced the Hapsburg dynasty. The brothers transferred Carinthia to Meinhard, count of Tyrol; and in 1283 Albert became sole possessor of Austria, Styria, and Carniola. He increased his possessions considerably by wars with his neighbours, but was murdered at Rheinfelden in 1308, when on an expedition against the Swiss, by his nephew, John of Swabia, whom he had deprived of his hereditary possessions. He was succeeded by his five sons, Frederick, Leopold, Henry, Albert, and Otto. In 1314 Frederick, the eldest, was set up by a party as emperor in opposition to Louis, duke of Bavaria, but was defeated and taken prisoner by his rival in 1322. In 1315 Duke Leopold was defeated in an attempt to recover the forest towns of Switzerland which had revolted from his father. Leopold died in 1326, Henry in 1327, and Frederick in 1330. The two surviving brothers then made peace with the Emperor Louis, and in 1335 they acquired Carinthia by inheritance. On the death of Otto in 1339 Albert became sole ruler. He died in 1358. His son and successor, Rudolph II., finished the church of St Stephen's and founded the university of Vienna, dying childless in 1365. He was succeeded by his two brothers, Albert III. and Leopold III., who in 1379 divided their possessions between them, the former taking the duchy of Austria, the latter Styria and other parts. Leopold fell at Sempach in

1386, but his descendants continued to rule in Styria. Albert acquired Tyrol and some other districts, and died in 1395. He was succeeded by his son, Albert IV., who was poisoned at Znaim in 1404, when on an expedition against Procopius, count of Moravia. Albert V. succeeded his father, and having married the daughter of the Emperor Sigismund, he obtained the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia, and became emperor (Albert II.) in 1438. He died the following year, and was succeeded by his posthumous son Ladislaus, who died without issue in 1457. The Austrian branch of the family thus became extinct, and was succeeded by that of Styria. The crowns of Hungary and Bohemia passed for a time into other hands.

The possession of Austria, which in 1453 had been raised to an archduchy, was for some years a subject of dispute between the Emperor Frederick III. and his brothers, but at length, on the death of Albert in 1463, the emperor obtained sole possession. His son Maximilian, by marrying the daughter of Charles the Bold, acquired the Netherlands in 1477, but on the death of his father in 1493 he succeeded him as emperor, and transferred the government of the Netherlands to his son Philip. He added Tyrol and some parts of Bavaria to his paternal possessions, and made some advances towards the recovery of Hungary and Bohemia. His son Philip, by his marriage with Johanna, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, acquired a right to the crown of Spain, but died in 1506. Maximilian died in 1519, and was succeeded by his grandson Charles (son of Philip), who two years before had obtained the Spanish crown, and was now made emperor under the title of Charles V. By treaties dated 1521 and 1524, Charles resigned all his hereditary possessions in Germany, except the Netherlands, to his brother Ferdinand. The latter, by his marriage with Anna, sister of the king of Hungary, acquired right to the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, together with Moravia, Silesia, and Lausatia. His right to Hungary, however, was contested by John Zapolya, waywode of Transylvania, who was elected by a party of the nobles, and was crowned king in 1527. Being unable to cope single-handed with Ferdinand, John sought the aid of the sultan, Soliman II., who in 1529 advanced with a large army to the very gates of Vienna; but after several ineffectual attempts to take the city he raised the siege and returned to Buda. At length, in 1535 an agreement was come to, in terms of which John was allowed to retain the title of king, together with half of Hungary, but his descendants were to be entitled to Transylvania only. John died in 1540, but the people of Lower Hungary were opposed to Ferdinand, and set up the son of their late king against him. In the struggle which ensued the aid of the Turks was again invoked, and the result was that Ferdinand had to agree to pay an annual sum of 30,000 ducats to the sultan for this part of Hungary. Ferdinand was also under the necessity of surrendering Würtemberg to Duke Ulrich, on condition of its remaining a fief of Austria and reverting to that country on the extinction of the male line. Notwithstanding this, the possessions of the German line of the house of Austria at this time are estimated at 114,000 square miles. On the abdication of Charles V. in 1556, Ferdinand succeeded to the imperial throne. He died in 1564, leaving directions for the division of his possessions among his three sons. The eldest, Maximilian II., received the imperial crown, together with Austria, Hungary, and Bohemia; the second, Ferdinand, obtained Tyrol and Lower Austria; and the third, Charles, was made master of Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, and Görz. In 1556 the sultan Soliman again marched at the head of a great army into Hungary, but met with a very determined resistance at Szigeth, before which town he was suddenly cut off by apoplexy,

Peace was concluded with his successor, and in 1572 Maximilian caused his eldest son Rudolph to be crowned king of Hungary. He was afterwards crowned king of Bohemia, and was also elected king of the Romans. Maximilian died in 1576, and was succeeded by Rudolph on the imperial throne. This monarch was little fitted to rule, and left the management of affairs very much to others. He was entirely under the power of the Jesuits, set at nought the ancient laws of the country, and persecuted the Protestants. The latter, under Bocskay, revolted in 1604, and having secured the aid of the sultan, gained repeated victories over the imperial troops, compelling Rudolph to give them terms of peace in 1606. During this reign the possessions of the Archduke Ferdinand of Tyrol reverted to the two other lines; while in 1608 Rudolph was compelled to cede Hungary, and in 1611 Bohemia and Austria, to his brother Matthias, who on the death of Rudolph in 1612 was crowned emperor. His reign was full of promise, but unfortunately it was only of short duration. Being an old man and childless, he chose as his successor his cousin Ferdinand, archduke of Styria, whom he caused to be crowned king of Bohemia in 1616, and of Hungary in 1618. He died the following year, when Ferdinand became emperor.

Before the death of Matthias, the memorable struggle between Roman Catholicism and Protestantism, known as the *Thirty Years' War* (1618 to 1648), had commenced. It originated in an insurrection of the Protestants of Bohemia, who renounced their allegiance to Ferdinand and chose for their king the elector palatine Frederick V. Frederick was supported by all the Protestant princes except the elector of Saxony, while Ferdinand was assisted by the king of Spain and the other Catholic princes. At first success attended the arms of the insurgents, who repeatedly routed the imperial troops, and even laid siege to Vienna. But the Duke Maximilian of Bavaria, coming to the assistance of the imperialists at the head of a well-appointed army, totally defeated Frederick at the White Hill near Prague (8th November 1620). The following day Prague opened its gates to the conqueror, and in a short time the whole country was reduced to subjection, and the territories of the elector palatine divided among the allies. The war might have ended here had Ferdinand adopted a conciliatory policy, but impelled by revenge and fanatical zeal he adopted an opposite course, and instituted against the Protestants a severe persecution. They were thus again compelled to take up arms, and in 1625 Christian IV., king of Denmark, supported by subsidies from England, put himself at their head. He was subsequently joined by Count Mansfeld and Christian of Brunswick, while opposed to him were Wallenstein and Tilly at the head of two powerful armies. In April 1626 Mansfeld was defeated by Wallenstein at Dessau, and a few months later Tilly vanquished the Danish king at Lutter. The victorious armies afterwards marched into Denmark, and the king was compelled to conclude a humiliating peace at Lübeck in 1629. The Protestants were now awed into submission, and Ferdinand was emboldened to carry out to still greater lengths his policy of suppression. Aiming at the total extirpation of Protestant doctrines throughout his dominions, he revoked all the privileges that had formerly been granted, even such as had previously received his approval. By the so-called *Edict of Restitution*, dated 6th March 1629, he enjoined the restitution of all ecclesiastical property secularised since the peace of Passau, and ordered the Protestants to relinquish to the Catholics all benefices which they had appropriated contrary to the peace of Passau and the Ecclesiastical Reservation.

The Catholic princes themselves were now becoming alarmed at the enormous power which they had contributed to place in the hands of the emperor. They therefore

demanding a reduction of the army and the dismissal of Wallenstein, and with these demands the emperor felt himself obliged to comply. But a new champion of the Protestant cause now appeared in the north, in the person of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. This valiant prince, having received promises of aid from France as well as from England and the United Provinces, suddenly landed an army of 15,000 men at Usedom in June 1630. Pomerania and Mecklenburg were soon conquered by him, and a great part of Brandenburg was overrun by his army. He was unable, however, to relieve the town of Magdeburg, which was besieged by Tilly and taken by assault 20th May 1631, when the most barbarous atrocities were perpetrated upon the unfortunate inhabitants. The elector of Brandenburg and afterwards the elector of Saxony joined Gustavus, and the combined army met the imperialists under Tilly at Breitenfeld, near Leipsic, and defeated them with great slaughter (7th September 1631). The victor now rapidly regained all that had been lost. Again Tilly was beaten at the passage of the River Lech on 5th April 1632; and the following day he died of his wounds. Wallenstein was now recalled and placed at the head of the imperial troops. His name inspired fresh ardour among the soldiery, men flocked to his standard, and he speedily found himself at the head of a very large army. He drove the Saxons out of Bohemia, and afterwards marched to Nuremberg, where Gustavus was entrenched in a strong position. The two armies watched each other for eight weeks, when the king directed an attack against the imperialists, but after a fierce struggle was repulsed. A fortnight later Gustavus moved in the direction of Bavaria, but Wallenstein, instead of following him, marched into Saxony, and thus obliged him to suspend his operations in Bavaria and to set out in pursuit of his opponent. The two armies met at Lützen, where a battle took place on 16th November 1632. The greatest skill and bravery were displayed on both sides, and the issue was long doubtful, but at length victory declared in favour of the Swedes, though dearly purchased with the loss of their brave commander, who fell mortally wounded.

The death of Gustavus was an irreparable loss to the Protestants in Germany. Wallenstein, however, made but little use of the advantages he now possessed, and has even been accused of treacherous designs against the empire. Be this as it may, his enemies at court and in the army were numerous and powerful, and he was at length assassinated by some of his own officers, 25th February 1634. The Protestant cause met with another disaster in the defeat of Bernard of Weimar at Nordlingen on 6th September. On 30th May 1635 Saxony concluded at Prague a treaty of peace with the emperor, in terms of which the Lutherans were freed from the operation of the Edict of Restitution. The other Lutheran princes soon after accepted the like terms; but the Calvinists, who were disliked by both parties, were left to their fate.

Sweden, no longer able to carry on the war as she had done, entered into a treaty with France, resigning the direction of operations to that power, a position of which Richelieu gladly availed himself, as according with his ambitious designs. The war now assumed a new phase, France and Sweden being allied against the empire and the Lutheran states of Germany, aided by Spain. Richelieu's efforts were in great measure directed to humbling the latter power. He sent an army into Spain, and entered into leagues with the dukes of Savoy and Parma and the United Provinces for attacking the Spanish power in Italy and the Netherlands. These projects did not meet with success, and the war was for a time carried into the French territories. In the meantime the Swedes, under General Baner, gained a brilliant victory over the Saxons and imperialists at Wittstock (4th October 1636). The emperor



died on the 15th February 1637, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III. The war was carried on for eleven years longer; and the success which at first was with the imperialists, after a time came round to their adversaries, till at length the emperor, pressed on all sides and deserted by his allies, was glad to agree to terms of peace. By the peace of Westphalia, signed 24th October 1648, France acquired Alsace; Sweden got Upper Pomerania, the Isle of Rugen, and some other territory; the sovereignty and independence of the different states was recognised; the Calvinists were placed on the same footing as the Lutherans; and the independence of the United Provinces and the Swiss Confederation was acknowledged.

Ferdinand III. died in 1657, and was succeeded by his son Leopold I. This prince, by his harsh treatment of the Hungarians, drove that people into revolt; and they, being unable to cope with the power of the empire single-handed, called in the aid of the Turks, who, under Kara Mustapha in 1683, besieged Vienna, which was only saved by an army of Poles and Germans under John Sobieski. The imperial army then reduced the whole of Hungary into subjection, and united to it Transylvania, which had been hitherto governed by its own princes; and the whole was declared to be a hereditary kingdom. In 1699 Turkey, after being defeated in several sanguinary engagements by the celebrated general Prince Eugene, was compelled by the peace of Carlowitz to cede to Hungary the country lying between the Danube and the Theiss. Previous to his troubles with Hungary and Turkey, Leopold had lent his aid in 1672 to the Dutch in their struggle against the ambitious designs of France. This was brought to a close by the peace of Nimeguen in 1678; but the conflict broke out afresh the following year, when the English also came forward and contributed largely both in troops and money. The chief scenes of warfare were the Netherlands and the banks of the Rhine. At last in 1697 came the peace of Ryswick, which left the contending parties in nearly the same relative positions as at the beginning of the contest. The allies had, however, the satisfaction of having compelled the French king to stop short in his schemes of aggrandisement.

The death of Charles II. of Spain in 1700, without leaving issue, led to what is known as the *War of the Succession*. Louis XIV. had married the eldest sister of the late king, but she had by solemn covenant renounced her right to the Spanish crown. The second sister had married the Emperor Leopold, and she had made no such renunciation, but her daughter had, who was married to the elector of Bavaria. Leopold had two sons by a second marriage, and now claimed the crown for the younger of these, on the ground of his mother being an aunt of the deceased king. Intrigues had been carried on by the several parties concerned for some time before the king's death, and he had been induced to make a secret will, in which he named Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV., as his successor. Leopold, however, was by no means inclined to depart from what he considered his rights, and the other states of Europe looked with jealousy on the prospect of a union of France and Spain under a Bourbon dynasty. An alliance was accordingly formed by Austria with England and Holland against France, with which power on the other hand Bavaria allied herself. The emperor despatched an army into Italy under Prince Eugene, to take possession of the Spanish territories in that country; while the English and Dutch united their forces under Marlborough. The former experienced a good deal of hard fighting, but effected little of consequence, while the latter busied himself in taking one after another of the French strongholds in the Netherlands. At length the two generals combined their forces

and met the united army of their enemies at Blenheim. The latter numbered about 56,000 men and occupied a strong position, while the number of the former was about 52,000. The fight commenced by Marlborough leading the right wing against the French, while Eugene with the left wing advanced against the Bavarians. The battle was long and fierce, the assailants being repeatedly driven back by a most terrible fire from the enemy's artillery. At length victory declared for the allied English and Austrian armies (13th August 1704). About 10,000 of the French and Bavarians fell on the field, and nearly 13,000 were made prisoners, among whom was the commander of the French army, Marshal Tallard. The elector of Bavaria was compelled to cross the Rhine with the French, and his territory was occupied by the imperialists. The following year the emperor died, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Joseph. The war was continued with vigour, but for a time nothing of importance was anywhere effected. France now directed her chief attention to the conquest of the Netherlands, and sent into that country a magnificent army under the command of Marshal Villeroy. But this general was no match for Marlborough; and in the battle of Ramillies (23d May 1706) he was totally defeated with a loss of about 13,000 men. Prince Eugene's efforts in Italy were also this year crowned with much success. After a memorable march of more than 200 miles, he suddenly appeared before Turin, which was then closely besieged by the enemy. Having effected a junction with the duke of Savoy, he attacked the French lines (7th September), and though repeatedly driven back, at length succeeded in totally routing the enemy. The French general, Count Marsin, was wounded, taken prisoner, and died the following day. The French power in Northern Italy was thus shattered, and soon after both French and Spaniards were driven out of the country. The like success attended the efforts of Marlborough in the Netherlands, where he took possession of every place of note. After Eugene had settled affairs in Italy, he again formed a junction with Marlborough in the Netherlands, and on 11th June 1708 they attacked and routed the French under Vendôme at Oudenarde. France now made overtures for peace; but these being rejected, she sent a new army into the field, under the command of Marshal Villars. He was attacked by the two victorious generals in his entrenchments at Malplaquet (11th September 1709) and totally defeated. France again made proposals for peace, but these meeting with no better success, the war was continued. The emperor died on 17th April 1711, and his successor being his brother, the Archduke Charles, who laid claim to the Spanish crown, this event contributed not a little to restore peace. The prospect of the union on one head of the crowns of Austria and Spain did not accord with the views of those who had been hitherto supporting the claims of Austria, and the transfer of Spain to a grandson of Louis XIV. appeared to them the less dangerous alternative of the two. This, joined to the change of ministry in England, and the removal of Marlborough from the command, together with the impatience of the Dutch under so long and so burdensome a war, led to the peace of Utrecht, which was signed 11th April 1713. Austria continued the war for some time longer, but the next year agreed to substantially the same terms at Baden. By this treaty France engaged that the crowns of France and Spain should never be united, and that no part of the Spanish Netherlands should ever be transferred to her; she also ceded to England Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Hudson's Bay, and St Kitt's, and agreed to destroy the fortifications of Dunkirk; Spain gave up her possessions in the Netherlands and in Italy to Austria (who, on her part, renounced her claim to the Spanish

succession), and ceded Gibraltar and Minorca to England; the Dutch received a small accession of territory; and the duke of Savoy obtained Sicily, with the title of king—afterwards (1720) exchanged for the island of Sardinia. The Austrian monarchy now embraced about 190,000 square miles of territory, with nearly 29,000,000 of inhabitants. Its annual revenue was between 13,000,000 and 14,000,000 florins, and its army consisted of 130,000 men.

Austria next became involved in a war with the Turks, and in 1716 Prince Eugene set out at the head of an army against them. The result was a series of splendid successes, which led to a peace signed at Passarowitz (1718), by which Austria received a considerable accession of territory. Disaffection still continued to subsist between Spain and Austria, which led to repeated negotiations on the part of the other powers to preserve peace. Charles being without heirs-male, was desirous of securing the succession to his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, and with this view he framed the celebrated Pragmatic Sanction, and it became his great object to get the assent of the other powers to this arrangement. England and almost all the other powers, except France, Spain, and Sardinia, acceded to it in 1731. In 1733 the emperor became involved in a war with France on behalf of Augustus III. of Saxony, who had been elected king of Poland. France supported the claims of Stanislaus Leczinski, and received the aid of Spain and Sardinia. The war was carried on principally in Italy, where Austria was driven out of most of her possessions, and was glad to sue for peace. By this treaty Augustus was confirmed on the throne of Poland; but Austria was obliged to cede to Stanislaus the duchies of Lorraine and Bar, to be afterwards transferred to France; Don Carlos was placed on the throne of the Two Sicilies, and the grand duchy of Tuscany was bestowed on the duke of Lorraine, the emperor receiving as compensation Parma and Placentia; and France, and afterwards Spain and Sardinia, acceded to the Pragmatic Sanction. War again broke out with the Turks, and Prince Eugene being now no more, the Austrians were repeatedly beaten and expelled from one stronghold after another, till, by the peace of Belgrade (1739), the emperor was compelled to yield up almost all that the arms of Eugene had formerly gained for him. The emperor died on the 20th October 1740, and his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, who was married to the duke of Lorraine or Lothringen (afterwards archduke of Tuscany), assumed the government. Immediately counter-claims were advanced on all sides. The elector of Bavaria claimed to be rightful heir to the kingdom of Bohemia; the elector of Saxony and king of Poland, and also the king of Spain, claimed the entire succession; the king of Sardinia laid claim to the duchy of Milan, and Frederick II. of Prussia to the province of Silesia. France espoused the cause of Bavaria, while England alone came forward to the assistance of the queen, and the Hungarians, now united and loyal, willingly recruited her armies. Aided by France and Saxony, the elector of Bavaria took possession of Bohemia, and was proclaimed king in 1741, and the following year he was elected emperor under the title of Charles VII. The king of Prussia marched suddenly into Silesia and took possession of that country. The elector of Bavaria, aided by French troops, next invaded Austria, and even threatened Vienna. The queen fled to Presburg and convoked the Hungarian diet. She appeared in the midst of the assembly with her infant son Joseph in her arms, and appealed to them for protection and help. A burst of enthusiasm followed, and a powerful Hungarian army was speedily at her service. The French and Bavarians were soon driven out of the archduchy. A

battle was fought between the Austrians under the prince of Lorraine and the Prussians under Frederick, at Czaclau (17th May 1742), in which the former were defeated, and this was followed by the peace of Breslau (11th June), by which Prussia acquired possession of Upper and Lower Silesia (excepting the towns of Troppau and Jägerndorf, and the mountains of Silesia) and the county of Glatz. Austria now turned her arms against the French and Bavarians, the former of whom were driven out of the country. In 1744 the king of Prussia, jealous of the success attending the Austrians, again took the field against them in support of the emperor. He marched into Bohemia and took Prague, but subsequently was forced to retreat; and the death of the emperor Charles on 20th January 1745 changed the aspect of affairs. Maria Theresa's husband was in September elected emperor under the title of Francis I., and after some more fighting, a peace was concluded with Prussia at Dresden, by which the king was confirmed in the possession of Silesia. The war with France was prosecuted for some time longer in the Netherlands and in Italy with varying success, but ultimately peace was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, in October 1748. Austria gave up the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla to Don Philip, son of the king of Spain, and several districts of Milan to Sardinia; Prussia was confirmed in the possession of Silesia and Glatz; while Maria Theresa was recognised as rightful monarch of Austria. After having acquired peace, and been thus confirmed in her possessions, her great desire was to recover Silesia from Frederick, whose conduct towards her had sunk deep into her heart. She directed her attention to strengthening and improving her army, and to forming alliances with the other states against the Prussian king, particularly with Russia and Saxony. In 1755 war broke out in North America between France and England, and in view of its becoming more general England solicited the aid of Austria, but without success. This naturally led to a union between England and Prussia, while France allied herself with Austria and Russia.

In July 1756, Frederick despatched a messenger to Vienna to ascertain the meaning of the large forces assembled in Bohemia and Moravia. Receiving an evasive answer, he at once marched an army of 60,000 men into Saxony, took Dresden, and made himself master of the country, the Saxon army of only about 17,000 men being shut up in a strong position, but ill provisioned, between Pirna and Königstein. An Austrian army, under the command of Marshal Browne, advanced from Bohemia to the relief of Saxony, but was met by Frederick. A battle took place at Lowositz (1st October), which, though not decisive, ended in the retreat of the Austrians; and the famished Saxon army, after an ineffectual attempt to effect a retreat to Bohemia, laid down their arms. This ended the first campaign, and both sides did their utmost to prepare for renewing hostilities the following year. The empress strengthened her forces in Bohemia, and the imperial diet conceded an army of 60,000 men to assist her. France engaged to send an army of 80,000 or 100,000 men into Germany, and Russia set in motion an army of 100,000 men against Prussia. In all, the allies were estimated to muster about 500,000 men, while Frederick could scarcely raise 200,000 of his own, his auxiliaries (English, Hanoverians, &c.) probably amounting to about 40,000 more. Frederick renewed the war by marching an army into Bohemia, where, on 6th May, he gained a victory over the Austrians, under Prince Charles of Lorraine, in the neighbourhood of Prague, and then laid siege to that city. General Daun, at the head of an Austrian army, advanced to the relief of the city, and the king set out to meet him. The encounter took place at Kolin (18th June), and the



Prussians, being much inferior in numbers, were beaten with great slaughter. Frederick was compelled at once to raise the siege and to evacuate Bohemia. In honour of this victory the empress instituted the military order of Maria Theresa. It had also the effect of inspiring the allies with fresh courage. The Russians invaded the kingdom of Prussia; the Swedes entered Pomerania; and two French armies crossed the Rhine in order to attack Hesse and Hanover and then march into Prussia. One of these armies, under the command of Prince Soubise, advanced towards Thuringia, in order to form a junction with the imperial forces under the prince of Hildburghausen, while Marshal d'Estrees, who commanded the larger French army, entered Hanover, and through the incapacity of his opponent, gained an easy victory over the Anglo-Germanic army, under the duke of Cumberland, near Hastenbeck, on the Weser (26th July). The duke afterwards completed his disgrace by agreeing to disband his troops and give up Hanover, Hesse, Brunswick, and the whole country between the Weser and the Rhine, to the French. The other French army effected a union with the imperial troops of Thuringia, and made preparations for driving the Prussians out of Saxony. Frederick, however, determined to meet them, and after a series of marches and countermarches the two armies came together near Rossbach. The Prussian army amounted to about 22,000 men, while that of the French and Austrians numbered nearly 60,000. Frederick's troops were encamped upon a height, and the allies, when they advanced to the attack, were suddenly met by such a tremendous fire that they were thrown into confusion and unable to recover themselves. In less than half an hour the day was decided (5th November 1757). The allies had 1200 killed and more than 7000 taken prisoners, while the loss of the Prussians scarcely exceeded 500 in killed and wounded. At this time the imperialists had entered Silesia and there gained several advantages over the Prussians, who were at length driven to the walls of Breslau. Here a battle was fought (22d November) in which the Austrians were victorious, and the city itself soon after surrendered to the conquerors. Frederick now made what haste he could to retrieve his fortunes in this quarter, and met the Austrian army, under Prince Charles of Lorraine, in a plain near the village of Leuthen. The Austrians numbered about 80,000 men, while the Prussians did not exceed 30,000, yet by the skilful disposal of his troops and the celerity of his movements Frederick again gained a complete victory (5th December). The field was covered with slain, and it is estimated that about 20,000 surrendered themselves prisoners. Breslau was speedily retaken, and the Austrians driven out of Silesia.

The English were very indignant at the treaty entered into by the duke of Cumberland, and another army was speedily raised and placed under the command of Duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, who commenced the campaign of 1758 by suddenly attacking the French in their winter quarters. In a few weeks he succeeded in driving them out of the country, pursued them across the Rhine, and attacked them furiously at Crefeld, where they were completely routed.

While Field-Marshal Daun, who had received the command of the Austrian army, was waiting the attack of Frederick in Bohemia, the latter, by forced marches, entered Moravia and laid siege to Olmütz. The town, however, defended itself with the greatest bravery, and the Prussians were compelled to raise the siege. By this time, Daun having blocked up Frederick's retreat into Silesia, the Prussian army was marched suddenly northward into Bohemia, and attacked the Russians who had invaded Brandenburg. After a desperate battle the latter were defeated with great slaughter at Zorndorf (26th

August), and compelled to retreat into Poland. Frederick now entered Saxony, where his brother Prince Henry was hard pressed by the Austrians. Thereupon Daun retired to a strong position in Lusatia, and Frederick took up a position near him, little thinking that Daun would attack him. Early in the morning of the 14th of October, however, the Austrians suddenly fell upon him at the village of Hochkirchen, and in the confusion and darkness the slaughter was terrible. Frederick lost several of his best generals, including Prince Francis of Brunswick, Prince Maurice of Dessau, and Field-Marshal Keith, with about 9000 of his soldiers. His camp, baggage, and ammunition also fell into the hands of the Austrians. The victory, however, was productive of little material results; Frederick retreated into Silesia, while the Austrians, after ineffectual attempts on Leipsic, Torgau, and Dresden, retired to Bohemia for the winter. The Austrian army was again largely reinforced, and every preparation made for renewing hostilities with vigour. The following year (1759) Duke Ferdinand found himself hard pressed by two French armies under the Duke de Broglie and the Marshal de Contades. He sustained a defeat at Bergen (12th April), but afterwards gained a signal victory at Minden (1st August), and compelled the French to retreat. Daun, waiting the approach of the Russians, did not take the field till the beginning of May, when, on their advance towards the Oder, he moved into Lusatia. In June, Dohna, who was sent to check the advance of the Russians, was forced to retreat, and, on the 23d July, Wedel, who succeeded him in the command, was totally routed near Züllichau. The Russians then marched on to Frankfort-on-the-Oder, where they were joined by 18,000 Austrians under Marshal Loudon. Frederick hastened with what troops he could collect to give battle to the combined army. The latter took up a strong position on the heights near Kunersdorf, and there they were attacked early on the 12th of August by the king. The Prussians numbered about 50,000, while the Russians and Austrians amounted to 90,000. The battle raged long and furiously, and the issue was long doubtful, but at length the Russians were giving way on all sides, and victory was about to declare for the Prussians, when unexpectedly the Austrians made a furious attack upon them, threw them into confusion, and in a short time drove them from the field. Frederick lost in this action 20,000 of his bravest troops, and the loss on the side of the allies was not less than 24,000 men killed and wounded. In the meantime the Austrians overran Saxony, took Torgau, Wittenberg, and Leipsic, and invested Dresden, which, after a spirited defence, surrendered when an army of relief was close at hand. But Frederick was speedily in the field again at the head of a new army, and, by dint of skilful manœuvring and cutting off supplies, he succeeded in harassing the two armies, and compelled the Russians again to retire into Poland. An army of 13,000 men, under General Fink, attacked the rear of the Austrian army near Maxen, but after a brief but sanguinary conflict they were defeated and taken prisoners. Daun took up his winter quarters in Saxony, notwithstanding every effort of Frederick to dispossess him.

The imperial troops had been very successful during the last campaign, and were in good condition to renew the fight, while the Prussians had sustained great losses, were dispirited, and could only muster about 80,000 fighting men, and these no longer veterans, but in great measure raw recruits. In the campaign of 1760 Frederick was himself to conduct the war in Saxony, Prince Henry was to protect the marches against the Russians, and General Fouquet was to defend Silesia against the Austrians under Loudon. On 23d June, 8000 Prussians, under Fouquet, were surrounded and attacked on all sides by 30,000 Austrians at Landshut,

and, after defending themselves long with great bravery, were obliged to yield. The king, after an ineffectual attack upon Dresden, marched into Silesia followed by the Austrians. At Liegnitz he found himself between three armies, under Generals Daun, Lacy, and Loudon, numbering about 90,000 men, while his own army amounted to only about 30,000. On the night preceding the 15th of August, Frederick took up a position on the neighbouring heights of Pfaffendorf. Scarcely had he done so when the Austrian army, under Loudon, made its appearance, it having also intended to occupy the same position, and then fall upon the Prussians. The Austrians were greatly astonished to find the enemy before them; nevertheless, they fought for three hours with great bravery, returning again and again to the attack, but were at length compelled to retreat with a loss of 4000 killed and 6000 wounded. Daun afterwards came up and made an attack upon the Prussians, but, learning what had happened to Loudon, he withdrew. Frederick now directed his march on Breslau; and meanwhile the Russians effected a junction with the Austrians, and marched on Berlin, which surrendered to them (3d October). A week later, hearing that the king was advancing against them, they left the city and retired into Saxony. Daun had likewise arrived in Saxony, and taken up a very strong position near Torgau. Here the Prussians attacked him with great fury on 3d November. The battle lasted till night without being decisive, and the carnage on both sides was fearful. The Prussians prepared to renew the attack next day, but the Austrians retreated during the night. They lost about 12,000 men killed and wounded, and 8000 prisoners. By this battle Frederick reconquered the greater part of Saxony, and accordingly he fixed his winter quarters there, establishing his headquarters at Leipsic. In 1761 Frederick employed every stratagem to prevent the junction of the Russian army under Buturlin with the Austrian under Loudon. The two armies, however, at length came together in the environs of Strigau (12th August), the combined force amounting to 130,000 men, while the Prussians numbered only about 50,000. The leaders, however, could not agree to a common course of proceeding, and the two armies separated without effecting anything of consequence. The Austrians surprised and took Schweidnitz (1st October), and the Prussians, after a four months' siege, took possession of Colberg (13th December). In Saxony Prince Henry had to retreat before Daun; but the latter gained no great advantages, and Frederick settled in Breslau for the winter. It seemed as if Prussia must at last yield to her assailants, but this was as far as ever from the king's mind. To add to his difficulties, the subsidies from England were stopped by the earl of Bute after the death of George II. But by the death of the Czarina Elizabeth (5th January 1762) he was freed from one of the most powerful of his enemies; and her successor, Peter III., not only recalled the army, but delivered up all the Prussian prisoners, and even entered into an alliance with the king. Sweden also retired from the contest, and entered into terms of peace. Frederick was therefore in a better condition to carry on the war vigorously against Austria, and the seventh campaign was marked by a series of disasters to that power. He attacked and overthrew Daun's right wing at Burkensdorf (21st July), gained a victory at Reichenbach (16th August), and took Schweidnitz after a very gallant defence (9th October). Prince Henry was also victorious at Freiberg (29th October). In the meantime Duke Ferdinand had been during the last three years successfully maintaining the war with the French. Fresh reinforcements and new generals were brought against him, but he could not be crushed; and, by the victories of Wilhelmsthal (24th June) and Luttern-

burg (23d July), France was brought to agree to peace. Thus Austria and Prussia were left to carry on the war alone; and the former, though amply provided with troops, was without money to furnish the necessary supplies, while Frederick was ever ready to come to terms on having the possession of Silesia secured to him. Austria found herself obliged to yield this point, and peace was at length agreed to. The treaty was signed at the castle of Hubertsburg, in Saxony, 15th February 1763, and thus ended the Seven Years' War,—a war disastrous to all concerned, and which is estimated to have cost in actual fighting men 853,000. It effected no territorial change in any of the countries, but through it Prussia rose to be one of the great powers of Europe. Austria, on her part, had carried on the conflict with remarkable vigour and determination; her soldiers had displayed great bravery, and some of her generals had shown a military genius not greatly inferior to that of Frederick himself.

Maria Theresa now zealously devoted herself to improving the condition of her people and country. She established schools, removed feudal hardships, improved the condition of the serfs, reformed ecclesiastical abuses, and fostered industry and commerce. The Emperor Francis died 18th August 1765, and was succeeded by his son, Joseph II., who the previous year had been elected king of the Romans. He also became joint-regent with his mother of the hereditary states. Maria established two collateral branches of her house in the persons of her two younger sons, the Archduke Leopold in Tuscany, and the Archduke Ferdinand, who married the heiress of Este, in Modena. By the first partition of Poland (1772) Austria acquired Galicia and Lodomeria, and in 1777 Buckowina was ceded by the Porte. On the death of the elector of Bavaria without issue, the Emperor Joseph laid claim to his dominions. To this Frederick was opposed, and again took the field against Austria. The dispute, however, was settled without war (1779), Austria being content with the cession by Bavaria of the frontier district called the quarter of the Inn, and one or two others. The empress died 29th November 1780, in the sixty-fourth year of her age and the forty-first of her reign. She was a woman of many and great virtues, with few weaknesses, and effected more for Austria than any of her predecessors. Mr Carlyle says that she was "most brave, high and pious minded; beautiful, too, and radiant with good nature, though of a temper that will easily catch fire; there is, perhaps, no nobler woman then living." At her death the monarchy comprised 234,500 square miles, with a population estimated at 24,000,000, and a public debt of 160,000,000 florins, or £16,000,000.

The Emperor Joseph II., whose zeal for reform had in great measure been kept in check during the lifetime of his mother, now felt himself at liberty to give it full scope. He attempted a number of changes, of which several were praiseworthy in their objects, but abrupt and premature in their operation, so that in the end they were productive of evil consequences. He sought to establish a system of central government and uniformity of legislation throughout his dominions; enjoined the exclusive use of the German language in all schools, courts of justice, &c.; granted free and unreserved toleration to all sects of Christians; abolished numerous convents and monasteries; dismantled various fortresses; and did away with primogeniture and feudal vassalage. Had his people been ripe for these changes he would probably have been hailed as a reformer of abuses; but the Austrians were attached to their old usages, and were little inclined for change, while the arbitrary manner in which the improvements were introduced could not fail to provoke discontent. General uneasiness, therefore, began to prevail, which in the Netherlands