

France, and Russia, she kept aloof. When, however, Russia invaded Turkey in 1828, Austria joined with England in interfering to prevent the fall of Constantinople, and in bringing about peace.

The commotions that followed the French revolution of July 1830 in different parts of Europe considerably affected Austria. This manifested itself chiefly in Lombardy, where the presence of 30,000 troops was required to maintain the imperial authority. In Parma and Modena the people suddenly rose in insurrection and expelled their rulers, and Austrian troops were employed to restore them. An insurrection also broke out in the Papal States, and the Pope invoked the aid of Austria, whose troops entered Bologna and established themselves there (January 1832). Upon this the French sent a force to occupy Ancona, and at one time it seemed as if France and Austria were again to cross swords on Italian soil, but this danger was at length averted. In the minor states of Germany the cry for popular institutions was raised, and in many cases the rulers were obliged for a time to comply with them, but after the danger appeared to pass away, Austria, acting in concert with Prussia, succeeded in bringing back the old state of things in the confederation. The Poles, tired of Russian rule, and hoping to be supported by France, took up arms to regain their independence (1831). Although Austria professed a strict neutrality in the struggle, a Polish corps that was driven into her territories was disarmed and detained, while a body of Russian troops under the same circumstances was allowed to continue its operations against Poland. During the remainder of the reign of Francis I. no public event of importance occurred. He died on the 2d of March 1835, in the sixty-seventh year of his age and the forty-third of his reign. He was one of those well-meaning but weak-minded men, who unfortunately adopt the wrong means for effecting the good which they intend. He wished to make his people contented and happy, but he sought to do so by repressing all independence in thought or action, and keeping them in the most abject subjection. He earnestly strove for their advancement, but it was by strenuously endeavouring to keep things as they were, and opposing every form of change. The transition from an old to a new state of things was in his mind always associated with the utmost danger, and to be by all means avoided. He did much in the way of establishing elementary schools throughout the country, but said that he wished to have no learned men, only good loyal citizens. He was thoroughly conscientious and correct in his conduct, but at the same time narrow-minded, suspicious, and bigoted. He was most assiduous in his attention to the business of the state, but occupied himself chiefly with small matters and minor details, while more important concerns were entirely overlooked and neglected. His good qualities, however, commended him to the affections of his people, and this doubtless did much to repress among his subjects the insurrectionary spirit which subsequently manifested itself.

He was succeeded by his eldest son, Ferdinand I., an amiable but weak-minded prince, who left the government very much in the hands of his prime minister, Metternich. The various signs of discontent which had been manifested during the former reign soon became stronger and more marked. Baron Pillersdorf, the successor of Metternich, speaking of this period, says, "Circumstances permitted an uninterrupted enjoyment of peace, but the necessity for internal ameliorations became by so long a delay more urgent, the demand for them more sensible, whilst, owing to the procrastinations of the Government, faith and confidence were diminished. It is true that the prosperity of the provinces generally did not decline; on the contrary, many branches of commerce manifested an increase in their

development; but in spite of this the situation of the whole empire inspired in different respects serious apprehensions, arising from the disordered state of the economy of finance, the yearly augmentation of the public debt, the inefficiency of the measures adopted, and still more from the oppressed disposition of mind of the clear-sighted and intelligent classes of the population."—(*The Political Movement in Austria during 1848-49.*) The people saw growing up in the nations around them freer institutions and more liberal modes of government, and they could not help contrasting those with their own system. Austria, too, was made up of a number of different nationalities, and the Government attempted to strengthen its position by working upon their national prejudices and antipathies, setting race against race, and creed against creed. In particular, the German element was favoured at the expense of the other nationalities; and the Germanising measures of the Government excited great discontent among the other races. It has been remarked that the aversion of Austria to the development of the Slavonic element in her population was greatly owing to jealousy of Russia, which power she regarded as desirous of attaching all the Slavonic races to itself. Hence Austria has always been opposed to the encroachments of Russia in Turkey, and in favour of maintaining the integrity of the latter, so that, when war broke out in 1839 between the Sublime Porte and the Pasha of Egypt, she readily joined England in support of the former.

The court of Vienna was first frightened from its sense of security by an insurrection in Galicia in 1846. This having been suppressed, Austria, in conjunction with the other two powers which had dismembered Poland, determined to lay hold on Cracow, and thus extinguish the last remnant of Polish independence. This step being contrary to the treaty of Vienna, was strongly remonstrated against both by England and France; but these remonstrances were unheeded, and the republic was incorporated in the Austrian empire. The French revolution of 1848, which convulsed almost the whole of continental Europe, caused the Austrian empire to totter to its foundations. Scarcely had the news of the fall of Louis Philippe reached Vienna when the whole city was in a state of open rebellion (13th March). The populace, headed by the students, and forcing the magistracy along with them, made their way into the imperial palace, and loudly demanded from the emperor the dismissal of his old counsellors, and the immediate grant of a new constitution. Alarmed at these demonstrations Prince Metternich resigned, and was soon after on his way to London; and an imperial proclamation was issued, declaring the abolition of the censorship of the press, the establishment of a national guard, and the convocation of a national assembly. These measures, however, as well as the nomination of a new ministry, were far from sufficing to arrest the popular movement, encouraged and led on by the students and other members of the university. The national guard just called into being, along with the academic legion, formed themselves into a permanent committee, and dictated laws to the Government. On the 17th of May, Ferdinand, accompanied by the empress and the members of his family, secretly quitted the palace, and fled to Innsbruck. An attempt to dissolve the academic legion caused an outbreak on the 25th, and the streets were barricaded; but no fighting took place, for the ministers yielded to the demands of the rioters, and gave up their design. A committee of citizens, national guards, and students, which was formed for the preservation of peace and order, was legalised by the prime minister, and assumed the authority of the Government. In the meantime the revolutionary spirit was manifesting itself in other parts of the empire. In Italy the inhabitants of

Milan and Venice rose against their rulers, and expelled the Austrian troops. This was followed by a general rising throughout Lombardy and Venice. The insurgents found an ally in Charles Albert, king of Sardinia, who came with an army to their assistance, and declared war against the empire. At first he succeeded in driving the Austrians back to the northern frontier of Italy; but General Radetzky, having received reinforcements, vanquished him in several engagements, and compelled him to flee to his own dominions, and conclude a truce with the victors. This was followed by the reconquest of Milan and the whole of Lombardy. Venice withstood the besieging army of the Austrians for some months, but was at length obliged to surrender. In Bohemia the Czechs or Slavonic party determined to obtain redress against the Germanising measures of the Government, and forwarded a petition to the emperor, demanding a united and independent national assembly for Bohemia and Moravia, independent municipal institutions, and an equal share in public offices with the German part of the population. An evasive answer was returned, and the citizens of the capital rose in insurrection. A national assembly of delegates of the Slavonians in all parts of the empire was summoned to meet at Prague. Three hundred made their appearance, and the assembly was opened in the beginning of June. The efforts of the military to maintain peace excited the enmity of the citizens, and they petitioned for the removal of the commander, Prince Windischgrätz. Meanwhile a collision took place between the Slavonic militia and the regular troops. The Germans joined with the military, and the insurrection raged for five days; the town was bombarded and taken, and the leaders dispersed or taken prisoners.

In Hungary the National Diet had passed measures in favour of a responsible ministry, a perfect equality of civil rights, religious toleration, the formation of a national guard, and abolition of the censorship of the press. The emperor gave his consent to these measures; but a strong Austrian party in the country, chiefly Slavonians, was opposed to them, and, instigated and supported by the Austrian Government, they broke out in open revolt. Jellachich, the ban or governor of Croatia, was the leader of the insurgents, and collecting an army of 65,000 men, he marched on towards Pesth. An army was speedily raised by the Hungarians to meet him, and a battle was fought within 25 miles of the capital on 29th September, in which Jellachich was beaten. The emperor now openly declared against the Hungarians, annulled the decrees of the Diet, suspended the civil authorities, and appointed Jellachich commander of the army. The Diet, denying the authority of the emperor, organised a committee of safety, and elected Kossuth president. This was equivalent to a declaration of war, and an Austrian army was ordered out against them. The people of Vienna, sympathising with the Hungarians, rose in arms, when the garrison of that city departed for Hungary (6th October). A deputation waited on the minister of war, Latour, demanding their recall, and on his refusal they took the arsenal by storm, and murdered him. The National Diet, which had met on the 22d of July, now declared its sittings permanent, and elected a committee of public safety. It sent an address to the emperor asking for a new ministry, the revocation of the edict against the Hungarians, the dismissal of Jellachich, and an amnesty for the rioters. The emperor, who had returned from Innsbruck to Vienna in June, returned an evasive answer, and fled to Olmütz. The people in the capital armed themselves under the leadership of General Bem, and prepared to resist the impending attack of the army. The garrison, after having retired outside the limits of the city, was joined by Jellachich's

horde of Croatians and by the army of Windischgrätz. On 23d October, an army of 100,000 men appeared before Vienna, and the city was summoned to surrender. This the people refused to do, and the attack was commenced on the 28th, when the city was set on fire in many places. The next day a part of the suburbs was taken, and the leaders began to think of surrendering when the news of a Hungarian army hastening to their relief inspired them with fresh courage. This force, however, was attacked and put to flight by Jellachich (30th October), and next day the city was taken by storm, after a desperate struggle, which was attended with immense slaughter. On 22d November a new ministry was formed, of which Prince Schwarzenberg was president; and on 2d December the Emperor Ferdinand was induced to abdicate the throne. His brother, Francis Charles, who was his legal successor, likewise renounced his right in favour of his son, Francis Joseph, who was proclaimed emperor under the title of Francis Joseph I.

The war in Hungary was renewed by Windischgrätz, who crossed the Leitha, and after several successful engagements entered the capital of that country (January 1849), the Hungarian Government and one division of the army having departed eastward to Debreczin, while the other under Görgei retired northward towards Waitzen. The Austrian general, instead of pursuing them, remained inactive for seven weeks at Pesth, and thus afforded them time to organise. In Transylvania General Bem gained a decisive victory over the Austrians in that territory, and also defeated and put to flight a Russian force that had come to their assistance. At length Windischgrätz moved forward towards Debreczin, and met the Hungarians at Kapolna, where an obstinate and bloody but indecisive battle was fought (26th February). Next day the Austrians, having received reinforcements, renewed the fight, and the Hungarians were obliged to retire. The latter having recruited their forces, another obstinate battle was fought near Gödölö (5th April), in which the Austrians were defeated, as they were in several subsequent engagements, so that they were compelled to abandon the capital and recross the Danube, leaving a small garrison at Buda, which afterwards surrendered. Had the victorious army now marched on to Vienna they would doubtless have succeeded in bringing the Austrians to terms; but disputes among the rulers and dissensions among the generals prevented such a course. In June Prince Paskewitch crossed the Galician frontier at the head of a Russian army of 130,000 men; and General Haynau, who now had the command of the Austrian troops, was joined by a Russian corps under General Palutin. The Hungarians were unable to contend against these forces, and had again to leave their capital, the seat of the Government being transferred to Szegedin. Driven from this place, the army made a stand at Temesvar, but were defeated with great slaughter (9th August), and again, two days later, at Arad. On 13th August the Hungarian general, Görgei, who had been named dictator, surrendered to the Russians. Hungary was now treated as a conquered country, and the greatest cruelties were practised against the people by the Austrian general, Haynau. The military and parliamentary leaders were shot or hanged, and the prisons filled with unhappy victims. In the meantime the war in Italy was renewed by the king of Sardinia. He was, however, defeated at Mortara (21st March) by the Austrian general, Radetzky, and again at Novara (23d March), when he abdicated in favour of his son, Victor Emmanuel, with whom a peace was concluded. Venice held out against the Austrians till 23d August, when it was forced to surrender.

The congress which, since the final struggle in Vienna had been adjourned to Kremsier, was dissolved (March 4

1849), and a constitution promulgated by the free will of the emperor. At this time efforts were made in the German National Assembly at Frankfort to form Germany into one integral empire, excluding Austria, the imperial crown being offered to the king of Prussia. This was violently opposed by the Austrian Government, and though the king of Prussia did not venture in the face of this opposition to accept the imperial crown, he concluded a treaty with the kings of Saxony and Hanover (May 1849), with the view of forming a strict union with the different states of the German confederacy to the exclusion of Austria. To this treaty the majority of the lesser states afterwards acceded, and a diet was convened at Erfurt (May 1852), under the presidency of Prussia, for the reorganisation of Germany. Austria, to counteract the efforts of her rival, invited the different states to send their representatives to Frankfort, where she assumed the lead. The legality of the assembly was at once acknowledged by Bavaria, and Saxony and Hanover were subsequently gained over to it. While matters were in this state disturbances arose in Hesse-Cassel. The margrave invoked the assistance of Austria, while the people looked for aid to Prussia. Having received the authority of the diet at Frankfort, Austria sent an army into Hesse, where they were confronted by another army from Prussia, and an immediate commencement of hostilities was looked for, but this was averted by a conference held at Olmütz, when Prussia acknowledged the right of Austria to enter Hesse. Soon after this Austria and Prussia convoked a congress of all the states at Dresden, where it was agreed that the final settlement of the affairs of the confederacy should be submitted to the decision of the diet at Frankfort. Austria now proposed to the diet that all her provinces, including Hungary and Lombardo-Venetia, should be included in the German confederacy, but this bold proposal failed of acceptance.

Austria now made strenuous efforts to develop the resources of the monarchy by encouraging agriculture, industry, and commerce. The land was freed from the burdens of feudalism, taxes were removed, new roads were formed, and railways were constructed. A new tariff was adopted (July 1851), and negotiations were entered into with the other German states for a complete customs' union with the Zollverein, but this was strongly opposed by Prussia and several of the other states in the union. A commercial treaty, however, was, after considerable negotiation, concluded between Austria and the Zollverein (19th February 1853). The liberal concessions that had been made by the Government were rapidly disappearing, a rigorous military system of rule was being introduced, and centralisation was taking the place of the old provincial system. On the 1st of January 1852 it was announced that the constitution and fundamental rights were abolished, the ministers were declared responsible only to the emperor, trial by jury was set aside, the censorship of the press was again in operation. The influence of the Roman Catholic clergy and the Jesuits was also re-established. A popular outbreak occurred in Milan (6th February 1853), when a number of the military were killed, but it was speedily suppressed. An attempt was made to assassinate the emperor in Vienna by a young Hungarian (18th February). In the quarrel between the Montenegrins and the Porte, Austria sided with the former, and Count Leiningen was sent to Constantinople (February 1853) to demand the redress of their grievances, which was granted. About this time Russia demanded the protectorate of the Greek Christians in Turkey, and this being denied, her troops crossed the Pruth and occupied the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia (July 1853). Austria took a leading part, along with France and England, in condemning these proceedings and in endeavouring to bring about peace. She also gave the Western powers to believe that

she would actively co-operate with them in the defence of Turkey, but afterwards fell back upon vague promises, and on April 20, 1854, entered into an alliance with Prussia, by which the two powers guaranteed each other's dominions from attack, and pledged themselves only to take an active part in the war when the interests of Germany appeared to be endangered. On June 14th Austria agreed with Turkey to occupy the Danubian principalities with an armed force, and by the end of August she had a large army there, which virtually brought the war on the Danube to an end. Austria still continued to use her exertions to bring about peace, and with this view a conference was opened at Vienna in March 1855, but the representatives of the several powers were unable to agree upon a basis. After the fall of Sebastopol she again renewed her efforts, and having ascertained the terms on which the Western powers would be prepared to treat, she sent Count Esterházy to St Petersburg to lay them before the czar, by whom they were accepted, and a treaty of peace was signed at Paris, 31st March 1856.

In August 1855 the emperor signed a concordat with the Pope, giving the church greater power in the country than it had ever possessed before. The clergy were to have unlimited control over all ecclesiastical matters and matters connected with education, and were to enjoy free communication with Rome without the intervention of the civil power. The Government now seemed desirous of relaxing somewhat their restrictions, and of making the people forget the troubles of 1848 and 1849. The military rule was made less strict, and a general amnesty was proclaimed for political offences (12th July 1856). The emperor visited Italy in the end of 1856 and Hungary in May 1857, but the remembrance of past wrongs was still alive in the minds of the people, and he was everywhere received with the greatest coolness. Austria was opposed to the union of the Danubian principalities, and for some time refused to evacuate them, but at length (March 1857) her troops were recalled.

Sardinia had frequently remonstrated with Austria concerning her policy in Italy, while Austria, on the other hand, complained of the attacks made upon her by the Sardinian press. A growing coolness had also sprung up between Austria and France on this subject, which reached its climax when the French emperor said to the Austrian minister, M. Hübner, at the levee on the 1st of January 1859, "I regret that our relations with your Government are not so good as they were; but I request you to tell the emperor that my personal feelings for him, have not changed." The preparations for war were carried on with the greatest activity by Austria, France, and Sardinia. England sent Lord Cowley to Vienna to endeavour to arrange differences, but without success. Russia proposed a congress of the five great powers, and this was agreed to, but Austria demanded the disarmament of Sardinia previous to the congress, which the latter declined to agree to, and both sides prepared for war. Austrian troops poured into Italy, France was concentrating her forces at Toulon, and Garibaldi was organising a corps of Italian volunteers. The Austrians crossed the Ticino (April 26), and the French troops were marched into Italy. Napoleon left Paris on the 10th of May, and reached Genoa on the 12th, where he was next day joined by Victor Emmanuel. The first serious encounter took place at Montebello (May 20), when a strong body of Austrians was, after a desperate resistance, defeated and put to flight by a body of French troops. The Austrians again suffered a severe defeat at Palestro (May 31). On 4th June the battle of Magenta was fought, in which the Austrians were, after a long and desperate conflict, defeated and put to flight by the combined army of the French and Sardinians, under the command of the

Emperor Napoleon in person. The Austrians fought with great bravery and determination, but were not well officered, and the arrival of General M'Mahon with his troops at an opportune moment decided the battle against them. They had about 75,000 men in the field, while the allies numbered about 55,000. The latter lost about 4000 men in killed and wounded, the former about 10,000, besides 7000 prisoners. Next day the inhabitants of Milan rose in insurrection, and the garrison fled. Pavia was evacuated on the 7th, and on the 8th the fortified position of Melegnano was taken after three hours' hard fighting. The same day the allied monarchs made their triumphal entry into Milan. One stronghold after another now fell into the hands of the conquerors. The defeated army retreated to the further bank of the Mincio, where it was reorganised, and the emperor himself assumed the command. It then recrossed the Mincio, and took up a position near the village of Solferino. Here the allies came up to it, and both sides prepared for battle. The Austrian army numbered about 170,000 men, while the allied troops were not less than 150,000. The battle commenced early in the morning of the 24th June, and continued till late in the afternoon. The Austrian line extended for nearly 12 miles. The right and left wings of the Austrians were for some time successful, while Napoleon was using every effort to break their centre. In this he was at length successful, and the wings were then obliged to retire in order that they might not be overflanked. The French lost in killed and wounded 12,000 men, the Sardinians 5000, and the Austrians 20,000, besides 7000 prisoners. The Austrians now abandoned the line of the Mincio, and fell back upon Verona. The allies crossed the Mincio, Peschiera was invested, and great preparations were made on both sides for renewing the contest. While all Europe was in the expectation of another great battle, news arrived that an armistice for five weeks had been agreed to; and on 11th July the two emperors met at Villafranca, and agreed to terms of peace. A conference was afterwards held at Zürich, and a treaty drawn up and signed (10th November 1859). By it Austria gave up Lombardy, with the exception of the fortresses of Mantua and Peschiera, to Napoleon, who was to hand it over to the king of Sardinia; Italy was to be formed into a confederation under the presidency of the Pope, and Austria was to be a member on account of Venetia; and the princes of Tuscany and Modena were to have their possessions restored to them.

In March 1860 the emperor, by patent, enlarged the number and powers of the Reichsrath or council of the empire, and on 21st October promulgated a new constitution, in which he declared the right to issue, alter, and abolish laws, to be exercised by him and his successors only with the co-operation of the lawfully assembled diets and of the Reichsrath. The things to be settled with the co-operation of the Reichsrath were all legislative matters relating to the rights, duties, and interests of the several kingdoms and countries, such as the laws connected with the coinage, currency, public credit, customs, and commercial matters. This was followed by proposals of similar changes for Hungary; and, on 27th February following, it was decreed that their former constitutions should be restored to Hungary, Croatia, Slavonia, and Transylvania. At last-mentioned date a fundamental law was also promulgated for the representation of the empire by a Reichsrath, composed of two bodies, a house of peers and a house of deputies, and declaring the constitution and functions of each. It was declared to be the earnest wish of the Government that hyper-centralisation should be avoided. On 1st May the new Reichsrath was formally opened by the emperor at Vienna, when he declared his conviction "that liberal institutions, with the conscientious

introduction and maintenance of the principles of equal rights of all the nationalities of his empire, of the equality of all his subjects in the eye of the law, and of the participation of the representatives of the people in the legislation, would lead to a salutary transformation of the whole monarchy." Hungary, Croatia, Slavonia, and Transylvania declined to send representatives, claiming to have constitutions and rights distinct from the empire. The Reichsrath sat till the close of 1862, occupying itself chiefly with ecclesiastical affairs, the state of education, personal liberty, and the laws relating to the press, commerce, feudal tenures, &c. In 1863 the emperor of Austria invited the different potentates of Germany to meet him at Frankfort, in order to determine upon a scheme of reform for their common country. They almost all responded to the invitation except the king of Prussia, and the congress was opened (August 16) by a speech from the emperor. The proceedings, however, did not result in any important change, owing in great measure to the want of sympathy from Prussia.

The death of Ferdinand VII., king of Denmark (15th November 1863), gave rise to a general ferment in Germany on the subject of the duchies Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg. To the Germans a united fatherland had long been a favourite idea, and they now saw a step towards its accomplishment. Notwithstanding the treaty of London (8th May 1852), which fixed the succession to the Danish crown, and was signed by Austria and Prussia, they denied the right of the new king, Christian IX., to the duchies, and laid claim to them as part of Germany. To enforce their claim the diet determined that they should be occupied by an armed force, and Saxony and Hanover were directed to enter and take possession of Holstein. This was done without their coming into hostile collision with the Danish troops, who retired to Schleswig (December 1863). Soon after this, however, Austria and Prussia gave notice that they, as the chief powers in Germany, intended to take upon themselves the carrying on of the war. Hostilities commenced (1st February 1864) when Austrian and Prussian troops crossed the Schleswig frontier. Denmark had trusted to England and France coming forward to maintain the conditions of the treaty of 1852; but these powers remained passive, and the Danes, after a short but heroic stand, were forced to succumb. An armistice was concluded (1st August), and a treaty of peace was eventually signed at Vienna (30th October), by which Denmark made over Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg to Austria and Prussia.

But Austria speedily suffered terrible retribution for the part she had taken in this affair. By inducing Austria to join with her, Prussia succeeded in removing part of the odium of the proceeding from herself, and she also succeeded in obtaining the aid of a rival power to secure territories which she had previously determined to appropriate as her own. The acquired territory naturally lay very convenient for Prussia, and Austria would have willingly enough given up her claim on it if Prussia had agreed to grant her a territorial equivalent in some other quarter of her dominions. This the latter power declined to do, but would readily have consented to a pecuniary compensation. A convention was therefore held at Gastein (August 1865), which brought about a temporary understanding. Prussia was to receive Lauenburg on payment of a sum of 1,500,000 thalers, while Austria was to have the administration of affairs in Holstein, and Prussia in Schleswig. Austria, however, was desirous of the formation of the duchies into a separate state, and supported the claims of the duke of Augustenburg to them. This was strenuously opposed by Prussia, who regarded the public meetings that were permitted to be held in Holstein in support of this as a breach of agreement. Austria referred

the question to the Frankfort diet, which decided in favour of the duke. Matters were now approaching a crisis. Prussia had long looked with jealousy upon the power of Austria, and considered a war with that country for the supremacy of Germany as sooner or later a necessity. The German people had for some time felt that there was not room for two great powers,—each too great to submit to the other,—one or other must give way before the country could obtain its proper place and influence in Europe. While both powers were professing the utmost desire for peace, each was actively preparing for war. Prussia entered into an alliance with Victor Emmanuel (27th March 1866), the latter undertaking to declare war against Austria as soon as Prussia commenced hostilities, while the former engaged to secure Venetia for her Italian ally. In the beginning of May orders were issued by the emperor of Austria for putting the whole army upon a war footing, and for concentrating a portion of it upon the Bohemian and Silesian frontiers; and about the same time the Prussian cabinet issued orders to fill up to the war strength the different branches of the service. On 7th June the Prussian troops entered Holstein, and compelled the Austrians to retire, which they did without bloodshed.

Austria was in an unprepared state when the war actually broke out, but the Prussian forces, on the other hand, were thoroughly equipped. The Austrian army in the north amounted to 247,000 men, besides the Saxon army at Dresden of 24,000, in all 271,000. The Prussian force consisted of three armies: the first, under the command of Prince Frederick Charles, consisted of 93,000 men, and was destined for Saxony and Bohemia; the second, under the crown prince, numbered 115,000 men, and was to operate in Silesia; while the third, or army of the Elbe, under General Herwarth, consisting of 46,000 men, was to march on the right flank of the first army, making in all 254,000 men, besides reserve corps of 24,300 men stationed at Berlin. General Benedek was appointed commander-in-chief of the Austrian army, and his forces were distributed along the frontier that separates Moravia from Saxony and Silesia. On the 16th of June the Prussians entered Saxony, and marched upon Dresden, the Saxon army retiring to join the Austrians. On the 18th the Austrians entered Silesia, and the same day the Prussians took possession of Dresden. The three Prussian armies now advanced into Bohemia, and endeavoured to concentrate in the direction of Gitschin. On June 26th an engagement took place between some companies of the first army and a body of Austrians at Podol, in which the latter were defeated, while, at Hühnerwasser, the advanced guard of the Elbe army attacked some Austrian troops and drove them back towards Münchengrätz. Here, on the 28th, a severe struggle took place between the Prussians and the Austrians, supported by the Saxons, but the latter were ultimately driven back in the direction of Gitschin. In the meantime the second army, under the crown prince, had to march through the long and narrow passes of the mountains lying between Silesia and Bohemia. On the 27th one of the corps of this army, under General Steinmetz, engaged an Austrian force under General Ramming, and after a severe contest began to give way, but the crown prince coming up, the Austrians were driven back. The same day another corps of this army took possession of Trautenau, but were attacked by the Austrians under General Gablenz, and sustained a repulse. Both sides having received reinforcements, the action was renewed next day at Soor, when victory ultimately declared for the Prussians. At Skalitz, on the 28th, the Prussians, under Steinmetz, were attacked by the Austrians under Archduke Leopold, but the latter were defeated, and the town taken by storm. It is said that on this occasion the archduke

had disobeyed positive orders, which were on no account to make an attack. On the 29th, two divisions of the first army, under Generals Tümpling and Werder, defeated the Austrians under Count Clam Gallas, at Gitschin, and took the town. The count, who occupied a strong position here, had orders not to attack the enemy, but these he had disobeyed, and the consequence was that Benedek, who had taken up a strong position at Dubenetz to oppose the army of the crown prince, found himself at once in a most dangerous situation, and was obliged to retreat towards Königgrätz. On the same day bodies of Austrians were defeated at Königshof and Schweinschädel. In these various engagements the Austrians lost in all from 30,000 to 40,000 men. Both sides now concentrated their forces in the direction of Königgrätz, and prepared for a general engagement. On June 30 the king of Prussia joined the army, and the battle of Königgrätz, or Sadowa, was fought on the 3d of July. The Austrians numbered about 220,000, and the Prussians probably about 240,000. The battle was long and well contested, both sides fighting with the greatest determination and bravery; but at length the Austrians were broken, and obliged to retire. The Prussians lost 359 officers and 8794 men, while the Austrians and Saxons lost in all about 44,200 men, of whom 19,800 were prisoners. This terminated what has been sometimes called the *Seven Days' War*. The Austrians retreated to Zwittau and afterwards to Olmütz. A portion of the Prussians went in pursuit, but the king, with an army of upwards of 100,000 men, marched on towards Vienna, and reached Nikolsburg, July 18. After the battle of Königgrätz, the emperor, seeing the disastrous state of his affairs, resolved to cede Venetia to the Emperor Napoleon, so as to be able to bring his army in Italy against the Prussians, and he also expressed his willingness to accept the mediation of the latter to bring about a peace. The Archduke Albert, who had the command of the army in Italy, with which he had inflicted a severe defeat on the Italians at Custozza, was recalled to take the chief command in place of Benedek. An armistice, however, was agreed upon through the mediation of France (22d July). The preliminaries of peace were signed at Nikolsburg (26th July), and negotiations were afterwards carried on at Prague, where a treaty was signed (23d August). By this treaty Austria gave up to the kingdom of Italy Venetia and the fortresses of the quadrilateral, namely, Peschiera, Mantua, Verona, and Legnano; recognised the dissolution of the late German Confederation, and consented to a new formation of Germany, in which she should have no part; gave up all claim to the duchies of Holstein and Schleswig; and agreed to pay a war indemnity of 40,000,000 thalers, less 20,000,000 allowed her on account of the duchies.

Having thus obtained peace, the emperor now turned his attention to home affairs. Hungary was still in a very troubled and dissatisfied state. We have seen that she declined to send representatives to the Reichsrath, insisting on her right to self-government, and refusing to have anything else. The plan of opposition she adopted was that of passive resistance, by the non-payment of taxes. At length, at the opening of the Hungarian diet at Pesth by the emperor in person, on December 14, 1865, he recognised the necessity of self-government for Hungary so far as it did not affect the unity of the empire and the position of Austria as a great European power. He also recognised the Pragmatic Sanction as the basis on which a settlement of their difficulties was to be sought. At the opening of the diet on 19th November 1866, an imperial rescript, signed by the emperor, was read, in which he promised, by the appointment of a responsible ministry and the restoration of municipal self-government, to do justice to the constitutional demands of the Hungarians. In the end of

1866, Baron Beust, who had previously been prime minister of Saxony, and was not only a foreigner but a Protestant, was made foreign minister. He subsequently became prime minister and chancellor of the empire. In the spring of 1867 the emperor summoned the Reichsrath to assemble at Vienna to deliberate upon various important measures,—the proposed amendments in the Hungarian constitution, the question of ministerial responsibility, the sending of delegates to assemblies, the extension of the constitutional self-government of the different provinces, the reorganisation of the army, the improvement of the administration of justice, and the promotion of the economical interests of the country. It was opened by the emperor in person on May 22, and in his speech on the occasion he earnestly recommended to their attention these subjects. "To-day," he said, "we are about to establish a work of peace and of concord. Let us throw a veil of forgetfulness over the immediate past, which has inflicted deep wounds upon the empire. Let us lay to heart the lessons which it leaves behind, but let us derive with unshaken courage new strength, and the resolve to secure to the empire peace and power." On 8th June the emperor and empress were crowned king and queen of Hungary at Pesth amid great public rejoicings, on which occasion full pardon was given for all past political offences, and full liberty to all offenders residing in foreign countries to return. Many important and liberal measures were discussed and carried in the Reichsrath; in particular, marriage was made a civil contract, and the perfect equality of believers of different creeds was recognised. On 25th May 1868, the civil marriage bill received imperial assent, and on 30th July 1870 the concordat with Rome was declared to be suspended in consequence of the promulgation of the doctrine of Papal infallibility. This last measure introduced a very beneficial change in the relations between Austria and the kingdom of Italy, and has brought about more sympathy and cordiality between these two states than formerly existed.

For some years the Government had much difficulty in settling the law of elections so as to secure the due repre-

sentation of the different races and classes of the people in the Reichsrath. On 6th March 1873 a reform bill was passed by the lower house, taking the election of members of the Reichsrath out of the hands of the provincial diets and transferring it to the body of the electors in the several provinces, thus substituting direct for indirect election. In April it passed the upper house and received the imperial assent. This measure was hailed with great satisfaction, and has established the government upon a much broader and more secure basis. The session of the new Reichsrath was opened by the emperor in person on November 5. In the same year a great exhibition of the industries of all nations was held at Vienna. It was opened on May 1 by the emperor, and attracted to the capital, among others, the prince of Wales, the czar of Russia, the emperor and empress of Germany, the king of Italy, and the shah of Persia. On 2d December the twenty-fifth anniversary of the emperor's accession to the throne was celebrated amid great rejoicings in Vienna, having been celebrated three days before in Pesth. The emperor and empress were present on both occasions, and everywhere met with an enthusiastic reception. In the spring of 1874 a bill for the abolition of the concordat was introduced by the Government, and measures for restricting the powers of the clergy passed both houses. In his speech at the opening of the Reichsrath on 5th November of that year, the emperor said that by the system of direct popular elections the empire had obtained real independence, and exhorted the members to work with united energy at the solution of the greatest of their tasks, the uniting of the people of Austria, so that she might become a powerful state, strong in ideas of justice and liberty.

See Dr F. Kohlrausch, *Die Deutsche Geschichte*, 1866; Ungewitter, *Die Oesterreichische Monarchie*, 1856; *Geschichte der Oesterreichischen Kaiserstaates*, 1859; Stein, *Handbuch der Geographie*, 1870; Grant Duff, *Studies in European Politics*, 1866, and *Elgin Speeches*, 1871; Sir A. Malet, *The Overthrow of the Germanic Confederation*, 1870; *The Campaign of 1866 in Germany*, translated by Colonel Von Wright, 1872; Steinhauser, *Geographie von Oesterreich-Ungarn*, 1872; *The Armed Strength of Austria*, by Captain W. S. Cooke, 1874. (D. K.)

AUTOCHTHONES, in *Greek Mythology*, the first human beings who appeared in the world, and who, as their name implies, were believed to have sprung from the earth itself. Instead of one pair as the first parents of the whole race, each district of Greece had its own autochthones, who, according to the prominent physical features of the neighbourhood, were supposed to have been produced from trees, rocks, or marshy places, the most peculiar, and apparently the most widely-spread belief being that which traced the origin of mankind to the otherwise unproductive rocks. Whether the first appearance of mankind was regarded as having been simultaneous in the various districts or not, at what time or times such appearance was made with reference, for example, to the origin of the gods who also had sprung from the earth (Pindar, *Nem.* vi. 1; Hesiod, *Works and Days*, 108), and whether the first men possessed the full human form, are questions which there is no material to answer satisfactorily. On the last point it is to be observed that Erysichthon at Athens was said to have had legs in the form of serpents, and that this is taken to denote his origination from a marshy place. Similarly the earth-born giants, who made war against the gods, had legs in the form of serpents. In Thebes, the race of Sparti were believed to have sprung from a field sown with dragons' teeth. The Phrygian Corybantes had been forced out of the hill-side like trees by Rhea, the great mother, and hence were called *δενδροφυεῖς*. But whatever the primitive form of men was believed to have been, it is clear

from Æschylus (*Prometheus*, 447, *fol.*) that they were supposed to have at first lived like animals in caves and woods, till by the help of the gods and heroes they were raised to a stage of civilisation. The practice of describing legendary heroes and men of ancient lineage as "earth-born," *γηγενεῖς*, strengthened greatly the doctrine of autochthony, and nowhere so much as in Attica.

AUTO-DA-FE (*Act of Faith*), a public solemnity of the Inquisition in Spain and Portugal, at which the sentences of the court were read; those who were declared innocent were formally absolved, and the condemned were handed over to the secular power for punishment. The day chosen was usually some Sunday between Trinity and Advent. The first auto-da-fe was held by Torquemada at Seville in 1481; the last was probably that mentioned by Llorente, the historian of the Inquisition, as having been solemnised in Mexico in 1815. See INQUISITION.

AUTOGRAPH (*ἄντρος* and *γράφειν*), that which is written with a person's own hand, an original manuscript as opposed to an *apograph* or copy, is used to designate either a whole document (e.g., a letter) or a signature only. The latter is perhaps the more common use of the term. The interest attaching to the possession of autographs of distinguished men, which has created a new branch of industry, is partly historical, partly psychological. The signatures or original manuscripts are interesting and valuable elements in the representation of the life of any individual; and it has been thought that from the