

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE  
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 4

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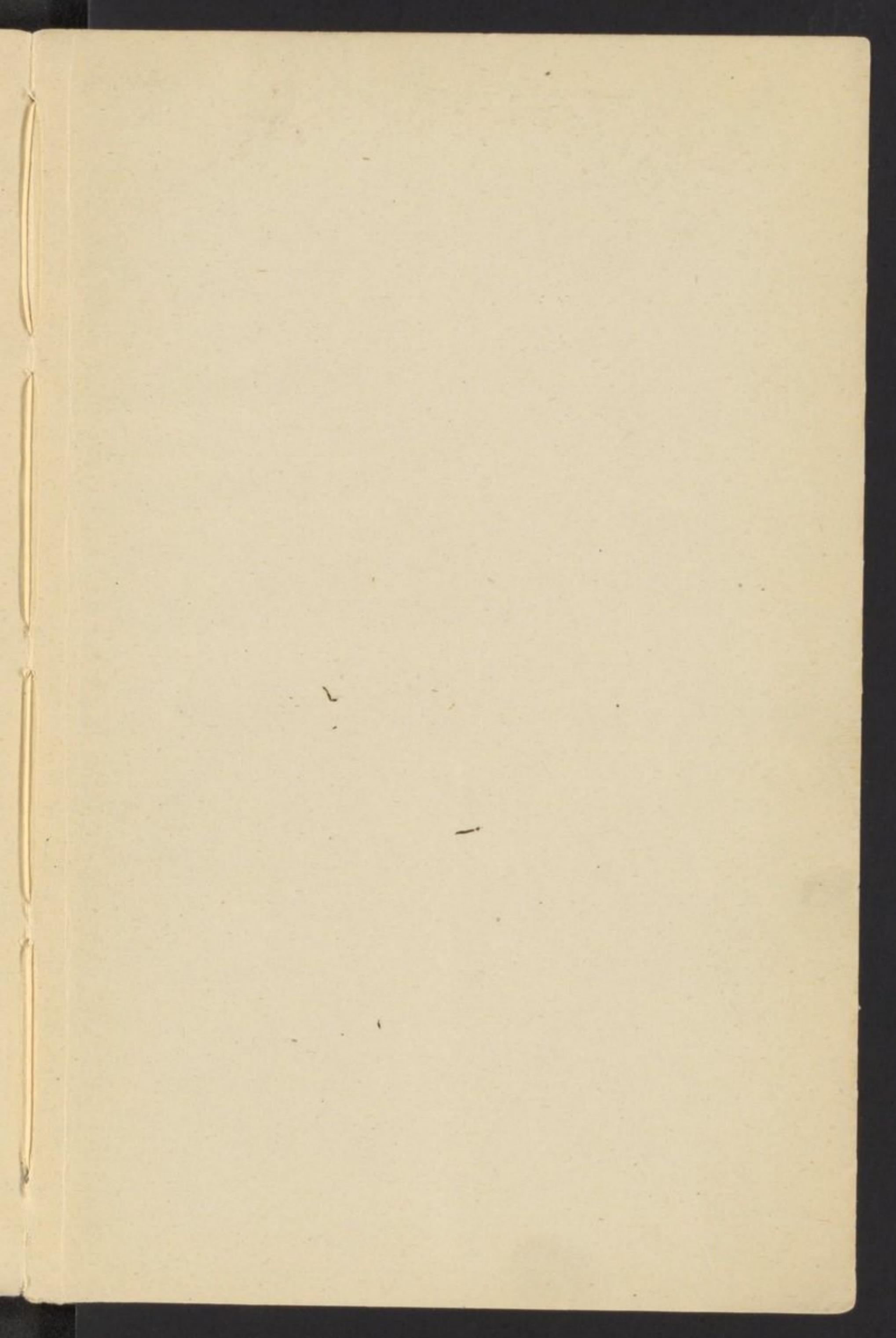
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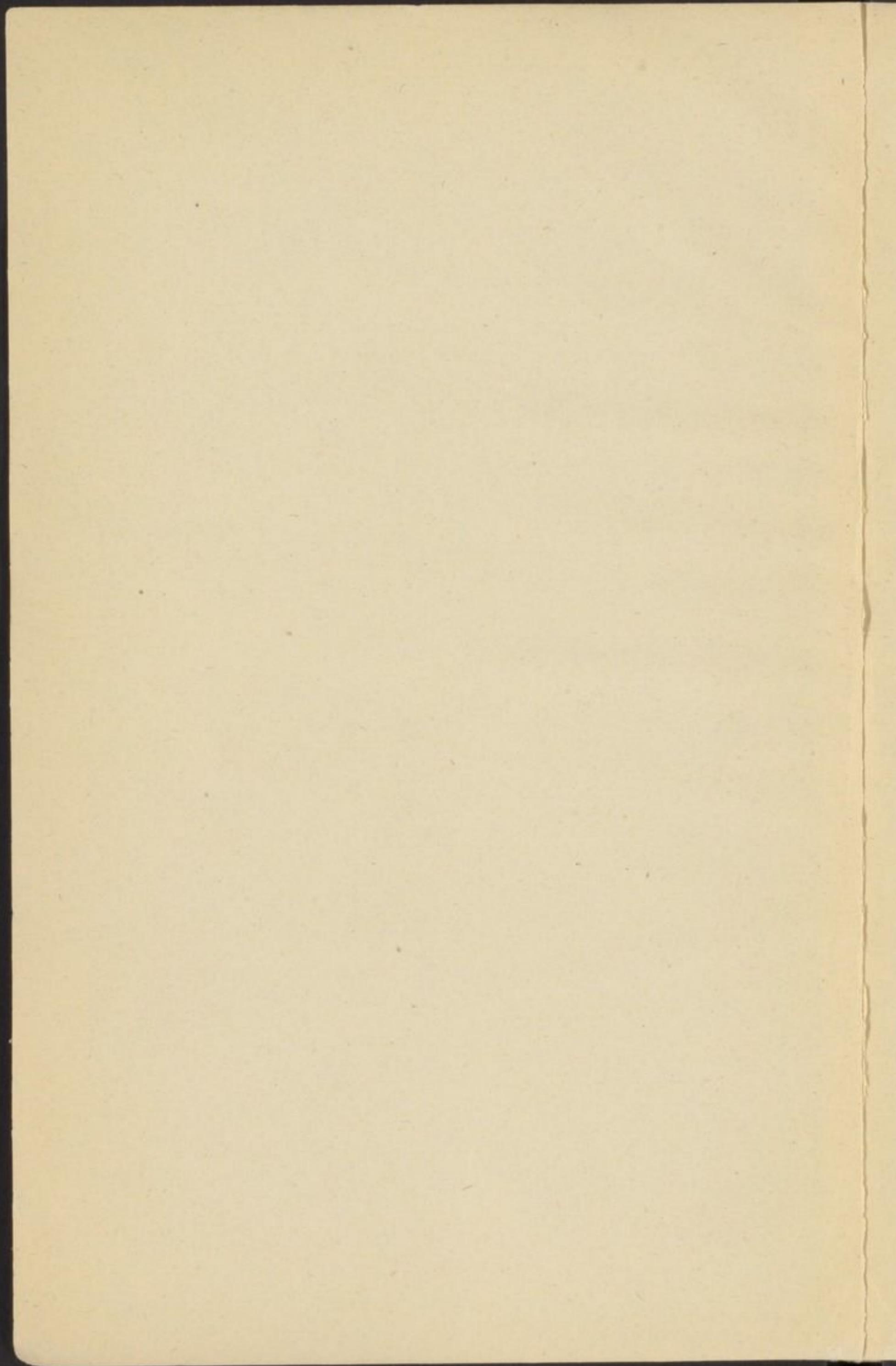


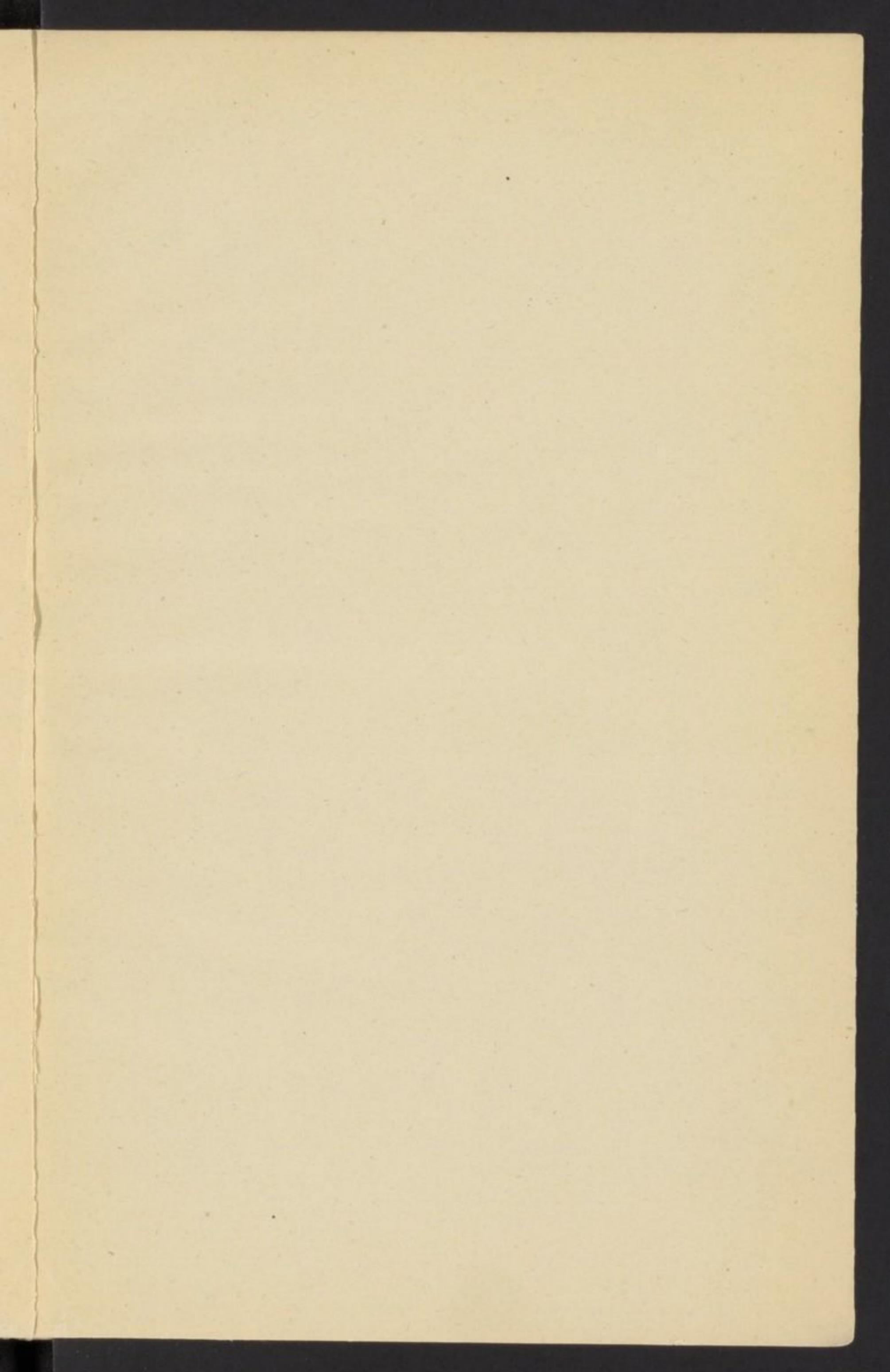


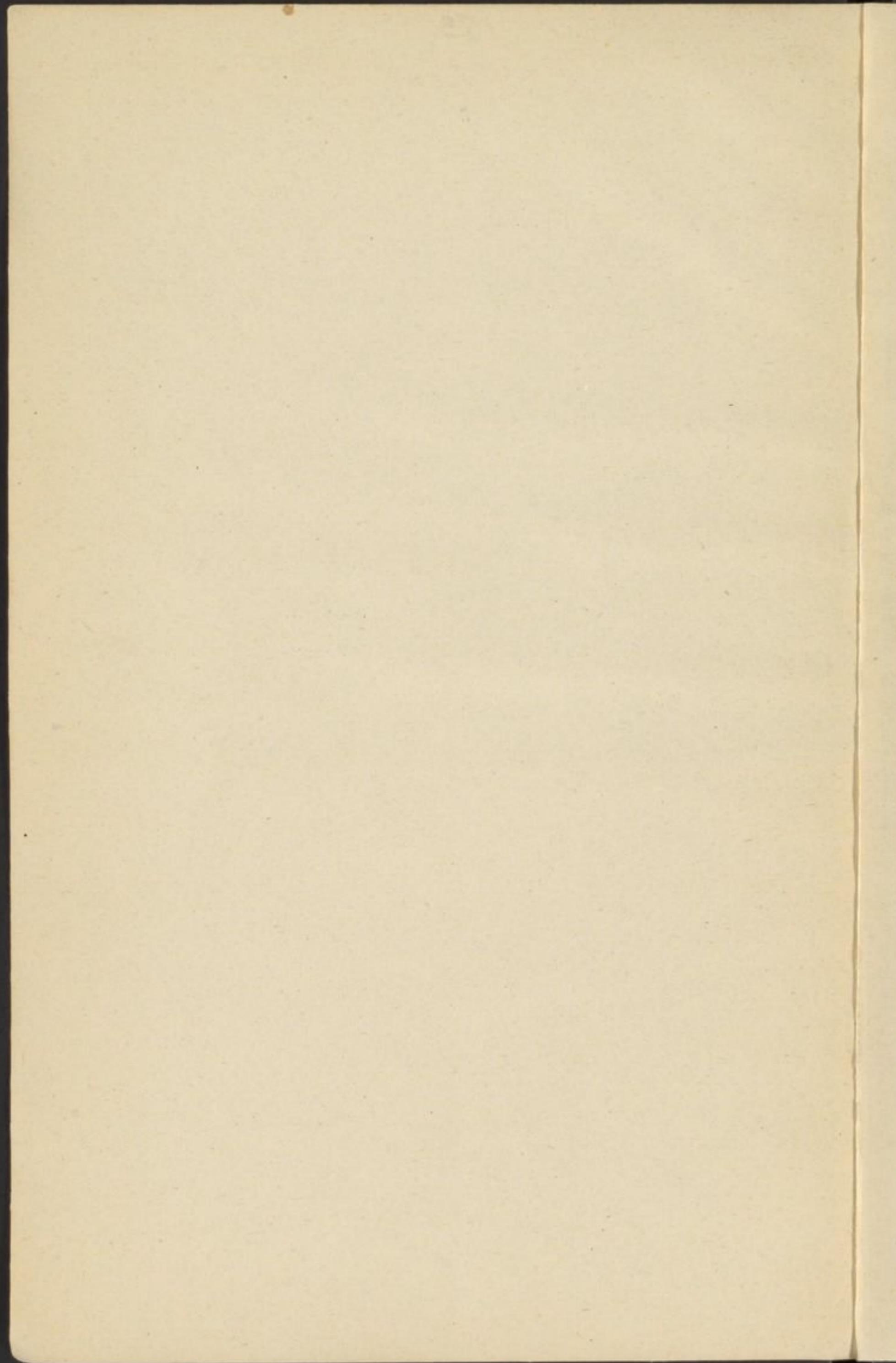
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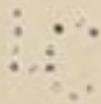
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### Editorial Note.

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IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly*

*Director of the Historical Section.*

*January 1920.*

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## I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

### (1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE Duchy of Austrian Silesia comprises the two Silesian districts of Troppau (Opawa) and Teschen (Cieszyn), which remained under Austrian sovereignty after the conquest of Silesia by Frederick the Great of Prussia in 1742. The two districts are separated by a wedge-shaped northward projection of Moravia, which lies between the Oder and the Ostrawitza. The Troppau district is known as Upper or Western Silesia, the Teschen district as Lower or Eastern Silesia. The two together, with an area of 2,026 square miles, form the smallest of the Crownlands of the Austrian Empire, and lie between  $49^{\circ} 25'$  and  $50^{\circ} 30'$  north latitude, and between  $16^{\circ} 50'$  and  $19^{\circ} 5'$  east longitude.

Both districts march on their northern side with Prussian Silesia. The boundary, from a point  $7\frac{1}{2}$  miles due west of Freiwaldau, runs first north-west along the Reichenstein ridge of the Sudetes, and then in a south-easterly direction as far as the Oder, making on the way a pronounced salient of some twelve miles south of Neustadt (representing the former Moravian enclave of Hotzenplotz), and from Jägerndorf onwards following the course of the Oppa, except where it includes an enlarged bridge-head opposite Troppau. East of the Oder and the Moravian wedge, the boundary follows for the most part the line of the Olsa and the Vistula (Weichsel).

On the southern side the Troppau district is bounded by Moravia, the frontier being very irregular and largely artificial, though it follows in parts the Altvater range, the upper Mohra, and the Oder. The Teschen

district is bounded on the west by Moravia, the division being the Ostrawitza; on the south by Hungary (Slovakia), where the boundary follows the Jablunka ridge of the West Beskid range; and on the east by Galicia, the division being the course of the Biała in the north, and farther south the Barania spur of the Beskids.

## (2) SURFACE AND RIVER SYSTEM

### *Surface*

In both districts of the Duchy the surface slopes downwards from the southern or south-western mountain-ridges towards the north or north-east, and the ridges send out spurs at right angles to the line of their main direction. Communications between east and west are consequently easy only for routes close to the northern edge of the Duchy, where they follow the river-courses of the Oppa, Olsa, or Vistula. Routes running north and south follow the river valleys and end in passes, which are at a high level in the north-western parts of the Troppau district, where they have to cross the High Gesenke; and also in the Teschen district, where the only considerable pass is the Jablunka. In the eastern half of the Troppau district the surface takes the form of a plateau, and presents fewer hindrances to communications. In general, communications with Prussian Silesia are easy, while contact with the rest of Austria-Hungary is rendered difficult by the mountain ranges, except in the central part of the Duchy. In the Troppau district the north-western area and the High Gesenke are purely mountain regions, and consist of rugged peaks and forest-covered valleys. The main mountain ridge follows the western frontier, the chief peaks, from west to east, being the Fichtloch (3,637 ft.), the Hirschbadkamm (3,253 ft.), and the Altvater (4,887 ft.).

A strip of country running north and south on the line Zuckmantel-Würbenthal-Engelsberg separates the High Gesenke from the Bennisch and Hrabin-Wigstadt plateaux. These plateaux consist of gently undulating

country of moderate fertility, intersected by river valleys of considerable depth, and their northern and eastern edges drop steeply for some 150 ft. to the level of the Oppa and Oder valleys. The Oppa valley is the district most favourable to agriculture, and sugar-beet is extensively grown there. The Kuhländchen, i.e. the country stretching along the left bank of the Oder, is famed for the breed of cattle which bears its name.

The Teschen district is more uniform in character. South of a line running east and west through Friedek, Teschen, and Bielitz (Bielsko), the country consists of the northern slopes of the West Beskids, which are known in this section as the Jablunka Mountains. The soil is mostly poor. Forest alternates with mountain pastures, known locally as the Salasch, and with the deep valleys of torrential streams. The chief mountain peaks are those of the Lyssa Hora (4,346 ft.), in the west, and, in succession from west to east, the Jaworowy (3,385 ft.), the Great and Little Pohlom (3,470 and 3,497 ft.), the Czantory (3,264 ft.), and the Barania group in the east (3,982 ft.).

North of the Friedek-Teschen-Bielitz line the country is an undulating plain sloping downwards towards the Prussian frontier. The soil here is mostly a heavy non-porous clay, which adds to the difficulties of agriculture in a damp and cold climate.

#### *River System*

The rivers of the Duchy, which are mainly tributaries of the Oder or Vistula, rise as mountain torrents on its southern and south-western borders, and flow north or north-east.

The Oder rises in Moravia, flows through the south-eastern corner of the Troppau district, and along its eastern border to the Prussian frontier. It is here joined by the Oppa, whose chief tributaries are the Gold Oppa, which flows from the north-west to join it at Jägerndorf, and the Mohra, which flows from the south to join it just below Troppau.

In the Teschen district the chief rivers are the Ostrawitza and the Olsa, which join the Oder at Ostrau and at Oderberg respectively; the Vistula, which rises in the Barania range, flows north to the Prussian frontier at Schwarzwasser, and then eastwards to the Galician border; and the Biała, which joins the Vistula ten miles north of Bielitz.

None of the rivers of the Duchy are navigable except for small local boats.

### (3) CLIMATE

The position of the Duchy on the northern flanks of the Sudetes and Beskids gives it a cold wet climate which is more favourable to forest than to agriculture. The mean annual rainfall varies between 23 and 27 inches (600 and 700 mm.) in the districts of Troppau and Wagstadt, between 27 and 31 inches (700 and 800 mm.) in the northern part of Eastern Silesia, and between 31 and 47 inches (800–1,200 mm.) in the mountain districts, being over 47 inches (1,200 mm.) on the Altvater.

The mean annual temperature is between 46° and 48° F. (8° and 9° C.), except in the central district on either side of the Moravian wedge, where it is above 48° F. (9° C.). The mean annual range of temperature in Eastern Silesia is 36° F. (20° C.).

The prevalent winds are west, and especially north-west. Violent changes of temperature are frequent, as a consequence of change of wind, especially in spring. Harvest takes place a month later than in Moravia.

### (4) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Racially the Duchy is made up of three distinct areas, comprising a section of German territory in the west, one of Czecho-Slovak territory in the centre, and one of Polish territory in the east. The German territory comprises the three western political districts (*politische Bezirke*) of Freiwaldau, Freudenthal, and

Jägerndorf, with the town of Troppau and the southern part of the rural district of Troppau. In this area, which forms the greater part of Western Silesia, the Germans, who speak the Silesian dialect, number everywhere over 89 per cent. of the population.

The Czecho-Slovak territory includes in Western Silesia the northern part of the rural district of Troppau, the district of Wagstadt, and in Eastern Silesia the rural district of Friedek. Here the inhabitants are of the same race, and speak approximately the same dialect, as the Slovaks of Hungary and the Czechs of Bohemia and Moravia. According to the census of 1910 they then formed 64 per cent. of the population in the district of Wagstadt, 75 per cent. in the northern part of the rural district of Troppau, and 78 per cent. in the rural district of Friedek. The minority in Wagstadt and Troppau was almost wholly German, and in Friedek consisted of Poles (15 per cent.) and Germans (7 per cent.).

The Poles occupy the rural district of Bielitz and the districts of Teschen and Freistadt, forming 77, 76, and 63 per cent. of the population respectively. The minorities consist of Germans (21, 17, and 13 per cent.) and Czecho-Slovaks (1, 6, and 23 per cent.). The town and suburbs of Bielitz, with the adjoining town of Biała in Galicia, are a German colony in Polish territory, the Germans forming 84 per cent. of the inhabitants of Bielitz, the Poles 14 per cent. The Poles do not differ in race or language from those of the adjoining districts of Galicia and Prussian Silesia.

The distribution of the different nationalities of the Duchy is thus unusually simple. The west is solidly German, with virtually no admixture of other races. The centre, i.e. the area on either side of the Moravian tongue, roughly bounded by lines drawn north-north-west and south-south-east through Troppau and Oderberg, has a Czecho-Slovak majority of some 70 per cent., while the east is predominantly Polish. Mixed populations only exist in the mining district and in a few towns.

## (5) POPULATION

*Distribution*

According to the census of 1910 the population was composed as follows :

	<i>German.</i>	<i>Czecho- Slovak.</i>	<i>Polish.</i>	<i>Others.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Numbers . . . . .	325,523	180,348	235,224	361	741,456
Per cent. . . . .	43.90	24.33	31.72	.05	100

Eastern Silesia, which covers rather less than half the area of the Duchy, contains over 57 per cent. of the population, the density of population (in 1910) being, in Eastern Silesia 493 per square mile, and in Western Silesia 290 per square mile. The densest areas are the districts of Freistadt, with 995 per square mile, and Friedek, with 554. The parts of these districts in which the coal-field is situated have a still greater density. On the whole the German parts of the Duchy are the most thinly populated, with under 300 per square mile ; the Czecho-Slovak area has from 330 to 550 per square mile ; and the Polish from 280 to 995. The Duchy as a whole, with 380 to the square mile, is the second in density of the lands of the Austrian Monarchy, being exceeded in this respect by Lower Austria alone. The population increases in density from south to north with the fall in the altitude of the country.

*Towns*

There were six towns with over 10,000 inhabitants in 1910, namely : Troppau, the administrative capital of the Duchy (30,762), Polish-Ostrau (22,892), Teschen (22,489), Bielitz (18,568), Jägerndorf (16,121), and Karwin (15,761). Sixteen other towns have more than 5,000 inhabitants. Only three of these twenty-two towns are independent administrative districts, viz. Troppau, Bielitz, and Friedek. The absence of large towns makes the great density of population the more remarkable.

*Movement*

The population of the Duchy has increased at a slightly more rapid rate in the past few decades than that of the whole Monarchy. The greater rate of increase has not been due to immigration, but to the higher rate for the excess of births over deaths among the Polish and Czecho-Slovak populations. The increase in the period 1900-10 was 76,527 persons, a rate of 11.2 per thousand per annum (17.7 for Eastern and 3.5 for Western Silesia). The annual birth-rate during the period was 37.6 per thousand, the death-rate 24.5 per thousand. Thus the excess of births over deaths was 13.1 per thousand per annum. It was highest (26) in the industrial district, and in general three times as high in the Polish and Czecho-Slovak districts (19) as in the German districts, where it was only 6.

On the whole, the Duchy lost by migration in the decade to the extent of 17,003 persons. There was thus considerably more emigration than in the previous decade, when the loss only amounted to 548 persons.

## II. POLITICAL HISTORY

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

1025. Bohemian conquest of Silesia from Poland.
- 1058-79. Polish revival under Boleslav II. Reconquest of Silesia.
1138. Partition of Polish Crown territories.
1146. Deposition of Wladislav.
1163. Intervention of Barbarossa. Restoration of Silesia to Wladislav's sons.
1241. Mongol invasion ; battle of Liegnitz.
- 1290-1331. Growth of Bohemian suzerainty.
1424. Hussite raids on Silesia begin.
1448. George of Poděbrad assumes the regency of Bohemia.
1458. George of Poděbrad elected King of Bohemia.
1466. Excommunication of George of Poděbrad.
1469. Matthias Corvinus proclaimed King of Bohemia.
1471. Death of George of Poděbrad.
1479. Treaty of Brünn. Silesia ceded to Matthias.
1490. Death of Matthias Corvinus. Silesia reverts to Wladislav of Bohemia. Constitutional concessions render Silesia autonomous.
1526. Ferdinand of Austria elected King of Bohemia.
1537. Covenant of Succession between Liegnitz and Brandenburg.
1546. Estates of Silesia declare Covenant invalid.
1550. Silesia brought directly under Habsburg dominion.
- 1618-20. Bohemian revolution.
1621. Terms granted to Silesia by Accord of Dresden.
1648. Treaty of Westphalia.
1675. Death of Duke of Liegnitz. Claim of Elector of Brandenburg under Covenant of Succession.
1686. Brandenburg commutes Silesian claims for cession of Schwiebus.
1694. Restoration of Schwiebus. Silesian claims raised but not pressed.
1740. Death of Emperor Charles VI. Frederick II invades Silesia.
1742. Treaty of Berlin. Cession of Prussian Silesia.
1745. Treaty of Dresden, confirming terms of 1742.

1763. Treaty of Hubertsburg, confirming terms of 1742.

1781. Abolition of serfdom in Austrian Silesia.

1848-68. Bohemians claim reconstitution of ancient kingdom, including Austrian Silesia.

### (1) EARLY HISTORY

THE history of Silesia, before its occupation by a Slav race, is purely conjectural. In the latter half of the ninth century the people of Silesia recognized the rule of Svatoplak of Moravia, who established a temporary authority over the large district extending from the Theiss in Hungary to Bohemia and Bavaria. After the fall of the Moravian Empire, Silesia, in the course of the tenth century, came partly under Poland and partly under Bohemia. In the last years of the tenth century, when the power of Bohemia decreased, the whole of Silesia fell under the dominion of Boleslav the Great of Poland. The tenth century was a crucial period in the history of Silesia, for it decided that its future was not to be linked with that of the Eastern Slavs. The influence of Polish and Bohemian conquerors tended to force Silesia into the general current of Western European history by bringing it into contact alike with the organization of the Roman Church and with the feudal constitution of the Western kingdoms. The story of Silesia in the eleventh century is connected with the continuous struggles between Poland and Bohemia and with the first German intervention. Boleslav the Great of Poland died in 1025, and the Bohemians, under Bretislav, reconquered Silesia, but the Emperor Henry III, after an expedition to Prague, compelled Bretislav to do homage for Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia. In the middle and end of the century there was a Polish revival under Boleslav II (1058-79), in the course of which Silesia was again recovered. It was held by the Poles against a German invasion under the Emperor Henry V in 1109.

The separate history of Silesia begins with the death of Boleslav III of Poland in 1139. He had made, in

the preceding year, a partition of the Polish territories among his four sons, and this partition soon led to the independence of Silesia and to the Germanization of the greater part of it. The eldest of the four, Wladislav, who, by his father's settlement, retained a superiority over the possessions of his brothers, was deposed by his brother Boleslav in 1146, and took refuge in Germany, where he died in 1159. By the intervention, in 1163, of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, Boleslav IV of Poland was compelled to restore Silesia to the three sons of Wladislav. One of them died soon afterwards and his share passed to his eldest brother, and Silesia became divided into the two dukedoms of Lower and Upper Silesia, with Breslau and Ratibor as their respective capitals.

## (2) GROWTH OF GERMAN INFLUENCE

Both the brothers set themselves to encourage the German influence to which they owed their possessions, invited German colonists to settle in Silesia, and introduced German methods of administration. Breslau, the capital of Lower Silesia, was made a German city. German immigration continued on a large scale throughout the succeeding century, and Silesia owed to German settlers the reclamation of much waste land and the beginnings of its mining and weaving industries; but a considerable proportion of the country remained Polish in nationality and in sympathy. Industrial and agricultural development was checked in the middle of the thirteenth century by the Mongol invasion under Batu, who attacked Poland in 1241. Marching into Silesia, he defeated at Liegnitz (April 9) a large army of Poles and Germans under Henry II, Duke of Lower Silesia, and forced his way into Hungary. The opposition offered by the Silesians is regarded as having broken the force of the invasion, and as having made Silesia a rampart of the Empire; but the immediate results of the battle were disastrous, for the Mongols burned the towns and ravaged the country.

By the end of the thirteenth century, the greater part of Silesia was becoming definitely German. The ruling houses were either German in origin or had accepted the German language and customs, and Duke Henry IV of Breslau (1266-90) is remembered as one of the Minnesinger. The characteristic features of its history in the fourteenth century are the constant subdivisions of territory on the death of a duke, and the establishment of intimate relations with the Luxemburg kings of Bohemia. In the course of the century, Lower Silesia came to be divided into nine principalities—Brieg, Breslau, Liegnitz, Schweidnitz, Jauer, Münsterberg, Glogau, Steinau, and Öls; and Upper Silesia into eight principalities—Kosel, Teschen, Beuthen, Falkenberg, Oppeln, Strehlitz, Ratibor, and Troppau. The last named was originally a Bohemian fief, united to Upper Silesia about 1340; the district of Jägerndorf was detached from it about twenty-five years later. To these lay principalities has to be added the episcopal principality of Neisse; and in 1428 an additional principality—Sagan—was created in Lower Silesia. These subdivisions brought about internal conflicts and disorder, and they explain, to some extent, the growing dependence of Silesia upon the German rulers of Bohemia; another part of the explanation is to be found in the differences between the German and the Polish populations of the province, and in the desire of the Germanized Dukes of Silesia to obtain German protection against the reviving power of Poland. In 1327 the princes of Upper Silesia and the Duke of Breslau took oaths of fealty to John of Bohemia; and within four years the large majority of the princes of Lower Silesia followed their example. From 1331 to 1742 Silesia was almost continuously a province of Bohemia, in feudal subjection to the Bohemian Crown. Under King John and the Emperor Charles IV, the Bohemian connexion was strengthened by the marriage of Charles IV to the heiress of Schweidnitz and Jauer, and by the transference or lapse of some of the small Silesian principalities to the Bohemian Crown. By the

end of the fourteenth century, Silesia, with Moravia and Lusatia, had become, constitutionally, Crown lands. Until the outbreak of the Hussite wars, the dependence of Silesia upon Bohemia was of great advantage to the country, both in the establishment of an ordered government and in the development of trade and industry.

### (3) HUSSITE WARS

At the outbreak of the Hussite wars, German Silesia was faithful to the German Sigismund, and supplied him with troops; and, when the Hussite leader, Procopius, began, about 1424, his series of offensive operations, Silesia was frequently invaded and ravaged. After the death of Procopius in the course of the civil war which developed among the Hussites, the Bohemians in 1436 acknowledged Sigismund's authority; but the Emperor's death in 1437 again created a situation in which the interests of the ruling classes in Silesia were antagonistic to a national movement in Bohemia. Sigismund's son-in-law, Albert of Austria, was elected King by the Bohemian Estates, but he died within two years, leaving a posthumous son Ladislas.

### (4) CZECH REVIVAL

The infant was, in turn, elected to the throne, but a strong national leader, George of Poděbrad, began to revive the national spirit of the Czechs. In 1448, George of Poděbrad led an army to Prague and assumed the regency, and, after the death of Ladislas, he was elected King in 1458. The province of Silesia was, therefore, under the rule of a Czech monarch. The position was not resented by the Silesian Poles; and, as the Papacy recognized the election and the Moravians offered no resistance, the German Silesians were unable to do more than make ineffectual protests, although Breslau obstinately declined to acknowledge the authority of George of Poděbrad. While George of Poděbrad succeeded in

maintaining peaceful relations with the Papacy and with Matthias Corvinus, the King of Hungary, the permanent submission of Silesia to Czech rule remained a possibility of the situation. But in 1466 George was excommunicated by Pope Paul II; and Matthias Corvinus gave his support to the party in Bohemia which wished to bring about a complete reunion with the Papacy. In the war which followed, the German Silesians rebelled against King George, who was supported by the non-German population. When Matthias invaded Moravia and was proclaimed King of Bohemia and Moravia at Olmütz in 1469, the German Silesians welcomed an opportunity of escaping from Czech rule and acknowledged the authority of Matthias. George died in 1471, and the national party in Bohemia elected Wladislav (Ladislaus), son of Casimir IV of Poland. The struggle which ensued lasted for some seven years, during which there was civil war between the Germans and the Poles in Silesia. The German party temporarily triumphed, for, in accordance with a compromise made at Olmütz in 1478 and confirmed by the Treaty of Brünn (1479), the provinces of Silesia, Moravia, and Lusatia were ceded for his lifetime to Matthias, who, in turn, recognized the authority of Wladislav in Bohemia.

The administration of Matthias Corvinus marks an era in the constitutional history of Silesia. He established a Diet of princes and instituted an efficient central government, confiscating, as Charles IV had done, the lands of rebellious feudatories. These measures, and the financial exactions which accompanied them, were productive of much discontent; and when, on the death of Matthias in 1490, Silesia passed again to the Bohemian Crown, the nobles obtained from Wladislav a number of concessions which made Silesia practically autonomous. The Estates received the right of regular session; and among the privileges conceded were exemption from compulsory military service outside Silesia and freedom from arbitrary taxation. These privileges were retained under Wladi-

slav's son and successor, Louis, King of Bohemia and Hungary (1516-26). The death of Louis, in a Turkish war in 1526, brought Silesia again under German rule, for the Bohemians elected as their sovereign the Archduke Ferdinand of Austria (afterwards the Emperor Ferdinand I), a brother-in-law of Louis. Silesia thus became part of the Habsburg dominions; but the events of the whole period from the outbreak of the Hussite wars had accentuated the differences between Poles, Czechs, and Germans in Silesia, and had given confidence and some unity to the non-German elements.

#### (5) SILESIA IN THE REFORMATION

At the date of the accession of Ferdinand to the Bohemian throne, the Reformation struggle had already begun. During the Hussite wars German Silesians had been the devoted upholders of the Papal cause and of the unity of the Church; but, when the reformed doctrines came to them from German sources and ceased to be associated with Czech nationalism, these doctrines made many converts, and, before the death of Louis II in 1526, the Reformed Church had obtained a strong hold in Silesia. Difficulties in Hungary and the Turkish menace prevented Ferdinand from taking any strong measures of repression at the time of his accession; and the growth of Protestantism continued undisturbed. At the outbreak of the Schmalkaldic War in 1546, the Silesians, who had borne their share of the struggle against the Turks, declined Ferdinand's request to supply troops for the Imperialist army, and, in common with their Bohemian fellow Protestants, showed symptoms of insurrection. After the Imperial victory at Mühlberg, Ferdinand levied heavy fines on the Silesian duchies. Protestantism was protected by the general settlement made at Augsburg; but the Counter-Reformation began to influence Silesia, and Jesuit missions were encouraged by Ferdinand. Important constitutional changes were made after the war. The ancient ecclesiastical dependence upon the recently secularized

Archbishopric of Magdeburg, which from the fourteenth century had encouraged German influences in Silesia, was abolished and replaced by an appeal court at Prague. The privileges granted by Wladislav to the Silesian Estates were so greatly restricted as practically to disappear; and the right of refusing to serve beyond the Silesian borders, which involved a claim to decide on questions of foreign policy, was withdrawn. A new financial organization brought the country directly under the Bohemian Crown, and from 1550 Silesia was actually governed by the Habsburgs. Under the mild rule of Maximilian II, Protestantism suffered more from internal dissensions than from persecution; but, with the accession of Rudolf II in 1576, a policy of repression began and led to considerable trouble in Silesia, in the course of which Troppau was placed under the ban of the Empire. The revolt of Rudolf's brother, Matthias, made it necessary for the Emperor to obtain the support of the Bohemians; and in 1609 he issued *Majestätsbriefe* for Bohemia and Silesia, permitting freedom of conscience. The common danger to Protestantism had united Bohemians and Silesians and removed the recollection of ancient jealousies; and in the final crisis of Rudolf's reign they acted together in deposing Rudolf and electing Matthias (1612).

#### (6) BOHEMIAN REVOLT

In the troubles of the short reign of Matthias, Silesia followed the fortunes of Bohemia; and the failure of the Bohemian Protestants in 1617 to resist the acknowledgement of the bigoted Ferdinand of Styria as the heir to the Bohemian Crown was followed by his recognition by the Estates of Silesia. In the following year the Bohemian Protestants rebelled, and the Silesian Estates threw in their lot with the revolutionaries. The attitude of Silesia was largely determined by John George, Duke of Jägerndorf, whose claim to the duchy, based on the will of George Frederick, son of Margrave George the Pious of Anspach (cf. *infra*, p. 17), was dis-

puted by the Emperor. The Bohemian revolution collapsed in 1620; and the Silesians appealed for terms to the Elector of Saxony, who had been entrusted with the reduction of the province. The conditions granted, which were by no means oppressive, were embodied in the Accord of Dresden (February 1621), an agreement to which, on account of its mildness, the consent of the Emperor was somewhat reluctantly given. John George was, however, excepted from the general amnesty, and his duchy was confiscated.

In spite of the agreement arrived at by the Accord of Dresden, Silesia was not destined to enjoy peace. The district remained a cockpit of contending forces till near the end of the Thirty Years' War. The sufferings of Silesia in the years 1618-48 can easily be understood from the descriptions given by German historians of the atrocities committed by the armies; and its industry, especially the mines, did not recover from the effects of the war for a very long period.

By the Treaty of Westphalia, Silesia passed, with Bohemia, under the rule of the Imperial House. The Emperor Ferdinand III granted, by the treaty, to the Duchies of Liegnitz, Brieg, and Öls, and to the city of Breslau, the religious liberties enjoyed before the war, and he also promised some measure of toleration to Protestantism throughout the province.

The promises made at the time of the Treaty of Westphalia were not generously interpreted, or even honourably observed; and Silesian Protestants suffered from repressive measures until 1707, when Charles XII of Sweden, in making the Treaty of Altranstadt with the Emperor Joseph I, intervened on their behalf.

#### (7) HOHENZOLLERN CLAIMS

But the only political importance of Silesian history during the years from 1648-1740 lies in the development of the Brandenburg claims upon portions of the province. At the date of the Treaty of Westphalia, the House of Brandenburg had a shadowy claim upon the

Duchies of Ratibor and Oppeln. To understand this it is necessary to go back to the reigns of Wladislav and Louis in the sixteenth century. George the Pious, Margrave of Anspach, was a favourite nephew of Wladislav, and acted as tutor to the future King Louis. Having certain pecuniary claims over some of his uncle's Hungarian possessions, he commuted these for a promise of the succession to the childless Dukes of Ratibor and Oppeln, whose goodwill he succeeded in obtaining to the arrangement; though Wladislav had no right to make it. Though Ferdinand, on his succession to Louis in 1526, seems to have given some sort of confirmation to the scheme, the Margrave's right to the duchies had never been fully admitted; and in 1546, after the Silesian disaffection at the outbreak of the Schmalkaldic War, George Frederick, the successor of George the Pious, was deprived by Ferdinand of all authority over the duchies, which were held to have escheated to the Crown. In the course of the Thirty Years' War they had more than once been used as inducements to obtain assistance for the Imperial cause. The claim to these duchies by the House of Brandenburg, being based on the title of George Frederick, was accordingly very doubtful. George Frederick had, however, purported to leave these duchies, together with that of Jägerndorf, to the Elector of Brandenburg by will.

The claim to Jägerndorf, though certainly open to question, was more substantial. This duchy was purchased by George the Pious in 1524, but it was doubtful whether his enfeoffment could include persons who were not direct descendants; and on this ground the will of George Frederick, in so far as it dealt with Jägerndorf, had been disputed by the Emperor. The duchy was, however, actually held in conformity with the terms of the will until Duke John George was placed under the ban of the Empire for his share in the Bohemian Revolution (1622) and his duchy confiscated. Efforts to secure Jägerndorf for Brandenburg at Westphalia were fruitless; but the Great Elector had asserted his

right of succession on the death of Ernest, the only son of John George, in 1642, and he continued to maintain his claim to the duchy.

The death, in 1675, of George William, Duke of Liegnitz, Wohlau, and Brieg, furnished the Great Elector with new claims in Silesia. In 1537 Frederick II, Duke of Liegnitz, who had married one of the daughters of George the Pious, made with the House of Brandenburg a Covenant of Succession, by which, if the heirs of Frederick should fail, the Silesian Duchies of Liegnitz, Brieg, and Wohlau should pass to the House of Brandenburg, and similarly the Bohemian territories of Brandenburg on failure of heirs should pass to the House of Liegnitz. Such an agreement was obviously incompatible with the state of Liegnitz as a fief of the Bohemian Crown; and the arrangement was repudiated by the Emperor Charles V and King Ferdinand. In 1546 the Estates of Silesia examined the deed; it was declared invalid, and Ferdinand ordered the destruction of both the Liegnitz and Brandenburg copies. The Liegnitz copy was destroyed, but the Brandenburg copy was preserved, in defiance of Imperial orders; and, on the death of George William, the Great Elector put forward his claim, again defying the Emperor Leopold, who asked him to give up the document. The Great Elector offered to commute the new claims for Jägerndorf, but failed to obtain this concession, and, in revenge, he entered into close relations with France. In 1682, when Vienna was threatened by the Turks, the Great Elector offered to send a force; and, on the Emperor's declining the offer, the troops were sent to occupy the Silesian duchies claimed by Brandenburg.

Four years afterwards, a reconciliation with the Emperor still further complicated the question of the Brandenburg claims in Silesia. The Great Elector agreed to abandon all his Silesian claims for the cession of the Circle of Schwiebus, part of the Duchy of Glogau, which had been escheated to the Bohemian Crown in the end of the fifteenth century. He was placed in

possession of the territory, which, from 1686 to 1694, was included in the Brandenburg possessions. But his son, the Electoral Prince Frederick, was on bad terms with the Elector, and he entered into a secret agreement to return the territory to Austria, on his own accession to Brandenburg, either in the hope of conferment of the royal dignity upon Brandenburg-Prussia or as part of an arrangement for the repudiation of the will which the Great Elector was believed to have made. The Great Elector died in 1688; and, after some years of negotiation, the Circle of Schwiebus was restored. The Elector Frederick III took the opportunity of insisting that the restoration *ipso facto* revived the original claims to Liegnitz, Brieg, Wohlau, and Jägerndorf; but the justice of this assertion was not admitted by the Emperor, who, indeed, insisted that every Hohenzollern claim in Silesia was invalidated by the circumstance that neither Margrave George the Pious nor Duke Frederick II of Liegnitz possessed any power of conferring the succession on any one not descended from themselves. Jägerndorf, Liegnitz, Brieg, Wohlau, Oppeln, and Ratibor had all, in the view of the Emperor, escheated to the Bohemian Crown, as many other Silesian principalities had done. The circumstance that Hohenzollern tenacity had insisted on a repeated assertion of the claims could not give any validity to them.

From the restoration of Schwiebus in 1694 to the death of the Emperor Charles VI in October 1740, the Hohenzollern pretensions were in abeyance; and King Frederick William I of Prussia paid, in 1732, a visit to Charles VI, in the course of which he was entertained, as the Emperor's guest, in Liegnitz and Jägerndorf. Frederick William I had died six months before the Emperor; and his successor, Frederick II, immediately on receiving the news of the death of Charles VI, determined on an invasion of Silesia. Prussia, like the rest of the Empire, had accepted the Pragmatic Sanction; and Frederick II had, in point of fact, much stronger claims upon the Duchies of Berg and Jülich than on

Silesia. But he had no intention of observing the pledge given by his father to acknowledge the succession of Maria Theresa ; and an attack upon the Rhine duchies was certain to lead to difficulties with France and Holland, while Silesia lay at his mercy.

#### (8) SILESIAN WARS

It is unnecessary to give more than a very brief outline of the Silesian wars. When Frederick demanded his 'rights', Maria Theresa refused ; but, without waiting for a reply, he proceeded to invade Silesia, asserting pretexts about dangers from Saxony and Bavaria, which he afterwards disavowed in his *Memoirs*. Frederick marched up the Oder to Breslau, which capitulated (January 2, 1741) ; and except for resistance from the hastily defended fortresses of Brieg, Glogau, and Neisse, little or no opposition was made to the invaders. Glogau was captured on March 9, but an Austrian army relieved Neisse early in April and was marching on Brieg when Frederick defeated it at Mollwitz (April 10). Brieg fell in May ; and Maria Theresa, threatened by a new enemy, had to withdraw her troops from Silesia in October. The new enemy was France, with which Frederick had made an offensive alliance by the Treaty of Breslau (June 1741). The rest of the fighting of the campaign was in Bohemia ; and Frederick was left to seize the Silesian strongholds. By the Peace of Breslau in June 1742 (confirmed at Berlin in July), Maria Theresa ceded to Frederick Upper and Lower Silesia, exclusive of Troppau and Teschen, and, in addition, the district of Glatz ; and the King of Prussia, in return, deserted his French, Bavarian, and Saxon allies. The acquiescence of Maria Theresa in the loss of Silesia was understood to be only temporary ; and in 1744 Frederick again made an alliance with France and with Bavaria and other German States. In the second Silesian War, Frederick invaded Bohemia and captured Prague (August 1744), but had to retire into Silesia, followed

by an Austrian army, which, however, was soon driven back into Bohemia by the difficulties of a winter campaign. In the summer of 1745 a second Austrian invasion of Silesia was repelled by Frederick's victory at Hohenfriedberg (May); and the Prussians again entered Bohemia. They defeated the Austrians at Sohr in September, and Frederick gained a third victory at Hengersdorf in November. At Christmas 1745, in return for the recognition of his Silesian possessions, Frederick acknowledged Francis I, the husband of Maria Theresa, as Emperor.

The recovery of Silesia was one of the objects of Maria Theresa in making the alliance with France which is known as the Diplomatic Revolution; and Frederick had to defend his booty in the Seven Years' War. When, however, hostilities ceased, the Austrians held Glatz, but no other part of Silesia. The Treaty of Hubertusburg (February 15, 1763) restored the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin of 1745; and the Prussians were left in possession of the whole of Silesia, except the districts of Troppau and Teschen, which included the larger part of Jägerndorf.

Austria, while maintaining up to the present time the use of the old term, Upper and Lower Silesia, to describe the mutilated fragment left to her, has never made any military effort to recover the province. Suggestions for the restoration of the whole of Silesia were, however, made during the Napoleonic Wars; and so recently as 1866, in the negotiations between Austria and France which preceded the Austro-Prussian War, the Emperor Francis Joseph made the recovery of Silesia one of the objects of a proposed alliance with Napoleon III.

#### (9) AUSTRIAN SILESIA AFTER 1742

The territory ceded by Maria Theresa to Frederick II was 'all Silesia, except Teschen and the district beyond the River Oppa and the high mountains'. The formula was not without ambiguity, but the

boundary commissions appointed by Frederick II were not disturbed by any Austrian opposition. The small Silesian province has been regarded, since 1742, as an Austrian, not as a Bohemian, province; and in the administrative reorganization carried out by the Emperor Joseph II soon after his accession, it was united with Moravia to form one of the thirteen Departments of the Empire. During his mother's lifetime, Joseph, who shared the responsibilities of government with Maria Theresa, had obtained her consent, in 1773, to the adoption of measures designed to improve the condition of the peasants; and the steps then taken had been the occasion of serious peasant risings in Silesia and the neighbouring districts. But in 1781, when he was sole ruler, he abolished serfdom in Silesia, Moravia, and Bohemia.

Since that date, the history of the province presents no special features, except in 1848 and 1868. In the former year the Bohemians included among the revolutionary demands sent to Vienna the reconstitution of the ancient Bohemian kingdom, including Silesia and Moravia. The claim met the fate of most of the other national and democratic attempts of that year, but it was revived twenty years afterwards. In the interval the constitutions of 1861 and 1867 had given Silesia representatives in the Austrian Reichsrat, but this entirely failed to satisfy Bohemian aspirations; and in October 1868 the national party, during a visit of the Emperor Francis Joseph to Prague, again asked for the revival of the old kingdom. Silesia had in the rearrangements after 1848 become a separate province; and German influence was sufficiently strong in the provincial Diet to obtain a majority against the Bohemian national programme. The Moravian Diet adopted the same attitude. After the suppression of the Bohemian revolt in 1868-9, the question of the relations of Austrian Silesia to Bohemia did not again arise as a matter of practical politics.

### III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

#### (1) POLITICAL

POLITICAL conditions in Austrian Silesia are complicated by racial distribution and by the Czech claim that the province is part of the old Bohemian kingdom. The census of 1910 showed that there are three large racial groups. Comparison with the census of 1900 shows that while German and Czecho-Slovak elements are increasing the numbers of the Poles have diminished. Other nationalities (Ruthenian, Slovenian, Serbian, Croatian, and Italian) number only 361 individuals in all. The Poles have maintained, through the many centuries of their separation from the Polish kingdom, a strong sense of nationality and of their community of interest with the Poles elsewhere, and the Czechs have a similar feeling towards the Bohemians. These racial differences are marked both in the provincial Diet and in the selection of the twelve Silesian members of the Reichsrat. For administrative purposes, Silesia is divided into nine government districts, with three autonomous towns—Bielitz, Friedek, and the capital, Troppau.

#### (2) RELIGIOUS AND EDUCATIONAL

An overwhelming proportion (nearly 85 per cent.) of the inhabitants of Austrian Silesia are Roman Catholics. The Protestants number only about 14 per cent., nearly all Poles, and 1 per cent. are Jews. There is an adequate supply of educational facilities, provided by 21 Bürgerschulen (primary schools), 7 Ober-gymnasia, 4 Oberrealschulen, 10 Handelsschulen, and Agricultural and Technical Colleges. Of the higher grade schools the Germans have the greatest number in proportion to their population, and the Poles the smallest.

## IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

*Introductory Note.*—Austrian Silesia is 1,987 square miles in extent—almost the size of Northumberland. Its area is 1·7 per cent. of that of all Austria (115,851 square miles), and 9·9 per cent. of that of Bohemia (20,058 square miles). This latter ratio affords a simple index of value when a comparison is made between the absolute figures of production in Austrian Silesia and Bohemia respectively. The population of Austrian Silesia is 2·6 per cent. of the population of all Austria, and is relatively dense, viz. 148 to the square kilometre, as compared with the corresponding figures for Bohemia (130) and for all Austria (105); while the last census showed, for the previous ten years, a greater increase (10·9 per cent.) than that of Austria as a whole (8·6 per cent.) or of Bohemia (7·5 per cent.).

### (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

#### (a) *Roads and Canals*

Austrian Silesia has more roads to the 100 square kilometres than any other province of Austria, viz. 76·7 kilometres, as compared with 63·7 in Bohemia and 40·4 in all Austria. In waterways, however, it is remarkably poor, and compares unfavourably with Bohemia. It has to the 100 square kilometres only 27 kilometres of waterway fit for boats and none fit for steamers.

The construction of the Elbe, Oder, Danube, and Vistula canals will of course alter this, as the Oder will then be linked up with the canal from Pardubitz to Prerau. Indeed, although the Oder is not an easy river to canalize, since at certain places, e. g. Oderberg, it is liable to flood, a beginning has already been made.

In 1911 the authorities in Prussian Silesia, tired of waiting for the great canal system which had been promised so long, were making the river navigable for vessels of 150 tons as far as Ratibor, some 25 kilometres from the Austrian Silesian frontier. When the canal schemes are carried out, Austrian Silesia will be in the centre of the system, and the industries of the province will certainly be benefited. It will then be possible, for instance, for the coal of Austrian Silesia to be sold to Hungary at a lower price, owing to the facilities for cheap transport afforded by the Danube-Oder Canal.

### (b) *Railways*

As part of the Austrian State Railway system (there are no private lines) the railways of Austrian Silesia call for little comment. The network is less dense (1 km. to 8.18 sq. km.) than in Bohemia (1 km. to 7.7 sq. km.), but denser than in Moravia (1 km. to 10.57 sq. km.), and sometimes it is insufficient for the carrying needs of the community; in 1907, to take one instance, the output of the Austrian Alpine Mining Company's coal-mine at Orlau was restricted by congestion on the Ferdinands Nordbahn.

The system possesses one striking feature. Oderberg, just within the Austrian frontier, is the junction at which several long stretches of double lines (the only 'through' double lines in this section of Europe) intersect, viz. the lines from Berlin to Vienna *via* Breslau, from Berlin to Hungary, from Vienna to Warsaw and Petrograd, and from Vienna to Cracow and Lemberg. This cannot fail to influence the commercial and industrial future of Austrian Silesia. Even now the province is visited by a relatively larger number of travellers than Bohemia and Moravia, and this in spite of the fashionable 'cure' resorts of Bohemia, which are responsible for a large influx of visitors thither.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) LABOUR

In this part of Austria, as in Bohemia, the number of persons engaged in agriculture has shown a decline of recent years, while the number of those engaged in industrial pursuits has increased.

In 1910, 6 per cent. of the total number of persons employed were members of trade unions, the same percentage as in Bohemia and Moravia. Strikes, however, were even less frequent in Austrian Silesia than in these two other provinces.

In the coal-mines a relatively much larger number of women and children are employed than in the lignite mines of Bohemia, and the yearly wage of the coal miners in Austrian Silesia, though higher than that of coal miners in other parts of Austria, is considerably lower than that of the lignite miners in the Teplitz and Falkenau districts of Bohemia.

### (2) AGRICULTURE

Austrian Silesia is less fertile than Bohemia, producing less per hectare (2.47 acres) of all the important crops, and very much less in the case of wheat and sugar-beet. Of valuable crops like sugar-beet and flax, its absolute production is very small. About half the area of the province consists of arable land and gardens, and about 12 per cent. is devoted to hay or pasture. The chief crops are oats, rye, clover, potatoes, barley, and wheat. Fruit, including the vine, is grown principally in the north-west. Domestic animals are comparatively few, but the number of goats kept is above the average for Austria. Dairy-farming is prosperous, notably in the western districts. Deer, fish, and small game are plentiful.

The following table shows the production of the principal crops in all Austria, Bohemia, and Austrian Silesia in 1911 in hundreds of metric tons:

	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Rye.</i>	<i>Barley.</i>	<i>Oats.</i>	<i>Straw.</i>	<i>Potatoes.</i>	<i>Sugar- beet.</i>	<i>Flax (seed and fibre).</i>
All Austria .	16026	26446	16201	22700	167495	116049	42497	388
Bohemia .	3670	8270	5499	6490	36450	16930	21180	108
Austrian Silesia .	123	596	298	680	2840	2270	340	4

In 1913 the figures for the 'corn' (? wheat)<sup>1</sup> harvest were (in hundreds of metric tons): All Austria, 16,228; Bohemia, 4,837; Austrian Silesia, 140.

It is thus not to its fertility that Austrian Silesia is indebted for its relatively large population. Neither do its forest industries account for this, although in Silesia a rather larger proportion (34 per cent.) of the total area of the province is under forest than is the case in Bohemia, while the production of timber is relatively twice as great. In 1913 the forest areas were as follows: All Austria, 9,768,000 hectares; Bohemia, 1,538,000 hectares; Austrian Silesia, 179,000 hectares. Some 60 per cent. of the trees are coniferous (chiefly spruce); the remainder is, for the most part, mixed timber.

### (3) MINERALS

*Coal.*—As the following figures show, it is to its coal-mines that Austrian Silesia owes its industrial prosperity:

#### NUMBER OF HANDS (INCLUDING WOMEN AND CHILDREN)<sup>2</sup> EMPLOYED IN VARIOUS KINDS OF MINING, 1910

	<i>Coal.</i>	<i>Lignite.</i>	<i>Iron.</i>	<i>Other metals.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Bohemia . . .	22676	35899	1862	3925	64362
Moravia . . .	12167	645	32	350	13194
Austrian Silesia . . .	32315	3	13	5	32336
Galicia . . .	6421	441	107	695	7644
All Austria . . .	74112	56954	5607	10594	147267

<sup>1</sup> These figures agree approximately with the wheat harvest of other years. They are from the *Neue Freie Presse* of October 29, 1918.

<sup>2</sup> Cf. the figures for the population (1910) in millions: Bohemia, 6.7; Moravia, 2.6; Austrian Silesia, 0.7; all Austria, 28.7.

Austrian Silesia, with an area of one-tenth of Bohemia, has half as many hands employed in all kinds of mining, and a much larger number employed in bituminous coal-mining.

The coal-field of Austrian Silesia is part of the great Silesian field which extends in the south over the Austrian frontier to Mährisch-Ostrau and Karwin, in the east to Tenczynek in Galicia, and to Dombrova in Poland. The amount of coal in the Ostrau-Karwin basin, of which about one-third may be apportioned to Austrian Silesia (the rest being in Moravia), is estimated at 3,700,000,000 tons.

The Austrian coal has to be got at a lower depth, and is therefore more expensive to mine than the Prussian coal; it is also of lower calorific value and is not so good for house use as the Prussian coal, much of which is sent to Vienna. On the other hand, the Austrian coal is better for coking. This is important, as the Polish coal is non-coking, and Poland has to import considerable quantities of coke from Prussia and Austria for smelting iron ore; this import of coke into Poland has increased largely of recent years, although, owing to the development of the Dombrova field, the import of coal has largely decreased. The following figures give the production of coke in 1910 in Austrian Silesia, compared with that in Bohemia and Moravia (in metric tons): Austrian Silesia, 1,325,913; Bohemia, 44,519; Moravia, 1,492,731.

The production of pit-coal in 1913 was approximately as follows (in millions of metric tons): All Austria, 16.4; Bohemia, 4.4; Moravia, 2.3; Austrian Silesia, 7.6. Of lignite Austrian Silesia produced only 1,200 tons.

Austrian Silesia has not sufficient coal for its own needs, and imports largely from Prussian Silesia. In 1917 Dzieditz, the chief receiving station, took 400,000 tons; Oderberg, Bielitz, Jägerndorf, and other towns also took large quantities.

*Iron.*—The production of iron ore in Austrian Silesia is small, and the Trzynietz smelting and rolling works

use Swedish, Hungarian, Bukovinian, Spanish, and other ores. In 1913 Austrian Silesia produced 169,900 tons of pig-iron, or nearly one-tenth of the whole output for all Austria.

*Coal and Iron Companies.*—The Austrian Mining and Smelting Company (capital (German), 35,000,000 kn.) has smelting works, steel works, and rolling mills at Trzynietz in Austrian Silesia, and mines iron ore in Hungary. It also has coal-mines and coking furnaces at Karwin, Peterswald, and Oderfurt. It acquired shares in a coal-mining company at Mährisch-Ostrau (Moravia) in 1910, and in 1912 in a Swedish iron-ore company. The Trzynietz mills employed 2,800 hands and produced 169,060 tons<sup>1</sup> of pig-iron in 1913. The company's output (in metric tons) was in 1911 as follows:

<i>Coal.</i>	<i>Coke.</i>	<i>Pig-iron.</i>	<i>Ingots.</i>	<i>Rolled Steel.</i>
1524900	441700	117400	136900	101400

The Ostrau Mining Company (capital (German), 6,000,000 kn.) has offices at Brünn, and a coal-mine at Polnisch-Ostrau. It employed 1,680 hands, and produced 481,565 tons of coal and 60,000 tons of coke in 1913. It exports to Germany, Russia, and Hungary.

The Freistadt Steel and Iron Works (capital (German-Czech), 3,000,000 kn.) have greatly enlarged their works since 1914.

The Austrian Alpine Mining Company (of Vienna) is a large concern, with mines, smelting furnaces, and machine factories in many places; among them, coal-mines at Orlau and Polnisch-Ostrau. Its production in Austrian Silesia in 1907 was 78,900 tons<sup>2</sup> of coal and iron ore.

The Wiczek-Ostrau Coal and Coke Company employed 3,161 hands in 1913; its production was: coal 673,100 tons, coke 72,540 tons, and sulphate of ammonia 955 tons.

<sup>1</sup> This amount only falls short of the whole output for Austrian Silesia in 1913 by 840 tons.

<sup>2</sup> The total output of this company in 1913 (a year of depression) was 3 million tons of coal and iron ore.

*Other mineral products* include some marble (near Friedeberg and Freiwaldau), an abundance of limestone and building stone, and numerous mineral springs.

#### (4) MANUFACTURES

The industries of the province of Silesia account for 6.37 per cent. of the total boiler-heating surface used in all the industrial establishments of Austria (as compared with 44.83 per cent. used in Bohemia and 15.98 per cent. in Moravia). This is a large percentage for its area, and points to a relatively intense industrial activity. Apart from coal production this activity is to be found chiefly in the textile industries of the province. The total number of factories in 1913 was 677, more than one-third of the number in Moravia, a province of four times the area.

##### (a) *Textiles*<sup>1</sup>

The *woollen industry* is centred at Jägerndorf and Bielitz. Jägerndorf has 24 mills employing an aggregate of 4,540 hands; Bielitz, 18 mills employing 3,400 hands. Troppau has one cloth mill with head-quarters in Vienna.

As regards the *cotton industry*, Freudenthal has 3 mills employing 2,100 hands; Friedek, 8 mills, 2,700 hands.

For *linens and flax-spinning* Freudenthal has 5 mills employing 1,920 hands; Freiwaldau employs 3,000 hands.

For *jute-spinning and rope-making* Bielitz has 2 mills employing 862 hands; Troppau, 1 mill (800 hands) belonging to the United Jute Mills of Vienna, Budapest, and Prague. Jägerndorf has one rope mill employing 120 hands.

The following table gives the approximate number of hands employed in textile production in Austrian Silesia:

<sup>1</sup> The figures and data refer to the period immediately preceding the war.

Town.	Population.	Cottons.	Woollens.	Linens.
Bielitz . . . . .	18568	—	3400	—
Jägerndorf . . . . .	16120	—	4540	—
Freudenthal . . . . .	under 10000	2100	—	1920
Freiwaldau . . . . .	” ”	—	—	3000
Friedek . . . . .	” ”	2700	—	—

It is clear that though the aggregate production of textiles in Austrian Silesia is small, it is intensive relatively to the population of its towns: thus, small places like Freudenthal and Friedek have a larger number of cotton operatives than the larger towns of Reichenberg and Königinhof in Bohemia. Bielitz and Jägerndorf again have a relatively larger number of woollen operatives than Brünn and Neutitschein in Moravia or Asch in Bohemia.

#### (b) Other Manufactures

*Machinery.*—Troppau has eight factories employing 930 hands; Jägerndorf, four factories with 550 hands, producing weaving, washing, and drying machines. In Freiwaldau there is one factory which produces agricultural machinery.

*Chemical Works, Oil Refineries, &c.*—The Petrowitz Chemical Works, with 380 hands, makes sulphuric acid and artificial manures. At Oderberg the Mineral Oil Refinery, with 380 hands, produced in 1913 53,310 tons of refined petroleum, paraffin, and asphalt. Two dye-works at Bielitz employ 450 hands.

*Beet Sugar.*—The production of this is insignificant—about 3 per cent. of the output of all Austria, as compared with the 33 per cent. of Moravia and the 52 per cent. of Bohemia. In 1913 all Austria produced 1,107,000 metric tons, of which Silesia's share was 34,000 tons.

*Brewing and Distilling.*—In comparison with the production of Bohemia (47·22 per cent. of the Austrian beer output), that of Austrian Silesia (2·7 per cent.) is almost negligible, but the distilling industry which is made possible by the large potato crop is relatively

considerable. The following figures (in millions of hectolitres) refer to the year 1913 :

*Beer* : All Austria, 21.0 ; Bohemia, 9.9 ; Moravia, 1.5 ; Silesia, 0.57.

*Spirits* : All Austria, 1.6 ; Bohemia, 0.46 ; Moravia, 0.19 ; Silesia, 0.09.

### (C) COMMERCE

The chief towns and the principal branches of trade have already been indicated in the foregoing sections, particularly in that which deals with manufactures. There is a Chamber of Commerce at Troppau, which, as the capital of the province, with a population of 30,000, is the head-quarters of a considerable number of grain and machinery firms and general merchants. Timber and wool are sold at Bielitz ; cloth and raw produce (including coal) are the chief articles of merchandise at Jägerndorf, grain and yarn at Freudenthal, steel tools and raw produce at Friedek, and wooden wares at Freiwaldau. Teschen, a town of 22,000 inhabitants, has a considerable trade in leather, wool, iron, and wines. Mineral springs have turned Gräfenberg, Karlsbrunn, Lindewiese, and Ustron into thriving watering-places.

### (D) FINANCE

#### (1) *Public Finance*

The following table shows the share of Austrian taxation borne by the province of Silesia in 1912 : <sup>1</sup>

	<i>All Austria.</i>	<i>Silesia.</i>
	<i>Millions of Kronen.</i>	
Taxes on Real Property . . . . .	171,774	3,139
Taxes on Personal Property . . . . .	232,260	5,815
Total gross income subject to personal taxes. . . . .	5,960,596	143,930
Yield of Excise Taxes :		
Spirits . . . . .	100,633	4,583
Beer . . . . .	85,496	2,218
Sugar . . . . .	164,622	6,113
Total yield of all excise taxes . . . . .	420,216	18,466

<sup>1</sup> In the same year the totals for Moravia were : Real property tax, 13.9 ; Personal taxes, 17.4 ; Excise, 86.1 million kn.

(2) *Banking*

Austrian Silesia has 0·27 per cent. of the share capital of Austrian banks, as contrasted with the 1·7 per cent. of the Moravian, and the 23·35 per cent. of the Bohemian banks ; and 61,000 depositors in the Post Office Savings Bank as contrasted with Bohemia's 480,767.

The *Austro-Hungarian Bank* has branches at Teschen, Friedek, Jägerndorf, Troppau, and Bielitz.

The *Central Bank of the German Savings Banks* has branches at Bielitz, Freudenthal, Freistadt, Freiwaldau, Friedek, Friedeberg, Friedland, Jägerndorf, Teschen, and Troppau.

The *Austrian Silesian Land Credit Institution* at Troppau—founded 1869—does not carry on business for profit.

The *Communal Credit Institution of the Kingdom of Silesia* at Troppau is under the control of the Land Credit Institution.

The *Vienna Banking Company* (*Wiener Bankverein*) has branches at Bielitz, Friedek, Jägerndorf, and Teschen.

The *Imperial Credit Institution for Trade and Industry* has a branch at Troppau, as also have the *Böhmische Union Bank*, the *Austrian Industry and Trade Bank*, and the *Böhmische Industrial Bank*.

The *Bielitz-Biała Trade and Industry Bank* is a branch of the *Böhmische Union Bank*.

Austrian Silesia has 24 Savings Banks, one in each considerable town. The number of savings-bank depositors per 1,000 inhabitants (140 in 1910) is a little below the average for all Austria (149), and about half of the average of the districts in which Germans are the predominant race. Distributive co-operative societies are more numerous than is usual in other parts of Austria ; they numbered 110 in 1910, a figure only exceeded by those for Bohemia and Moravia.

## (E) GENERAL REMARKS

The three races (Germans, Poles, and Czecho-Slovaks) which inhabit the province of Silesia occupy distinct regions, only mixing at all considerably in the mining district and in the towns of Eastern Silesia.

The administrative offices, large estates, and commercial undertakings generally are in the hands of Germans or of the Germanized nobility, who especially dominate the social and economic life of the eastern part of the province, as is the case in the eastern part of Prussian Upper Silesia.

In the Polish area large landownership and large industrial undertakings are the rule; and in 1911 the large owners and capitalists were all Germans, with apparently only a single exception. The clergy and the officials are said to be all Germans. German is the administrative language; and German representatives have an overwhelming preponderance in the provincial and local councils. The Poles of the province are almost exclusively labourers and small farmers.

The standard of living in the mountainous parts of the province is relatively low. But the population in general has a reputation for industry, the Poles and Slovaks of the hill districts being a race little if at all less thrifty than the Germans, and independent both socially and economically. In industry the Poles are usually under German management, but have a reputation for aptitude in industrial work and willingness to learn. Except in the case of the miners, the general standard of wages was formerly (1880-90) among the lowest in Austria.

In agriculture and forestry the large landowners, especially in Eastern Silesia, have taken the lead in the introduction of modern methods, and appear to have remained in advance of the small farmers, though these are now following their example. Co-operative organizations are well developed in the province,

co-operative credit banks having arisen at a fairly early date out of a system of co-operative grain-stores. There were 93 Raiffeisen societies in the province in 1911.

Trade unions had been little developed until recent years, only 6 per cent. of the workers being in unions in 1897. But in 1914 the figure had risen to 22 per cent., about 14 per cent. of the miners being then members of unions, and about half the textile workers.

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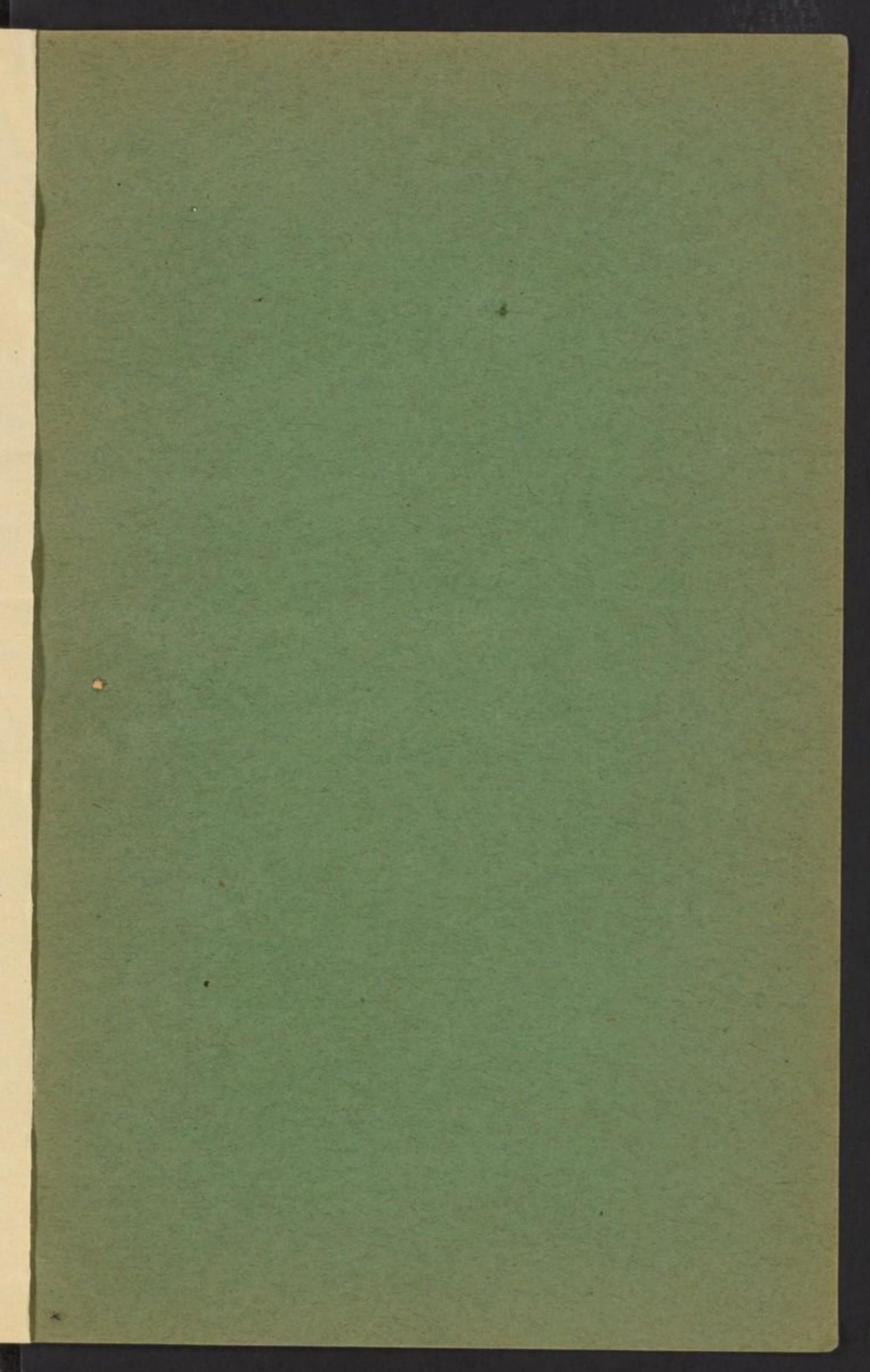
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## MAPS

Austrian Silesia is covered by two sheets (M. 33 Wien, M. 34 Krakau ; G.S.G.S. 2758) of the 'International' Map, published by the War Office on the scale of 1 : 1,000,000.

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