

a considerable amount of freedom by their sagacious conqueror. The first *Capitulare Saxonicum*, issued at Paderborn in 788, while very strict in maintaining Christianity and in punishing all rebellion, confirmed a great number of Saxon customs and laws. After 803 the laws were made milder, and no tribute except tithes was demanded. The people lived according to their former laws,¹ under grafes appointed by Charlemagne; various bishoprics were founded, of which Osnabrück (783), Verden (786), and Bremen (787) are the earliest; and tranquillity was still further secured by transplanting colonies of Saxons to other parts of the kingdom, and introducing Frankish colonies to take their place in Saxony. The land now gradually became an integral portion of the kingdom of the Franks.² Under Louis the German, to whom Saxony had fallen at the treaty of Verdun in 843, it was harassed by the inroads of the Normans and Slavs on either side, and, in order to cope with these, herzogs or dukes were appointed about 850 to keep the Saxon Mark, a narrow territory in Nordalbingia, on the west bank of the Elbe. These herzogs, remembering their predecessors or their ancestors (Ludolf, the first duke of Saxony, is said to have been a descendant of Wittekind), rapidly extended their power beyond the mark over the rest of Saxony, and thus founded the powerful duchy of Saxony. Otto the Illustrious, who succeeded his brother Bruno as duke in 880, added Thuringia to the duchy, and attained such a pitch of power that he was offered the crown of Germany in 911. He refused the honour on the score of old age, but his son Henry the Fowler accepted it in 919, and founded the line of Saxon emperors which expired with Henry II. the Pious in 1024. Otto the Great, son of Henry I., bestowed the duchy of Saxony upon Hermann Billung or Billung, in whose family it remained till 1106. The power and influence of Saxony during this period depended partly on the favour of the emperors, but chiefly on the sagacity and energy of the successive dukes. The Saxons were hostile to the Franconian emperors who succeeded the Saxon house, and in 1073 they rose in revolt against Henry IV. They were at first successful, but in 1075, at the battle of Langensalza, they were defeated by the emperor. The rebels were severely punished, though Otto of Nordheim, one of their leaders, was made administrator of the duchy. Taking advantage of Henry IV.'s troubles with the pope, they again rebelled and espoused the cause of Rudolf of Swabia; but in 1087, on the resignation of Hermann of Luxemburg, whom they had chosen king, they made peace once more with the emperor. Magnus was the last duke of the Billung line. The emperor Henry V. now (1106) presented the lapsed duchy to Lothair, count of Supplinburg, who rapidly became the most powerful prince in Germany, and in 1125 was placed on the imperial throne by the influence of the papal party. Two years after his elevation he assigned the duchy of Saxony to his powerful son-in-law Henry the Proud, who was already duke of Bavaria and had inherited the private possessions of the Billings in Saxony, in right of his mother, who was a daughter of Magnus. Henry had aspired to be emperor in 1138, and his successful rival Conrad III., wishing to reduce his power, alleged that it was unlawful for one prince to hold two duchies, and ordered him to resign Saxony. On his refusal, the emperor immediately declared both duchies to be forfeited. Henry died before the ensuing war was ended, and Conrad compromised

¹ The *Lex Saxonum*, 19 titles of which have survived, was reduced to writing under Charlemagne. See under SALIC LAW.

² The *Heliand* (Saviour), a religious poem ascribed to an unknown Saxon poet of the 9th century, is often cited as a proof of the rapid Christianization of the Saxons. It is also almost the only relic of their dialect.

matters by appointing his opponent's young son, afterwards known as Henry the Lion, to the duchy of Saxony, compensating Albert the Bear, the former imperial candidate, with the independence of the North Mark of Saxony, afterwards called Brandenburg (see PRUSSIA, vol. xx. p. 2). In 1155 Henry received Bavaria from his cousin and personal friend the emperor Frederick Barbarossa, and thus became second only to the emperor in power. He added considerably to the extent of Saxony by conquest among the Wends, east of the Elbe, where the boundary had always been a fluctuating one. But Henry was not only powerful, he was also arrogant, and incurred the jealousy of the other princes, so that, when he quarrelled with the emperor and his lands were declared forfeited in 1180, he had no allies to assist him in his resistance. Westphalia, the principal part of Saxony, went to the archbishop of Cologne, the Saxon Palatinate to the landgrave of Thuringia, and other portions to other princes. A small district round Lauenburg, north of the Elbe, was assigned with the title of duke of Saxony to Bernhard of Ascania, son of Albert the Bear. Henry was reduced to submission in 1181; but his duchies could not be restored, and he was forced to content himself with Brunswick and Lüneburg. The duchy of Saxony was never restored in the old sense, in which it had been one of the four principal duchies of the empire, and embraced the territories now occupied by Westphalia, Oldenburg, Hanover, the Harz, and parts of Mecklenburg and Holstein. The new creation never rose to any importance. Bernhard of Ascania (1181-1212), before his accession as duke of Saxony, had held Anhalt and Wittenberg, to the southeast of Saxony, and separated from it by the Mark of Brandenburg; and when his grandsons John and Albert II. divided their inheritance in 1260 the latter placed his seat at Wittenberg, and two tiny duchies arose—Saxe-Lauenburg and Saxe-Wittenberg. Saxe-Lauenburg was now the only part of the great duchy which retained the name; while Saxe-Wittenberg, the nucleus of the later electorate, transferred the name to entirely new soil. Both duchies claimed the electoral privileges, including the office of grand marshal (Erzmarschall), which had belonged to the original duke of Saxony, but the Golden Bull of 1356 confirmed the claims of Wittenberg. Rudolph II. (about 1370) is the first duke who formally styles himself elector (*princeps elector*). The small electorate was made still smaller in 1411 by the formation of Anhalt into a separate principality. In 1422 the Ascanian line became extinct with Albert III., and in 1423 the emperor Sigismund conferred their lands and titles upon Frederick, margrave of Meissen, and landgrave of Thuringia, to whom he was deeply indebted both for money and assistance in the Hussite wars. The new and more honourable style of elector of Saxony superseded Frederick's other titles, and the term Saxony gradually spread over all his other possessions, which included the country now known under that name. The early history of the electorate and kingdom of Saxony is thus the early history of the Mark of Meissen, the name of which now lingers only in a solitary town on the Elbe.³

³ A different and considerably later use of the name Saxony may be conveniently mentioned here, for, though not based upon any political or ethnographical considerations, it is frequently referred to in German history. When Maximilian (1493-1519) formed the ten great imperial administrative circles, that part of the empire to the east of the Weser and north of the Erzgebirge was divided between the circles of Lower and Upper Saxony. The former, occupying the north-west of this territory, included the Harz principalities, Magdeburg, Brunswick, Mecklenburg, Bremen, and Holstein; the latter, besides Thuringia, the electorate of Saxony and Brandenburg, embraced the conquered Slavonic lands to the east and north, including Lusatia and Pomerania. The lands which still preserve the name of Saxony are thus all within the limits of these circles.



Among the mountains of Lusatia, in the south of the Saxon province of Bautzen, there exist to this day about 50,000 Wends, possessing characteristics and speaking a language of their own. These curious people are the relics of a vast Slavonic horde which, appearing on the borders of the kingdom of the Hermunduri or Thuringians about the 4th century, pressed into their territories on the downfall of that kingdom in the 6th century, and settled themselves between the Spree and the Saale. They were known as the Sorbs or Sorabi, and the country, which included the whole of the modern kingdom of Saxony, was called Sorabia. Warlike and persistent, their influence has never been obliterated, and, though conquered, their stock has neither been exterminated nor absorbed. They were skilled in agriculture and cattle-breeding, and soon improved the fertile soil of their new settlements. Some writers are disposed to recognize their influence in the strong bent to agricultural and industrial pursuits which has ever since characterized the inhabitants of this part of Germany; and less doubtful traces have been left in the popular superstitions and legends, and in the local names. For more than a hundred years after their first collision with the German kingdom the Sorbs repulsed all attacks, but in 928 Henry the Fowler, the first Saxon emperor, crossing the Elbe, devastated the land of the Daleminzians, and built the strong castle of Misnia or Meissen, which thenceforward formed the centre of a gradually increasing mark against the heathen. For two hundred years the office of margrave of Meissen was not hereditary, but in 1123 Count Conrad of Wettin obtained the succession for his house, and founded a line of princes whose descendants still occupy the throne. It is said, though on very doubtful grounds, that Conrad was a scion of the family of the old Saxon hero Wittekind. In 1156, when Conrad abdicated and set the pernicious example of dividing his lands among his sons, his possessions extended from the Neisse and the Erzgebirge to the Harz and the Saale. During these two centuries the state of the country had but slowly improved. The Sorbs had been reduced to a condition of miserable serfdom, and the best land was in the hands of Frankish peasants who had been attracted by its fertility. Agriculture was encouraged by the ecclesiastics, especially by Bishop Benno, who occupied the see of Meissen (founded in 961) about the time of the conquest of England by the Normans. In the reign of Otto the Rich (1157-1190) the first silver mines were discovered, and the famous mining town of Freiberg founded. Trade also received its first encouragement; the great fairs of Leipsic were protected; and roads were made and towns fortified with the produce of the mines. Otto's grandson, Henry the Illustrious (1221-1288), whose mother Jutta was a Thuringian princess, reunited most of Conrad's lands by inheriting part of Thuringia (the rest went to the duke of Brabant) and the Pleissnerland, as the district on both banks of the upper course of the Pleisse was called. He too lost the chance of founding a magnificent kingdom in the heart of Germany, by subdividing his territories, which stretched in a compact mass from the Werra to the Oder and from the mountains of Bohemia to the Harz. The consequences of this policy of subdivision, which was followed by his successors, were bitter family feuds and petty wars, seriously hampering the development of the country. Frederick the Grave (1324-1347) was the last prince of the house of Wettin who was sole ruler of all the ancestral lands of his house. The next powerful figure is Frederick the Warlike, who became margrave in 1381. Besides the Mark he possessed the Osterland, the territory to the north-west of the present kingdom, stretching from the Saale at Weissenfels to the Elbe at Torgau, and embracing the plain of Leipsic. Frederick, in whose reign the university of Leipsic was founded, had acquired his surname by his energetic support of Sigismund, especially in the Hussite wars. As we have seen, that emperor's desire to attach to himself so powerful an ally led him to bestow the vacant electoral duchy of Saxe-Wittenberg upon the margrave in 1423. Despite the troublous state of public affairs, the internal prosperity of the land had steadily advanced. Most of the chief towns had by this time been founded,—Leipsic, Erfurt, Zwickau, and Freiberg being the most conspicuous. Chemnitz had begun its textile industry. The condition of the peasants was still far below that of the burghers of the towns; many of them were mere serfs. The church retained the high pitch of power which it had early attained in Meissen, and religious institutions were numerous all over the most fertile districts. In spite of fresh discoveries of silver, the pecuniary wants of the princes had to be occasionally supplied by contributions called "bedes" from the nobles and ecclesiastics, who were summoned from time to time to meet in a kind of diet.

Frederick's new dignities as elector, combined with his personal qualities, now made him one of the most powerful princes in Germany; had the principle of primogeniture been established in the country as he left it, Saxony and not Brandenburg might have been the leading power in the empire to-day. He died in 1428, just in time to escape the grief of seeing his lands cruelly ravaged by

the Hussites in 1429 and 1430. The division of territory between his two sons, Frederick the Mild (1428-1464) and William, once more called forth destructive internecine wars (the "Brüderkrieg"), in which the former for a time forgot his surname. It was in 1455, during this war, that the knight Kunz von Kaufungen carried into execution his bold, though only momentarily successful, plan of stealing the two young sons of the elector Frederick. Ernest and Albert, the two princes in question, succeeded to their father's possessions in 1464, and for twenty years ruled peacefully in common. The land rapidly prospered during this respite from war. Trade made great advances, encouraged by an improved coinage, which was one of the consequences of the silver discoveries on the Schneeberg. Several of the powerful ecclesiastical principalities were at this time held by members of the Saxon electoral house, so that the external influence of the electorate corresponded to its internal prosperity. Matters were not suffered to continue thus. The childless death of their uncle William in 1482 bequeathed Thuringia to the two princes, and the younger Albert insisted upon a division of the common possessions. In August 1485 the Partition of Leipsic took place, which resulted in the foundation of two Saxon lines, the Ernestine and the Albertine. The lands were never again united. Ernest divided the lands into two portions, and Albert chose. Apart from the electoral duchy of Wittenberg, which necessarily went to Ernest as the elder brother, the lands were divided into Thuringia, half of the Osterland, and Naumburg and the Voigtland on the one hand, and Meissen and the remaining parts of eastern Saxony on the other. To Ernest's deep chagrin, Albert chose Meissen, the old ancestral lands of the Wettins. The former only survived his vexation a year.

The electorate remained at first with the Ernestine line. Ernest was succeeded by his son Frederick the Wise (1486-1525), one of the most illustrious princes in German history. Under his rule Saxony was perhaps the most influential member of the German empire; and on the death of Maximilian the imperial crown itself was offered to him, but he vindicated his character by refusing it. In this reign Saxony became the cradle of the Reformation. The elector's wise tolerance and subsequent protection and hearty support of Luther are well known to every reader. He is said to have remained unmarried out of love to his brother John, who succeeded him. He died during the horrors of the Peasants' War. John (1525-1532) was an even more enthusiastic favourer of the Reformed doctrines, and shared the leadership of the Schmalkald League with Philip of Hesse. His son, John Frederick the Magnanimous (1532-1547), might with equal propriety have been surnamed the Unfortunate. He took part in the Schmalkald War, but in 1547 was captured at Mühlberg by the emperor Charles V., and forced to sign the capitulation of Wittenberg. This deed transferred the electorate and nearly all the Saxon lands to the Albertine line, whose astute representative had taken the imperial side. Only a few scattered territories in Thuringia were reserved for John Frederick's sons, and on these were afterwards founded the Ernestine duchies of Weimar, Gotha, &c. For the second time in the history of the Saxon electorate, the younger line on a division ultimately secured the highest dignity, for the Wittenberg line had been junior to the Lauenberg line. The Albertine line is now the royal line of Saxony.

The Albertine Maurice became elector after the capitulation of Wittenberg. He was the grandson of the founder of his house, and had been preceded on the throne of Meissen by his uncle George (1500-1539) and by his father Henry (1539-1541). George was a zealous Roman Catholic, and had vainly endeavoured to stem the Reformation in

his dominions; Henry was an equally devoted Protestant. Maurice (1541-1553) was also a Protestant, but he was too astute to permit his religion to blind him to his political interests. His ruling motive seems to have been ambition to increase his personal power and the consequence of his country. He refused to join the Schmalkald League with the other Protestant princes, and made a secret treaty with the emperor instead. By invading the Ernestine lands in John Frederick's absence during the Schmalkald War, he forced that prince to return hastily from the Danube, and thus weakened the army opposed to the emperor. Though he was compelled to retreat before his indignant and surprised kinsman, his fidelity to the emperor was rewarded, as we have seen, at the capitulation of Wittenberg. All the lands torn from the Ernestines were not, however, assigned to Maurice; he was forced to acknowledge the suzerainty of Bohemia over the Voigtland and the Silesian duchy of Sagan, and to renounce his own superiority over the Reuss dominions. The Roman Catholic prelates were moreover reinstated in the three great bishoprics of Meissen, Merseburg, and Naumburg-Zeitz. Recognizing as a Protestant sovereign that the best alliance for securing his new possessions was not with the Roman Catholic emperor but with the other Protestant princes, Maurice now began to withdraw from the former and to conciliate the latter. In 1552, suddenly marching against the emperor at Innsbruck, he extorted from him the peace of Passau, which accorded religious freedom throughout Germany. Thus, at the close of his life (he died of a wound in battle in 1553), Maurice came to be regarded as the champion of German national and religious freedom. Amid the distractions of outward affairs, Maurice had not neglected the internal interests of Saxony. To the already conspicuous educational advantages in the country he added the three grammar schools (Fürstenschulen) at Pforta, Grimma, and Meissen; and for administrative purposes, especially for the collection of the taxes which had now become practically annual, he divided the country into the four "circles" of the Electorate, Thuringia, Leipsic, and Meissen. In 1542 the first coal mine was opened. Over two hundred convents were suppressed in Saxony; Leipsic, Wittenberg, Jena, and Erfurt had each a university; books began to increase, and the Saxon dialect became the ruling dialect of German in virtue of Luther's translation of the Bible. Augustus I. (1553-1586), brother of Maurice, was one of the best domestic rulers that Saxony ever had. He increased the area of the country by the "circles" of Neustädt and the Voigtland, and by parts of Henneberg and the silver-yielding Mansfeld, and he devoted his long reign to the development of its resources. He visited all parts of the country himself, and personally encouraged agriculture; he introduced a more economical mode of mining and smelting silver; he favoured the importation of finer breeds of sheep and cattle; and he brought foreign weavers from abroad to teach the Saxons. Under him lace-making began on the Erzgebirge, and cloth-making flourished at Zwickau. He was the first to fortify the Königstein, the one fortress in modern Saxony, and he built other castles. With all his virtues, however, Augustus was an intolerant Lutheran, and used very severe means to exterminate the Calvinists; in his electorate he is said to have expelled one hundred and eleven Calvinist preachers in a single month. Under his son Christian I. (1586-1591), the chief power was wielded by the chancellor Crell, who strongly favoured Calvinism, but, when Christian II. (1591-1611) came to the throne a mere child, Crell was sacrificed to the Lutheran nobles. The duke of Weimar was made regent, and continued the persecution of crypto-Calvinism, in spite of the breach with

the Reformed imperial diet which this course involved. Christian II. was succeeded by his brother John George I. (1611-1656), under whom the country was devastated by the Thirty Years' War. John George was an amiable but weak prince, totally unfitted to direct the fortunes of a nation in time of danger. He refused the proffered crown of Bohemia, and, when the Bohemian Protestants elected a Calvinist prince, he assisted the emperor against them with men and money. The Restitution Edict, however, in 1629, opened his eyes to the emperor's projects, and he joined Gustavus Adolphus. Saxony now became the theatre of war. The first battle on Saxon soil was fought in 1631 at Breitenfeld, where the bravery of the Swedes made up for the flight of the Saxons. Wallenstein entered Saxony in 1632, and his lieutenants Holk and Gallas plundered, burned, and murdered through the length and breadth of the land. After the death of Gustavus Adolphus at the battle of Lützen, not far from Leipsic, in 1632, the elector, who was at heart an imperialist, detached himself from the Swedish alliance, and in 1635 concluded the peace of Prague with the emperor. By this peace he was confirmed in the possession of Upper and Lower Lusatia, a district of 180 square miles and half a million inhabitants, which had already been pledged to him as a reward for his services against the Bohemians. Lusatia had once belonged to Conrad of Meissen, whose descendants, however, had lost it to Brandenburg at the beginning of the 14th century. Saxony had now to suffer from the Swedes a repetition of the devastations of Wallenstein. No other country in Germany was so terribly scourged by this terrible war. Immense tracts were rendered absolutely desolate, and whole villages vanished from the map; the people were tortured to reveal their treasures, or from wanton brutality; famine was followed by plague; civilization was thrown back and barbarism revived. In eight years the population sank from three to one and a half millions. When the war was at length ended by the peace of Westphalia in 1648, Saxony found that its influence had begun to decline in Germany. Its alliance with the Catholic party deprived it of its place at the head of the Protestant German states, which was now taken by Brandenburg. John George's will made the decline of the electorate even more inevitable by detaching from it the three subsidiary duchies of Saxe-Weissenfels, Saxe-Merseburg, and Saxe-Zeitz in favour of his younger sons. By 1746, however, these lines were all extinct, and their possessions had returned to the main line. Saxe-Neustädt was a short-lived branch from Saxe-Zeitz, extinct in 1714. The next three electors, who each bore the name of John George, had uneventful reigns. The first made some efforts to heal the wounds of his country; the second wasted the lives of his people in foreign wars against the Turks; and the third was the last Protestant elector of Saxony. John George IV. was succeeded by his brother Frederick Augustus I., or Augustus the Strong (1694-1733). This prince was elected king of Poland as Augustus II. in 1697, but any weight which the royal title might have given him in the empire was more than counterbalanced by the fact that he, though the ruler of an almost exclusively Protestant electorate, became a Roman Catholic in order to qualify for the new dignity. The connexion with Poland was disastrous for Saxony. In order to defray the expenses of his wars with Charles XII., which resulted from his Polish policy, Augustus pawned and sold large districts of Saxon territory, while he drained the electorate of both men and money. For a year before the peace of Altranstädt in 1706, when Augustus gave up the crown of Poland, Saxony was occupied by a Swedish army, which had to be supported at an expense of twenty-

three million thalers. The wars and extravagance of the elector-king, who regained the Polish crown in 1709, are said to have cost Saxony a hundred million thalers. From this reign dates the privy council (Geheimes Kabinet), which lasted till 1830. The caste privileges of the estates (Stände) were increased by Augustus, a fact which tended to alienate them more from the people, and so to decrease their power. Böttger made his famous discovery in 1710, and the manufacture of porcelain was begun at Meissen, and in this reign the Moravian Brethren made their settlement at Herrnhut (1722). Frederick Augustus II. (1733-1763), who succeeded his father in the electorate, and was afterwards elected to the throne of Poland as Augustus III., was an indolent prince, wholly under the influence of Graf von Brühl. Brühl was an incompetent statesman and an extravagant financier, who yet contrived to amass large sums for his private purse. Under his ill-omened auspices Saxony sided with Prussia in the First Silesian War, and with Austria in the other two. It gained nothing in the first, lost much in the second, and in the third, the Seven Years' War (1756-1763), again became the scene of war and suffered renewed miseries. The country was deserted by its king and his minister, who retired to Poland. By the end of the war it had lost 90,000 men and a hundred million thalers; its coinage was debased and its trade ruined; and the whole country was in a state of frantic disorder. The elector died seven months after his return from Poland; Brühl died twenty-three days later. The elector's son and successor, Frederick Christian, survived his father only two months, leaving a son, Frederick Augustus III. (1763-1827), a boy of thirteen. Prince Xaver, the elector's uncle, was appointed guardian, and he set himself to the sorely-needed work of healing the wounds of the country. The foundation of the famous school of mining at Freiberg, and the improvement of the Saxon breed of sheep by the importation of merino sheep from Spain, were due to his care. Frederick assumed the government in 1768, and in his long and eventful reign, which saw the electorate elevated to the dignity of a kingdom, though deprived of more than half its area, he won the surname of the Just. As he was the first king of Saxony, he is usually styled Frederick Augustus I. The first ten years of his active reign passed in peace and quiet; agriculture, manufactures, and industries were fostered, economical reforms instituted; and the heavy public debt of forty million thalers was steadily reduced. In 1770 torture was abolished. When the Bavarian succession fell open in 1777, Frederick Augustus joined Prussia in protesting against the absorption of Bavaria by the Austrian emperor, and Saxon troops took part in the bloodless "potato-war." The elector commuted his claims in right of his mother, the Bavarian princess Maria Antonia, for six million florins, which he spent chiefly in redeeming Saxon territory that had been pawned to other German states. When Saxony joined the Fürstenbund in 1785, it had an area of 15,185 square miles and a population of nearly 2,000,000, but its various parts had not yet been combined into a homogeneous whole, for the two Lusatias, Querfurt, Henneberg, and the ecclesiastical foundations of Naumburg and Merseburg had each a separate diet and government, independent of the diet of the electorate proper. In 1791 Frederick declined the crown of Poland, although it was now offered as hereditary even in the female line. He remembered how unfortunate for Saxony the former Polish connexion had been, and he mistrusted the attitude of Russia towards the proffered kingdom. Next year saw the beginning of the great struggle between France and Germany. Frederick's conduct throughout was perhaps more pusillanimous than self-seeking, but it entailed its own

punishment. His first policy was one of selfish abstention, and from 1793 until 1796, when he concluded a definite treaty of neutrality with France, he limited his contribution to the war to the bare contingent due from him as a prince of the empire. When war broke out in 1806 against Napoleon, 22,000 Saxon troops shared the defeat of the Prussians at Jena, but the elector immediately afterwards snatched at Napoleon's offer of neutrality, and abandoned his former ally. At the peace of Posen (11th December 1806) Frederick entered the Confederation of the Rhine, assuming the title of king of Saxony, and promising a contingent of 20,000 men to Napoleon.

No change followed in the internal affairs of the new kingdom, except that Roman Catholics were admitted to equal privileges with Protestants. Its foreign policy was dictated by the will of Napoleon, of whose irresistibility the king was too easily convinced. In 1807 his submission was rewarded with the duchy of Warsaw and the district of Cottbus, though he had to surrender some of his former territory to the new kingdom of Westphalia. The king of Saxony's faith in Napoleon was momentarily shaken by the disasters of the Russian campaign, in which 21,000 Saxon troops had shared, and in 1813 he began to lean towards an alliance with Austria. Napoleon's victory at Lützen (May 2, 1813), however, suddenly restored all his awe for that great general, and the Saxon king and the Saxon army were once more at the disposal of the French. After the battle of Bautzen, Napoleon's headquarters were successively at Dresden and Leipsic. During the decisive battle at the latter town in October 1813, the popular Saxon feeling was displayed by the desertion of the Saxon troops to the side of the allies. Frederick was taken prisoner in Leipsic, and the government of his kingdom was assumed for a year by the Russians, who promptly turned its resources against its late French ally. Saxony was now regarded as a conquered country. Nothing but Austria's vehement desire to keep a powerful neighbour at a distance from her boundaries, preserved it from being completely annexed by the Prussians, who had succeeded the Russians in the government. As it was, the congress of Vienna assigned the northern portion, consisting of 7800 square miles, with 864,404 inhabitants to Prussia, leaving 5790 square miles, with a population of 1,182,744 to Frederick, who was permitted to retain his royal title. He was forced to acquiesce in the dismemberment of his kingdom, and to console himself with the reflexion that his share, though the smaller half, was richer, more populous, and more beautiful than the other.

From the partition in 1815 to the war of 1866 the history of Saxony is mainly a narrative of the slow growth of constitutionalism and popular liberty within its limits. Its influence on the general history of Europe ceased when the old German empire was dissolved. In the new empire it is too completely overshadowed by Prussia to have any objective importance by itself. Frederick lived twelve years after the division of his kingdom. The commercial and industrial interests of the country continued to be fostered, but only a few of the most unavoidable political reforms were granted. The fact that some of these had not been granted before is more significant than that they were granted now. Religious equality was extended to the Reformed Church in 1818, and the separate diet of Upper Lusatia abolished. Frederick Augustus was succeeded by his septuagenarian brother Antony (1827-1836), to the great disappointment of the people, who had expected a more liberal era under Prince Frederick Augustus, the king's nephew. Antony announced his intention of following the lines laid down by his predecessor. He accorded at first only a few trifling reforms, which were far from removing the popular discontent, while he retained the unpopular minister Einsiedel and continued the encouragement of the Roman Catholics. The feudal arrangement of the diet, with its inconvenient divisions, was retained, and the privy council continued to be the depository of power. An active opposition began to make itself evident in the diet and in the press, and in 1830 riots in Leipsic and Dresden impressed the king with the necessity of concession. Einsiedel was cashiered, Prince Frederick Augustus assumed as co-regent, and a