The French Revolution and Napoleon

1789–1815

**Key Events**

As you read this chapter, look for the key events of the French Revolution and French Empire.
- The fall of the Bastille marked the beginning of the French Revolution.
- The Committee of Public Safety began the Reign of Terror.
- Napoleon Bonaparte created the French Empire.
- Allied forces defeated Napoleon at Waterloo.

**The Impact Today**

The events that occurred during this time period still impact our lives today.
- The French Revolution became the model for revolution in the modern world.
- The power of nationalism was first experienced during the French Revolution, and it is still powerful in existing nations and emerging nations today.
- The French Revolution spread the principles of liberty and equality, which are held dear by many nations and individuals today.

**World History—Modern Times Video**

The Chapter 11 video, “Napoleon,” chronicles the rise and fall of Napoleon Bonaparte.
Napoleon Crossing the Great St. Bernard by Jacques-Louis David  
David was the leading artist of the French Revolution.

Napoleon

1801
Napoleon reaches agreement with the pope

1802
Napoleon is crowned Emperor

1804
Napoleon made consul for life

1805
British defeat French and Spanish at Trafalgar

1812
Napoleon invades Russia

1815
Duke of Wellington and his army defeat Napoleon at Waterloo

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Fall of the Bastille

On the morning of July 14, 1789, a Parisian mob of some eight thousand men and women in search of weapons streamed toward the Bastille, a royal armory filled with arms and ammunition. The Bastille was also a state prison. Although it contained only seven prisoners at the time, in the eyes of those angry Parisians it was a glaring symbol of the government’s harsh policies. The armory was defended by the Marquis de Launay and a small garrison of 114 men.

The assault began at one o’clock in the afternoon when a group of attackers managed to lower two drawbridges over the moat surrounding the fortress. The mob was joined by members of the French Guard, who began to bombard the fortress with cannon balls. After four hours of fighting, 98 attackers lay dead or dying. Only one defender had been killed.

As more attackers arrived, de Launay realized that he and his troops could not hold out much longer and surrendered. Angered by the loss of its members, the victorious mob beat de Launay to death, cut off his head, and carried it aloft in triumph through the streets of Paris.

When King Louis XVI returned to his palace at Versailles after a day of hunting, he was told about the fall of the Bastille by the duc de La Rochefoucauld-Liancourt. Louis exclaimed, “Why, this is a revolt.” “No, Sire,” replied the duke, “It is a revolution.”

Why It Matters

The French Revolution began a new age in European political life. The old political order in France was destroyed. The new order was based on individual rights, representative institutions, and loyalty to the nation rather than the monarch. The revolutionary upheaval of the era, especially in France, created new political ideals, summarized in the French slogan, “Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity.” These ideals transformed France, then spread to other European countries and the rest of the world.

History and You

Using print or Internet sources, familiarize yourself with the lyrics to The Marseillaise, God Save the Queen, and The Star Spangled Banner. How do they vary in subject matter, tone, theme, and style, and how are they similar? Create a chart listing your findings.

The storming of the Bastille
Bad harvests lead to food shortages

Preview of Events

1780

1787
Bad harvests lead to food shortages

1789
National Assembly adopts Declaration of the Rights of Man

1791
National Assembly completes new constitution

Background to the Revolution

The year 1789 witnessed two far-reaching events: the beginning of a new United States of America and the beginning of the French Revolution. Compared with the American Revolution, the French Revolution was more complex, more violent, and far more radical. It tried to create both a new political order and a new
social order. Indeed, it has often been seen as a major turning point in European political and social history.

The causes of the French Revolution include both long-range problems and immediate forces. The long-range causes are to be found in the condition of French society. Before the revolution, French society was based on inequality. France’s population of 27 million was divided, as it had been since the Middle Ages, into three orders, or estates.

The Three Estates The First Estate consisted of the clergy and numbered about 130,000 people. These people owned approximately 10 percent of the land. They were exempt from the taille (TAH•yuh), France’s chief tax. The clergy were radically divided. The higher clergy, members of aristocratic families, shared the interests of the nobility. The parish priests were often poor and from the class of commoners.

The Second Estate, the nobility, included about 350,000 people. Nobles owned about 25 to 30 percent of the land. They played an important, and even a crucial, role in French society in the eighteenth century. They held many of the leading positions in the government, the military, the law courts, and the higher church offices. Moreover, they possessed many privileges, including tax exemptions. Like the clergy, they were exempt from the taille.

The nobles sought to expand their power at the expense of the monarchy. Many nobles said they were defending liberty by resisting the arbitrary actions of the monarchy. They also sought to keep their control over positions in the military, the Church, and the government.

The Third Estate, or the commoners of society, made up the overwhelming majority of the French population. Unlike the First and Second Estates, the Third Estate was divided by vast differences in occupation, level of education, and wealth.

The peasants, who constituted 75 to 80 percent of the total population, were by far the largest segment of the Third Estate. As a group, they owned about 35 to 40 percent of the land. However, landholdings varied from area to area, and over half of the peasants had little or no land on which to survive.

Serfdom no longer existed on any large scale in France, but French peasants still had obligations to their local landlords that they deeply resented. These relics of feudalism, or aristocratic privileges, were obligations that survived from an earlier age. They included the payment of fees for the use of village facilities such as the flour mill, community oven, and winepress, as well as contributions to the clergy.

Another part of the Third Estate consisted of skilled craftspeople, shopkeepers, and other wage earners in the cities. In the eighteenth century, a rise in consumer prices that was greater than the increase in wages left these urban groups with a decline in buying power. The struggle for survival led many of these people to play an important role in the revolution, especially in Paris.

The bourgeoisie (BURZH•WAH•ZEE), or middle class, was another part of the Third Estate. This group included about 8 percent of the population, or 2.3 million people. They owned about 20 to 25 percent of the land. This group included merchants, bankers, and industrialists, as well as professional people—lawyers, holders of public offices, doctors, and writers.
Members of the middle class were unhappy with the privileges held by nobles. At the same time, they shared a great deal with the nobility. Indeed, by obtaining public offices, wealthy middle-class individuals could enter the ranks of the nobility. During the eighteenth century, 6,500 new noble families were created.

In addition, both aristocrats and members of the bourgeoisie were drawn to the new political ideas of the Enlightenment. Both groups were increasingly upset with a monarchical system resting on privileges and on an old and rigid social order. The opposition of these elites to the old order ultimately led them to drastic action against the monarchy.

Financial Crisis Social conditions, then, formed a long-range background to the French Revolution. The immediate cause of the revolution was the near collapse of government finances.

The French economy, although it had been expanding for 50 years, suffered periodic crises. Bad harvests in 1787 and 1788 and a slowdown in manufacturing led to food shortages, rising prices for food, and unemployment. The number of poor, estimated by some at almost one-third of the population, reached crisis proportions on the eve of the revolution.

An English traveler noted the misery of the poor in the countryside: “All the country girls and women are without shoes or stockings; and the plowmen at their work have neither shoes nor stockings to their feet. This is a poverty that strikes at the root of national prosperity.”

In spite of these economic problems, the French government continued to spend enormous sums on costly wars and court luxuries. The queen, Marie Antoinette, was especially known for her extravagance. The government had also spent large amounts to help the American colonists against Britain.

On the verge of a complete financial collapse, the government of Louis XVI was finally forced to call a meeting of the Estates-General to raise new taxes. This was the French parliament, and it had not met since 1614.

From Estates-General to National Assembly

The Estates-General was composed of representatives from the three orders of French society. The First and Second Estates had about three hundred delegates each. The Third Estate had almost six hundred delegates, most of whom were lawyers from French towns. To fix France’s financial problems, most members of the Third Estate wanted to set up a constitutional government that would abolish the tax exemptions of the clergy and nobility.

The meeting of the Estates-General opened at Versailles on May 5, 1789. It was troubled from the start with a problem about voting. Traditionally, each estate had one vote. That meant that the First and Second Estates together could outvote the Third Estate two to one.

The Third Estate demanded that each deputy have one vote. With the help of a few nobles and clerics, that would give the Third Estate a majority. The king, however, declared he was in favor of the current system, in which each estate had one vote.

The Third Estate reacted quickly. On June 17, 1789, it called itself a National Assembly and decided to draft a constitution. Three days later, on June 20, the deputies of the Third Estate arrived at their meeting place, only to find the doors locked.

The deputies then moved to a nearby indoor tennis court and swore that they would continue to meet...
The Destruction of the Old Regime

The peasant revolts and fear of foreign troops had a strong effect on the National Assembly, which was meeting in Versailles. One of the assembly’s first acts was to destroy the relics of feudalism, or aristocratic privileges. On the night of August 4, 1789, the National Assembly voted to abolish the rights of landlords, as well as the financial privileges of nobles and clergy.

Declaration of the Rights of Man

On August 26, the National Assembly adopted the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen. Inspired by the American Declaration of Independence and Constitution, and the English Bill of Rights, this charter of basic liberties began with a ringing affirmation of “the natural and imprescriptible rights of man” to “liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression.”

Reflecting Enlightenment thought, the declaration went on to proclaim freedom and equal rights for all men, access to public office based on talent, and an end to exemptions from taxation. All citizens were to have the right to take part in the making of laws. Freedom of speech and the press were affirmed.

Examining Why did the Third Estate object to each estate’s having one vote in the Estates-General?
The declaration also raised an important issue. Did its ideal of equal rights for all men also include women? Many deputies insisted that it did, provided that, as one said, “women do not hope to exercise political rights and functions.”

Olympe de Gouges, a woman who wrote plays and pamphlets, refused to accept this exclusion of women from political rights. Echoing the words of the official declaration, she penned a Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen. In it, she insisted that women should have all the same rights as men.

She wrote:

"Believing that ignorance, omission, or scorn for the rights of woman are the only causes of public misfortunes and of the corruption of governments, the women have resolved to set forth in a solemn declaration the natural, inalienable, and sacred rights of woman in order that this declaration, constantly exposed before all the members of the society, will ceaselessly remind them of their rights and duties."

The National Assembly ignored her demands. (See page 775 to read excerpts from Olympe de Gouges’s Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen in the Primary Sources Library.)

The King Concedes

In the meantime, Louis XVI had remained at Versailles. He refused to accept the National Assembly’s decrees on the abolition of feudalism and the Declaration of Rights. On October 5, however, thousands of Parisian women—described by one eyewitness as “detachments of women coming up from every direction, armed with broomsticks, lances, pitchforks, swords, pistols and muskets”—marched to Versailles. A delegation of the women met with Louis XVI and described how their children were starving from a lack of bread. They forced the king to accept the new decrees.

The crowd now insisted that the royal family return to Paris to show the king’s support of the National Assembly. On October 6, the family journeyed to Paris. As a goodwill gesture, Louis XVI brought along wagonloads of flour from the palace were crushed, but their action eventually led to Mexico’s independence from Spanish control in 1821.

Most nations in Africa and Asia gained their independence from Western colonial powers after World War II. India celebrates Independence Day on August 15. On that day in 1947, India won its independence from the British Empire.

A National Holiday

The French Revolution gave rise to the concept of the modern nation-state. With the development of the modern state came the celebration of one day a year as a national holiday—usually called Independence Day. The national holiday is a day that has special significance in the history of the nation-state.

In France, the fall of the Bastille on July 14, 1789, has been celebrated ever since as the beginning of the French nation-state. Independence Day in the United States is celebrated on July 4. On July 4, 1776, the Second Continental Congress approved the Declaration of Independence.

In Norway, people celebrate Constitution Day as a national holiday on May 17. On that day in 1814, Norway received a constitution, although it did not gain its independence from Sweden until 1905.

Most Latin American countries became independent of Spain or Portugal in the early nineteenth century. Mexico, for example, celebrates its Independence Day on September 16 with a colorful festival. On September 16, 1810, a crowd of local people attacked Spanish authorities in a small village near Mexico City. They
Louis XVI remained at Versailles during the great panic that swept through France in the summer of 1789. On October 5, 1789, thousands of women marched to Versailles and persuaded Louis to return to Paris with his family. Louis later tried to escape from France in 1791 but was captured at Varennes and returned to Paris. What happened to the royal family after their capture?

Church Reforms Because the Catholic Church was seen as an important pillar of the old order, it, too, was reformed. Because of the need for money, the National Assembly seized and sold the lands of the Church.

The Church was also secularized. A new Civil Constitution of the Clergy was put into effect. Both bishops and priests were to be elected by the people and paid by the state. The French government now controlled the Church. Many Catholics became enemies of the revolution.

A New Constitution and New Fears The National Assembly completed a new constitution, the Constitution of 1791, which set up a limited monarchy. According to the constitution, there would still be a king, but a Legislative Assembly would make the laws.

The Assembly was to consist of 745 representatives. The way they were to be chosen ensured that only the more affluent members of society would be elected. Though all male citizens had the same rights, only men over 25 who paid a specified amount in taxes could vote.
By 1791, the old order had been destroyed. However, many people—including Catholic priests, nobles, lower classes hurt by a rise in the cost of living, and radicals who wanted more drastic solutions—opposed the new order. Louis XVI also made things difficult for the new government. He attempted to flee France in June 1791. He almost succeeded but was recognized, captured, and brought back to Paris.

In this unsettled situation, with a seemingly disloyal monarch, the new Legislative Assembly held its first session in October 1791. France’s relations with the rest of Europe would soon lead to the downfall of Louis XVI.

War with Austria Over time, some European leaders began to fear that revolution would spread to their countries. The rulers of Austria and Prussia even threatened to use force to restore Louis XVI to full power. Insulted by this threat, the Legislative Assembly declared war on Austria in the spring of 1792.

The French fared badly in the initial fighting. A frantic search for scapegoats began. One observer noted, “Everywhere you hear the cry that the king is betraying us, the generals are betraying us, that nobody is to be trusted; . . . that Paris will be taken in six weeks by the Austrians . . . we are on a volcano ready to spout flames.”

Rise of the Paris Commune Defeats in war, coupled with economic shortages at home in the spring of 1792, led to new political demonstrations, especially against Louis XVI. In August, radical political groups in Paris, declaring themselves a commune, organized a mob attack on the royal palace and Legislative Assembly.

Members of the new Paris Commune took the king captive. They forced the Legislative Assembly to suspend the monarchy and call for a National Convention, chosen on the basis of universal male suffrage, to decide on the nation’s future form of government. (Under a system of universal male suffrage, all adult males had the right to vote.)

The French Revolution was about to enter a more radical and violent stage. Power now passed from the Assembly to the Paris Commune. Many of its members proudly called themselves the sans-culottes, ordinary patriots without fine clothes. (They wore long trousers instead of knee-length breeches; sans-culottes means “without breeches.”) It has become customary to equate the more radical sans-culottes with working people or the poor. However, many were merchants and better-off artisans who were the elite of their neighborhoods.

Reading Check Evaluating What was the significance of the Constitution of 1791?

Checking for Understanding

1. Define estate, relics of feudalism, bourgeoisie, sans-culottes.
2. Identify Louis XVI, Tennis Court Oath, Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, Olympe de Gouges.
4. Explain why the Catholic Church was targeted for reform.
5. List the reasons for the near collapse of government finances in France.

Critical Thinking

6. Summarize What were the main affirmations of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen?
7. Organizing Information Equality was one of the slogans of the French Revolution. In a web diagram, identify five occasions when different groups expressed concern for equality during the revolution.

Analyzing Visuals

8. Examine the painting of the Tennis Court Oath shown on page 332. How does David’s painting reflect the ideals of the French Revolution?

Writing About History

9. Persuasive Writing Olympe de Gouges wrote, “ignorance, omission, or scorn for the rights of woman are the only causes of public misfortune and corruption of governments.” Do you agree or disagree? Write a paragraph supporting your point of view.
One of the most important documents of the French Revolution, the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen, was adopted in August 1789 by the National Assembly.

The representatives of the French people, organized as a national assembly, considering that ignorance, neglect, and scorn of the rights of man are the sole causes of public misfortunes and of corruption of governments, have resolved to display in a solemn declaration the natural, inalienable, and sacred rights of man, so that this declaration, constantly in the presence of all members of society, will continually remind them of their rights and their duties . . . Consequently, the National Assembly recognizes and declares, in the presence and under the auspices of the Supreme Being, the following rights of man and citizen:

1. Men are born and remain free and equal in rights; social distinctions can be established only for the common benefit.
2. The aim of every political association is the conservation of the natural . . . rights of man; these rights are liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression. . . .
4. Liberty consists in being able to do anything that does not harm another person. . . .
6. The law is the expression of the general will; all citizens have the right to concur personally or through their representatives in its formation; it must be the same for all, whether it protects or punishes.
7. No man can be accused, arrested, or detained except in cases determined by the law, and according to the forms which it has prescribed. . . .
10. No one may be disturbed because of his opinions, even religious, provided that their public demonstration does not disturb the public order established by law.

11. The free communication of thoughts and opinions is one of the most precious rights of man: every citizen can therefore freely speak, write, and print . . .
16. Any society in which guarantees of rights are not assured nor the separation of powers determined has no constitution.

—Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. According to this document, what are the natural, inalienable rights of man?
2. According to this document, can a person be arrested or otherwise “disturbed” because of his religious beliefs?
3. How do the rights listed in number 2 of the document compare to the rights listed in the U.S. Bill of Rights?
Henry de Firmont reported on the major event of January 21, 1793:

“The path leading to the scaffold was extremely rough and difficult to pass; the King was obliged to lean on my arm, and from the slowness with which he proceeded, I feared for a moment that his courage might fail; but what was my astonishment, when arrived at the last step, he suddenly let go of my arm, and I saw him cross with a firm foot the breadth of the whole scaffold; and in a loud voice, I heard him pronounce distinctly these words: ‘I die innocent of all the crimes laid to my charge; I pardon those who had occasioned my death; and I pray to God that the blood you are going to shed may never be visited on France.’”

—Eyewitness to History, John Carey, ed., 1987

The execution of King Louis XVI in 1793 pushed the French Revolution into a new radical stage.

The Move to Radicalism

The Paris Commune had forced the Legislative Assembly to call a National Convention. Before the Convention met, the Paris Commune dominated the political scene. Led by the newly appointed minister of justice, Georges Danton, the sans-culottes sought revenge on those who had aided the king and resisted the popular will. Thousands of people were arrested and then massacred. New
leaders of the people emerged, including Jean-Paul Marat, who published a radical journal called *Friend of the People*.

**The Fate of the King** In September 1792, the newly elected National Convention began its sessions. Although it had been called to draft a new constitution, it also acted as the sovereign ruling body of France.

The Convention was dominated by lawyers, professionals, and property owners. Two-thirds of its deputies were under the age of 45. Almost all had had political experience as a result of the revolution. Almost all distrusted the king. It was therefore no surprise that the National Convention’s first major step on September 21 was to abolish the monarchy and establish a republic, the French Republic.

That, however, was as far as members of the convention could agree. They soon split into factions (dissenting groups) over the fate of the king. The two most important factions were the Girondins (juh•RAHN•duhns) and the Mountain. Both factions were members of the Jacobin (JA•kuh•buhn) club, a large network of political groups throughout France. The Girondins represented the provinces, areas outside the cities. Girondins feared the radical mobs in Paris and leaned toward keeping the king alive. The Mountain represented the interests of radicals in the city of Paris.

The Mountain won at the beginning of 1793 when it convinced the National Convention to pass a decree condemning Louis XVI to death. On January 21, 1793, the king was beheaded on the guillotine. Revolutionaries had adopted this machine because it killed quickly and, they believed, humanely. The execution of the king created new enemies for the revolution, both at home and abroad. A new crisis was at hand.

**Crisis and Response** Disputes between Girondins and the Mountain were only one aspect of France’s domestic crisis in 1792 and 1793. Within Paris, the local government—the Commune—favored radical change and put constant pressure on the National Convention to adopt ever more radical positions. Moreover, the National Convention itself still did not rule all of France. Peasants in western France as well as inhabitants of France’s major provincial cities refused to accept the authority of the National Convention.

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**People In History**

**Jean-Paul Marat**

*1743–1793*  
French revolutionary

Jean-Paul Marat was a popular revolutionary leader in Paris at the beginning of the radical stage of the French Revolution. Born in Switzerland, he practiced medicine in London before returning to France in 1777. Marat was an intense man, always in a hurry: “I allot only two of the twenty-four hours to sleep. I have not had fifteen minutes play in over three years.” He often worked in the bathtub because the water soothed the pain of a severe skin disorder.

In his journal, *Friend of the People*, Marat expressed his ideas, which were radical for his time. He called for mob violence and the right of the poor to take by force whatever they needed from the rich. He helped make the Jacobins more radical, especially by condemning the Girondins. This also led to his death: Charlotte Corday, a Girondin, stabbed him to death in his bathtub.

**Maximilien Robespierre**

*1758–1794*  
French revolutionary

Robespierre was one of the most important French revolutionary leaders. He received a law degree and later became a member of the National Convention, where he preached democracy and advocated suffrage (the right to vote) for all adult males. He lived simply and was known to be extremely honest. In fact, he was often known as “The Incorruptible.” A believer in Rousseau’s social contract idea, Robespierre thought that anyone opposed to being governed by the general will, as he interpreted it, should be executed.

One observer said of Robespierre, “That man will go far; he believes all that he says.” Robespierre himself said, “How can one reproach a man who has truth on his side?” His eagerness and passion in pursuing the Reign of Terror frightened many people. Eventually, he was arrested and guillotined.
A foreign crisis also loomed large. The execution of Louis XVI had outraged the royalty of most of Europe. An informal coalition of Austria, Prussia, Spain, Portugal, Britain, and the Dutch Republic took up arms against France. The French armies began to fall back.

By late spring of 1793, the coalition was poised for an invasion of France. If successful, both the revolution and the revolutionaries would be destroyed, and the old regime would be reestablished. The revolution had reached a decisive moment.

To meet these crises, the National Convention gave broad powers to a special committee of 12 known as the Committee of Public Safety. It was dominated at first by Georges Danton, then by Maximilien Robespierre.

Reading Check Examining What were the differences between the Girondins and the Mountain?

The Reign of Terror

For roughly a year during 1793 and 1794, the Committee of Public Safety took control. The Committee acted to defend France from foreign and domestic threats.

To meet the crisis at home, the National Convention and the Committee of Public Safety set in motion an effort that came to be known as the Reign of Terror. Revolutionary courts were set up to prosecute internal enemies of the revolutionary republic. During the course of the Reign of Terror, close to 40,000 people were killed. Of those, 16,000 people, including Marie Antoinette and Olympe de Gouges, died under the blade of the guillotine. Peasants and persons who had opposed the sans-culottes were among the victims. Most executions were held in places that had openly rebelled against the authority of the National Convention.

During the Reign of Terror, thousands of people, including aristocrats and the queen of France, were killed by the guillotine. Why did the revolutionaries decide to use the guillotine to execute people?
Revolutionary France In 1794, deputies in the National Convention proposed a new military school that would train several thousand young males aged 16 and 17 in the arts of war and the love of country. A few months later, the École de Mars, or School of Mars (the Roman god of war), opened on the outskirts of Paris. Much was expected of the 3,400 young recruits. They were expected to maintain high moral standards and become enthusiastic patriots. Students, however, ignored discipline and expressed the desire to return home. After the death of Robespierre, authorities shut the school down. The plan to train young people in a few weeks to be dedicated patriots had failed.

In western France, too, revolutionary armies were brutal in defeating rebel armies. The commander of the revolutionary army ordered that no mercy be given: “The road is strewn with corpses. Women, priests, monks, children, all have been put to death. I have spared nobody.” Perhaps the most notorious act of violence occurred in Nantes, where victims were executed by being sunk in barges in the Loire River.

People from all classes were killed during the Terror. Clergy and nobles made up about 15 percent of the victims, while the rest were from the bourgeoisie and peasant classes. The Committee of Public Safety held that all this bloodletting was only temporary. Once the war and domestic crisis were over, the true “Republic of Virtue” would follow, and the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen would be fully realized.

The Republic of Virtue Along with the terror, the Committee of Public Safety took other steps both to control France and to create a new order, called by
Robespierre the Republic of Virtue—a democratic republic composed of good citizens. In the new French Republic, the titles “citizen” and “citizenship” had replaced “mister” and “madame.” Women wore long dresses inspired by the clothing worn in the great republic of ancient Rome.

By spring 1793, the Committee was sending “representatives on mission” as agents of the central government to all parts of France to implement laws dealing with the wartime emergency. A law aimed at primary education for all was passed but not widely implemented. Slavery was abolished in France’s colonies.

The committee also attempted to provide some economic controls by establishing price limits on goods considered necessities, ranging from food and drink to fuel and clothing. The controls failed to work very well, since the government lacked the machinery to enforce them.

In 1789, it had been a group of women who convinced Louis XVI to return to Paris from Versailles. Women remained actively involved in the revolution, even during its more radical stage. Women observed sessions of the National Convention and made their demands known to those in charge. In 1793, two women founded the Society for Revolutionary Republican Women. This Parisian group, which was mainly composed of working-class women, stood ready to defend the new French Republic. Many men, however, continued to believe that women should not participate in political or military affairs.

In its attempts to create a new order that reflected its belief in reason, the National Convention pursued a policy of dechristianization. The word saint was removed from street names, churches were pillaged and closed by revolutionary armies, and priests were encouraged to marry. In Paris, the cathedral of Notre Dame was designated a “temple of reason.” In

the reaction against the Reign of Terror was a disaster. One good example is Marc-Antoine Jullien. At 18, he had been an assistant to Robespierre. After the execution of Robespierre, he was hunted down and put in prison for two years.

While in prison, Jullien wrote a diary expressing the hardships of a young revolutionary who had grown old before his time. He wrote: “I was born in a volcano, I lived in the midst of its eruption. I will be buried in its lava.” He expressed his pain: “My life is a dark and terrible story, but one that is touching and educational for inexperienced youth.”

When Jullien was released from prison, he wrote, “I am leaving, I never wish to see Paris again, I want cows and milk. I am twenty-one years old, may the dawn of my life no longer be clouded by dark images.”

Disillusioned by his troubles, Jullien came to long for a savior who would restore the freedom of the republic. When Napoleon came along, he believed that he had found his savior.

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Closing of the Salle des Jacobins in Paris, symbolizing the end of the Reign of Terror

**CONNECTING TO THE PAST**

1. **Examine** Why did the National Convention choose to open a school dedicated to training patriots? Are there comparable schools in the United States today?

2. **Writing about History** Marc-Antoine Jullien lived during troubled times. In the world today, many young people are undergoing similar experiences. Research an area of political unrest. Write a one-page paper describing the effect of that unrest on a person your age.
November 1793, a public ceremony dedicated to the worship of reason was held in the former cathedral. Patriotic maidens in white dresses paraded before a temple of reason where the high altar had once stood.

Another example of de-Christianization was the adoption of a new calendar. Years would no longer be numbered from the birth of Christ but from September 22, 1792—the first day of the French Republic. The calendar contained 12 months. Each month consisted of three 10-day weeks, with the tenth day of each week a day of rest. This eliminated Sundays and Sunday worship services, as well as church holidays. Even the months were given new names. The new names might refer to agriculture in some way, or to the climate. Vendémiaire, which was roughly the month of October, meant “vintage time.”

Robespierre came to realize, however, that most French people would not accept these efforts at de-Christianization. France was still overwhelmingly Catholic.

**Reading Check** Identifying Whom did the Committee of Public Safety consider to be enemies of the state?

**A Nation in Arms**

**TURNING POINT** As you will learn, the French Republic created a new kind of army that would ultimately change the nature of modern warfare.

As you read earlier, France was threatened by external forces during this time. To save the republic from its foreign enemies, the Committee of Public Safety decreed a universal mobilization of the nation on August 23, 1793:

“...Young men will fight, young men are called to conquer. Married men will forge arms, transport military baggage and guns and will prepare food supplies. Women, who at long last are to take their rightful place in the revolution and follow their true destiny, will forget their futile tasks; their delicate hands will work at making clothes for soldiers; they will make tents and they will extend their tender care to shelters where the defenders of the Patrie [homeland] will receive the help that their wounds require. Children will make lint of old cloth. It is for them that we are fighting; children, those beings destined to gather all the fruits of the revolution, will raise their pure hands toward the skies. And old men, performing their missions again, as of yore, will be guided to the public squares of the cities where they will kindle the courage of young warriors and preach the doctrines of hate for kings and the unity of the Republic.”

In less than a year, the French revolutionary government had raised a huge army. By September 1794, it was over one million. The republic’s army was the largest ever seen in European history. It pushed the allies invading France back across the Rhine and even conquered the Austrian Netherlands.

The French revolutionary army was an important step in the creation of modern nationalism. Previously, wars had been fought between governments or ruling dynasties by relatively small armies of professional soldiers. The new French army was the creation of a people’s government. Its wars were people’s wars. When dynastic wars became people’s wars, however, warfare became more destructive.

**End of the Terror** By the summer of 1794, the French had largely defeated their foreign foes. There was less need for the Reign of Terror, but it continued nonetheless. Robespierre, who had become very powerful, was obsessed with ridding France of all its corrupt elements. Only then could the Republic of Virtue follow.

Many deputies in the National Convention who feared Robespierre decided to act. They gathered enough votes to condemn him, and Robespierre was guillotined on July 28, 1794.

After the death of Robespierre, revolutionary fervor began to cool. The Jacobins lost power and more moderate middle-class leaders took control. Much to the relief of many in France, the Reign of Terror came to a halt.

**Reading Check** Evaluating How did the French revolutionary army help to create modern nationalism?

**The Directory**

With the terror over, the National Convention reduced the power of the Committee of Public Safety. Churches were allowed to reopen for public worship. In addition, a new constitution was created in August 1795 that reflected the desire for more stability.

In an effort to keep any one governmental group from gaining control, the Constitution of 1795 established a national legislative assembly consisting of two chambers: a lower house, known as the Council of 500, which initiated legislation; and an upper house, the Council of Elders, which accepted or rejected the
proposed laws. The 750 members of the two legislative bodies were chosen by electors (individuals qualified to vote in an election). The electors had to be owners or renters of property worth a certain amount, a requirement that limited their number to 30,000.

From a list presented by the Council of 500, the Council of Elders elected five directors to act as the executive committee, or Directory. The Directory, together with the legislature, ruled. The period of the revolution under the government of the Directory (1795–1799) was an era of corruption and graft. People reacted against the sufferings and sacrifices that had been demanded in the Reign of Terror. Some of them made fortunes in property by taking advantage of the government’s severe money problems.

At the same time, the government of the Directory was faced with political enemies. Royalists who desired the restoration of the monarchy, as well as radicals unhappy with the turn toward moderation, plotted against the government. The Directory was unable to find a solution to the country’s continuing economic problems. In addition, it was still carrying on wars left from the Committee of Public Safety.

Increasingly, the Directory relied on the military to maintain its power. In 1799, a coup d’état (KOO day•TAH), a sudden overthrow of the government, led by the successful and popular general Napoleon Bonaparte, toppled the Directory. Napoleon seized power.

**Reading Check**

Describe the government that replaced the National Convention.

---

**SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT**

**Checking for Understanding**

1. Define faction, elector, coup d’état.
2. Identify Georges Danton, Jean-Paul Marat, Jacobins, Committee of Public Safety, Maximilien Robespierre, Reign of Terror.
4. Explain both the similarities and the differences between the Girondins and the Mountain.
5. List the members of the informal coalition that took up arms against France. What was the result of this conflict?

**Critical Thinking**

6. Drawing Conclusions Did the French Republic live up to the revolution’s ideals of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity? Write a paragraph in support of your opinion.

7. Contrasting Information Using a table like the one below, contrast the changes in French governmental policy during and after Robespierre’s possession of power.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>During</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Analyzing Visuals**

8. Examine the painting shown on page 339. Explain whether or not you think this is a realistic depiction of Marie Antoinette before her execution, or whether the artist is promoting a particular version of her death.

**Writing About History**

9. Expository Writing Propaganda is the spreading of information for the purpose of helping or injuring a cause. How does the decree of universal mobilization quoted on page 342 fit the definition of propaganda? Use examples from the decree to support your argument in an essay.
Why Learn This Skill?

Graphs are one method of illustrating dates, facts, and figures. With a graph, you can compare change or differences easily. For example, your parents say you are spending too much money on clothes. You disagree, but they show you a bar graph of your weekly expenses. The bar for each week shows how the money you have spent on clothes is higher than the week before. With a quick glance, you immediately see that they are right. You decide to make a graph of your own to show them how your allowance is not keeping up with inflation.

Learning the Skill

There are basically three types of graphs:

- **Circle graphs** They look like a pizza that has been divided into different size slices. They are useful for showing comparisons and percentages.

- **Bar graphs** Individual bars are drawn for each item being graphed. The length of the bars easily illustrates differences or changes over time.

- **Line graph** Each item is indicated by a point on the graph. The points are then connected by a line. You can tell how values have changed by whether the line is going up or down.

Most graphs also use words to identify or label information. The steps below will help you interpret graphs.

- **Read the title** If the graph is called “Randy’s Weekly Clothing Expenses,” then it will be plotting Randy’s expenses every week.

- **Read the captions and text** In Randy’s graph, each bar would be captioned with a weekly date, and the amounts that each bar represents would be clearly marked.

- **Determine the relationships among all sections of the graph** By looking at each bar, you can see the amount spent for that week. By comparing the bars with each other, you can see how Randy’s expenses have changed from week to week.

Practicing the Skill

The circle graph above visually compares the length of time for different periods discussed in this chapter. Study the graph and answer the following:

1. What was the longest of the six periods of the French Revolution?
2. What was the shortest of the six periods?
3. About what percentage of the total time did Napoleon rule France (he ruled during the Consulate and Empire)?
4. About what percentage of the time did the Directory rule?

Applying the Skill

Pick a recent day and make a list of all of your activities in a 24-hour period. Now create a circle graph that shows the division of the day.

Glencoe’s Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook, Level 2, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
The Age of Napoleon

Main Ideas
- Napoleon built and lost an empire.
- Nationalism spread as a result of the French Revolution.
- Napoleon was exiled first to Elba, and then to St. Helena, where he died.

Key Terms
consulate, nationalism

People to Identify
Napoleon Bonaparte, Anne-Louise-Germaine de Staël, Duke of Wellington

Places to Locate
Corsica, Moscow, Elba, Waterloo

Preview Questions
1. Why did Napoleon want to stop British goods from reaching Europe?
2. What were two reasons for the collapse of Napoleon’s empire?

Reading Strategy
Summarizing Information
In a table like the one below, list the achievements of Napoleon’s rule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1799</td>
<td>Napoleon takes part in coup d’état</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1804</td>
<td>Napoleon is crowned emperor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1805</td>
<td>French are defeated at Trafalgar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1815</td>
<td>Napoleon is defeated at Waterloo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Napoleon once wrote:

"But let that impatiently awaited savior give a sudden sign of his existence, and the people’s instinct will divine him and call upon him. The obstacles are smoothed before his steps, and a whole great nation, flying to see him pass, will seem to be saying: ‘Here is the man.’ . . . A consecutive series of great actions never is the result of chance and luck; it always is the product of planning and genius. Great men are rarely known to fail in their most perilous enterprises. . . . Is it because they are lucky that they become great? No, but being great, they have been able to master luck."

—The Mind of Napoleon, J. Christopher Herold, 1955

Napoleon possessed an overwhelming sense of his own importance. He was convinced that he was the man of destiny who would save the French people.

The Rise of Napoleon

Napoleon Bonaparte dominated French and European history from 1799 to 1815. In a sense, he brought the French Revolution to an end in 1799, but he was also a child of the revolution. The French Revolution made possible his rise first in the military and then to supreme power in France. Indeed, Napoleon once said, “I am the revolution.” He never ceased to remind the French that they owed to him the preservation of all that was beneficial in the revolutionary program.

Early Life
Napoleon was born in 1769 in Corsica, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, only a few months after France had annexed the island. He was the son of a lawyer whose family came from the Florentine nobility. The young Napoleon
received a royal scholarship to study at a military school in France.

Napoleon’s education in French military schools led to his commission in 1785 as a lieutenant in the French army. He was not well liked by his fellow officers because he was short, spoke with an Italian accent, and had little money.

For the next seven years, Napoleon read the works of the philosophes and educated himself in military matters by studying the campaigns of great military leaders from the past. The revolution and the European war that followed gave him new opportunities to use his knowledge.

**Military Successes**  Napoleon rose quickly through the ranks of the French army. In 1792, he became a captain. Two years later, at the age of only 24, he was made a brigadier general by the Committee of Public Safety. In 1796, he was made commander of the French armies in Italy, where he used speed, deception, and surprise to win a series of victories.

Throughout his Italian campaigns, Napoleon won the confidence of his men with his energy, charm, and ability to make quick decisions. These qualities, combined with his keen intelligence, ease with words, and supreme confidence in himself, enabled him to influence people and win their firm support.

In 1797, Napoleon returned to France as a conquering hero. He was given command of an army in training to invade Britain. Knowing that the French were not ready for such an invasion, Napoleon proposed instead to strike indirectly at Britain by taking Egypt and threatening India, a major source of British wealth.

The British, however, controlled the seas. By 1799, they had cut off Napoleon’s army in Egypt. Seeing certain defeat, Napoleon abandoned his army and returned to Paris.

**Consul and Emperor**  In Paris, Napoleon took part in the coup d’état that overthrew the government of the Directory. He was only 30 years old at the time. With the coup d’état of 1799, a new government—called the **consulate**—was proclaimed. Although theoretically it was a republic, in fact Napoleon held absolute power.

As first consul, Napoleon controlled the entire government. He appointed members of the bureaucracy, controlled the army, conducted foreign affairs, and influenced the legislature.

In 1802, Napoleon was made consul for life. Two years later, he crowned himself Emperor Napoleon I.

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**Reading Check**  Describing What personal qualities did Napoleon possess that gained him popular support?
Napoleon’s Domestic Policies

Napoleon once claimed that he had preserved the gains of the revolution for the French people. The ideal of republican liberty had, of course, been destroyed by Napoleon’s takeover of power. However, were the ideals of the French Revolution maintained in other ways? An examination of his domestic policies will enable us to judge the truth or falsehood of Napoleon’s claim.

Peace with the Church

One of Napoleon’s first moves at home was to establish peace with the oldest enemy of the revolution, the Catholic Church. Napoleon himself had no personal religious faith. He was an eighteenth-century believer in reason who regarded religion at most as a convenience. In Egypt, he called himself a Muslim; in France, a Catholic. However, he saw the need to restore stability to France, and most of the French were Catholic.

In 1801, Napoleon made an agreement with the pope. The agreement recognized Catholicism as the religion of a majority of the French people. In return, the pope agreed not to ask for the return of the church lands seized in the revolution.

With this agreement, the Catholic Church was no longer an enemy of the French government. At the same time, those who had bought church lands during the revolution became avid supporters of the Napoleonic regime.

Codification of the Laws

Napoleon’s most famous domestic achievement was his codification of the laws. Before the revolution, France did not have a single set of laws but rather had almost 300 different legal systems. During the revolution, efforts were made to prepare a single law code for the entire nation. However, it remained for Napoleon to bring the work to completion in seven codes of law.

The most important of the codes was the Civil Code, or Napoleonic Code. This code preserved most of the gains of the revolution by recognizing the principle of the equality of all citizens before the law, the right of the individual to choose a profession, religious toleration, and the abolition of serfdom and feudalism. Property rights continued to be carefully protected, and the interests of employers were safeguarded by outlawing trade unions and strikes.

The rights of some people were strictly curtailed by the Civil Code, however. During the radical phase of the French Revolution, new laws had made divorce an easy process for both husbands and wives and had allowed all children (including daughters) to inherit property equally. Napoleon’s Civil Code undid these laws.

Divorce was still allowed, but the Civil Code made it more difficult for women to obtain divorces. Women were now “less equal than men” in other ways as well. When they married, their property was brought under the control of their husbands. In lawsuits, they were treated as minors, and their testimony was regarded as less reliable than that of men.

A New Bureaucracy

Napoleon also developed a powerful, centralized administrative machine. He worked hard to develop a bureaucracy of capable officials. Early on, the regime showed that it cared little whether the expertise of officials had been gained in royal or revolutionary bureaucracies. Promotion, whether in civil or military offices, was to be based not on rank or birth but on ability only. Opening government careers to individuals based on their ability was one change the middle class had wanted before the revolution.

Napoleon also created a new aristocracy based on merit in the state service. Napoleon created 3,263 nobles between 1808 and 1814. Nearly 60 percent were military officers, while the remainder came from the upper ranks of the civil service and other state and local officials. Socially, only 22 percent of Napoleon’s aristocracy came from the nobility of the old regime. Almost 60 percent were middle class in origin.
Preserver of the Revolution? In his domestic poli-
cies, then, Napoleon did preserve aspects of the rev-
olution. The Civil Code preserved the equality of all
citizens before the law. The concept of opening gov-
ernment careers to more people was another gain of
the revolution that he retained.

On the other hand, Napoleon destroyed some rev-
olutionary ideals. Liberty was replaced by a despot-
ism that grew increasingly arbitrary, in spite of
protests by such citizens as the prominent writer
Anne-Louise-Germaine de Staël. Napoleon shut
down 60 of France’s 73 newspapers. He insisted that
all manuscripts be subjected to government scrutiny
before they were published. Even the mail was
opened by government police.

Reading Check Evaluating What was the significance
of Napoleon’s Civil Code?

Napoleon’s Empire

Napoleon is, of course, known less for his domes-
tic policies than for his military leadership. His con-
quests began soon after he rose to power.

Building the Empire When Napoleon became
consul in 1799, France was at war with a European
coalition of Russia, Great Britain, and Austria.
Napoleon realized the need for a pause in the war.
He remarked that “the French Revolution is not fin-
ished so long as the scourge of war lasts. . . . I want
peace, as much to settle the present French govern-
ment, as to save the world from chaos.”

Napoleon achieved a peace treaty in 1802, but it
did not last long. War was renewed in 1803 with
Britain. Gradually, Britain was joined by Austria,
Russia, Sweden, and Prussia. In a series of battles at
Ulm, Austerlitz, Jena, and Eylau from 1805 to 1807,
Napoleon’s Grand Army defeated the Austrian,
Prussian, and Russian armies. Napoleon now had the
opportunity to create a new European order.

From 1807 to 1812, Napoleon was the master of
Europe. His Grand Empire was composed of three
major parts: the French Empire, dependent states,
and allied states.

The French Empire was the inner core of the
Grand Empire. It consisted of an enlarged France
extending to the Rhine in the east and including the
western half of Italy north of Rome.

Dependent states were kingdoms under the rule of
Napoleon’s relatives. These came to include Spain,
Holland, the kingdom of Italy, the Swiss Republic,
the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, and the Confederation
of the Rhine (a union of all German states except
Austria and Prussia).

Allied states were those defeated by Napoleon
and forced to join his struggle against Britain. The
allied states included Prussia, Austria, Russia, and
Sweden.

Spreading the Principles of the Revolution

Within his empire, Napoleon sought to spread some
of the principles of the French Revolution, including
legal equality, religious toleration, and economic
freedom. He explained to his brother Jerome after he
had made Jerome king of Westphalia:

What the peoples of Germany desire most impa-
tiently is that talented commoners should have the
same right to your esteem and to public employments
as the nobles, that any trace of servitude and of an
intermediate hierarchy between the sovereign and the
lowest class of the people should be completely abol-
ished. The benefits of the Code Napoleon, the publicity
of judicial procedure, the creation of juries must be
so many distinguishing marks of your monarchy. . . .
The peoples of Germany, the peoples of France, of
Italy, of Spain all desire equality and liberal ideas. . . .
the buzzing of the privileged classes is contrary to the
general opinion. Be a constitutional king.”

Anne-Louise-Germaine de Staël
1766–1817—French writer

Anne-Louise-Germaine de Staël was a prominent writer of the revolu-
tionary and Napoleonic eras in France. She established a salon for the powerful
that lasted from 1790 until 1804. It was
said of her that she was “so spoiled by admira-
tion for her wit that it [would] be hard to make her real-
ize her shortcomings.” During the Reign of Terror, she
helped friends escape France. She also left France but
returned in 1795.

Although she at first supported Napoleon, she
crashed repeatedly with him. She once asked him, “Who
was the greatest woman of history?” Napoleon
responded, “The one who had the most children.” Eventu-
ally, she denounced Napoleon’s rule as tyrannical.
Napoleon banned her books in France and exiled her to
the German states, where she continued to write.
In the inner core and dependent states of his Grand Empire, Napoleon tried to destroy the old order. The nobility and clergy everywhere in these states lost their special privileges. Napoleon decreed equality of opportunity with offices open to talents, equality before the law, and religious toleration. The spread of French revolutionary principles was an important factor in the development of liberal traditions in these countries.

**Reading Check** Identifying What were the three parts of Napoleon’s Grand Empire?

### The European Response

Like Hitler 130 years later, Napoleon hoped that his Grand Empire would last for centuries. Like Hitler’s empire, it collapsed almost as rapidly as it had been formed. Two major reasons help to explain this: the survival of Great Britain and the force of nationalism.

**Britain’s Survival** Britain’s survival was due primarily to its sea power. As long as Britain ruled the waves, it was almost invulnerable to military attack.
The Crossing of the Beresina by January Suchodolsky shows Napoleon’s Grand Army in full retreat from Russia.

The French aroused nationalism in two ways. First, they were hated as oppressors. This hatred stirred the patriotism of others in opposition to the French. Second, the French showed the people of Europe what nationalism was and what a nation in arms could do. It was a lesson not lost on other peoples and rulers.

Explaining Why did being a sea power help Britain to survive an attack by the French?

The Fall of Napoleon

The beginning of Napoleon’s downfall came in 1812 with his invasion of Russia. Within only a few years, the fall was complete.

Disaster in Russia The Russians had refused to remain in the Continental System, leaving Napoleon with little choice but to invade. He knew the risks in invading such a large country. However, he also knew that if the Russians were allowed to challenge the Continental System unopposed, others would soon follow suit.

In June 1812, a Grand Army of over six hundred thousand men entered Russia. Napoleon’s hopes for victory depended on a quick defeat of the Russian armies. The Russian forces, however, refused to give battle. They retreated for hundreds of miles. As they retreated, they burned their own villages and countryside to keep Napoleon’s army from finding food. When the Russians did stop to fight at Borodino, Napoleon’s forces won an indecisive and costly victory.

When the remaining Grand Army arrived in Moscow, they found the city ablaze. Lacking food

Reading Check Napoleon hoped to invade Britain and even collected ships for the invasion. The British navy’s decisive defeat of a combined French-Spanish fleet at Trafalgar in 1805 destroyed any thought of an invasion, however.

Napoleon then turned to his Continental System to defeat Britain. The aim of the Continental System was to stop British goods from reaching the European continent to be sold there. By weakening Britain economically, Napoleon would destroy its ability to wage war.

The Continental System, too, failed. Allied states resented being told by Napoleon that they could not trade with the British. Some began to cheat. Others resisted. Furthermore, new markets in the Middle East and in Latin America gave Britain new outlets for its goods. Indeed, by 1809–1810, British overseas exports were at near-record highs.

Nationalism A second important factor in the defeat of Napoleon was nationalism. Nationalism is the unique cultural identity of a people based on common language, religion, and national symbols. The spirit of French nationalism had made possible the mass armies of the revolutionary and Napoleonic eras. However, Napoleon’s spread of the principles of the French Revolution beyond France indirectly brought a spread of nationalism as well.
and supplies, Napoleon abandoned Moscow late in October and began the “Great Retreat” across Russia. The retreat proceeded in terrible winter conditions. Only forty thousand out of the original army managed to arrive back in Poland in January 1813.

This military disaster led other European states to rise up and attack the crippled French army. Paris was captured in March 1814. Napoleon was soon sent into exile on the island of Elba, off the coast of Tuscany. The Bourbon monarchy was restored to France in the person of Louis XVIII, brother of the executed king, Louis XVI.

### The Final Defeat
The new king had little support, and Napoleon, bored on the island of Elba, slipped back into France. Troops were sent to capture him. Napoleon opened his coat and addressed them: “Soldiers of the 5th regiment, I am your Emperor... If there is a man among you [who] would kill his Emperor, here I am!”


The powers that had defeated Napoleon pledged once more to fight this person they called the “Enemy and Disturber of the Tranquility of the World.” Napoleon raised yet another army and moved to attack the nearest allied forces stationed in Belgium.

At Waterloo in Belgium on June 18, 1815, Napoleon met a combined British and Prussian army under the Duke of Wellington and suffered a bloody defeat.

This time, the victorious allies exiled him to St. Helena, a small island in the south Atlantic. Only Napoleon’s memory would continue to haunt French political life.

### Examining
Why did Napoleon invade Russia?

### The Final Defeat
- The new king had little support, and Napoleon, bored on the island of Elba, slipped back into France. Troops were sent to capture him. Napoleon opened his coat and addressed them: “Soldiers of the 5th regiment, I am your Emperor... If there is a man among you [who] would kill his Emperor, here I am!”
- The powers that had defeated Napoleon pledged once more to fight this person they called the “Enemy and Disturber of the Tranquility of the World.” Napoleon raised yet another army and moved to attack the nearest allied forces stationed in Belgium.
- At Waterloo in Belgium on June 18, 1815, Napoleon met a combined British and Prussian army under the Duke of Wellington and suffered a bloody defeat.
- This time, the victorious allies exiled him to St. Helena, a small island in the south Atlantic. Only Napoleon’s memory would continue to haunt French political life.
The French Revolution was one of the great turning points in history. The years from 1789 to 1815 in France were chaotic, and change came in unexpected ways. The chart below will help you understand and remember some of the major events of this time and the changes they caused.

### Using Key Terms
1. Aristocratic privileges, or _______, were obligations of the French peasants to local landlords.
2. From the period of the Middle Ages until the creation of the French Republic, France’s population was divided into three orders or _______.
3. Members of the French middle class, the _______, were part of the Third Estate.
4. Members of the Paris Commune were called _______ because of their clothing.
5. During the National Convention of 1792, dissenting groups or _______ disagreed over the fate of Louis XVI.
6. Napoleon seized power during an overthrow of the French government, which is called a _______.
7. In 1799, Napoleon controlled the _______, a new government in which Napoleon had absolute power.
8. _______ is the cultural identity of a people based on common language, religion, and national symbols.

### Reviewing Key Facts
9. **Government** What was the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen?
10. **History** What event started the French Revolution?
11. **Government** What reforms did the National Assembly make between 1789 and 1791?
12. **History** Why was Louis XVI executed?
13. **Government** How did Robespierre and the Committee of Public Safety deal with opponents of the government? What was the effect of their policies?
14. **Government** How did Napoleon assume power in France and become emperor?
15. **Geography** How did the French Revolution lead to war with other European nations?
16. **Economics** What was the purpose of the Continental System? Did it succeed? Explain.
17. **History** Why was the French invasion of Russia a failure?

### Critical Thinking
18. **Making Comparisons** Examine the different systems of government in France from 1789 to 1812. Which was the most democratic? Which form of government was the most effective and why?
19. **Evaluating** Evaluate which Enlightenment ideals affected the French Revolution.
Analyzing Maps and Charts

Study the map above to answer the following questions.

25. What cities served as centers of execution?

26. Approximately how far from Paris were centers of execution established?

27. Research one of the towns on the map and write a brief essay that describes the impact of the Reign of Terror on the people who lived there.

Writing About History

20. Expository Writing Look ahead to Section 3 in Chapter 16. Compare and contrast the American, French, and Russian Revolutions. Consider their causes and effects and summarize the principles of each revolution regarding ideas such as democracy, liberty, separation of powers, equality, popular sovereignty, human rights, constitutionalism, and nationalism.

Analyzing Sources

Read the following quotation by Napoleon, then answer the questions below.

“What the peoples of Germany desire most impatiently is that talented commoners should have the same right to your esteem and to public employments as the nobles, that any trace of servitude and of an intermediate hierarchy between the sovereign and the lowest class of the people should be completely abolished. The benefits of the Code Napoleon, the publicity of judicial procedure, the creation of juries must be so many distinguishing marks of your monarchy.”

21. What does Napoleon say that the people of Germany want and do not want?

22. What were Napoleon’s views about how civil and military workers should be hired and promoted? Where in this quote does Napoleon refer to these views?

Applying Technology Skills

23. Using the Internet Use the Internet to do a keyword search for “Declaration of the Rights of Man.” Identify the places where the ideals of liberty, equality, and fraternity are still being debated today. Are there places where these ideals are not being discussed and should be?

Making Decisions

24. Think about the execution of Robespierre. Why did the National Convention decide to execute Robespierre? Can you think of another solution that would have addressed their concerns?
Candide... dragged himself into the neighboring village, which was called Waldberghofftrardorff; he was penniless, famished, and exhausted. At the door of a tavern he paused forlornly. Two men dressed in blue [Prussian soldiers] took note of him:

—Look, chum, said one of them, there’s a likely young fellow of just about the right size.

They approached Candide and invited him very politely to dine with them.

—Gentlemen, Candide replied with charming modesty, I’m honored by your invitation, but I really don’t have enough money to pay my share.

—My dear sir, said one of the blues, people of your appearance and your merit don’t have to pay; aren’t you five feet five inches tall?

—Yes, gentlemen, that is indeed my stature, said he, making a bow.

—Then, sire, you must be seated at once; not only will we pay your bill this time, we will never allow a man like you to be short of money; for men were made only to render one another mutual aid.

—You are quite right, said Candide; it is just as Dr. Pangloss always told me, and I see clearly that everything is for the best.

They beg him to accept a couple of crowns, he takes them, and offers an I.O.U.; they won’t hear of it, and all sit down at table together.

—Don’t you love dearly . . . ?

—I do indeed, says he, I dearly love Miss Cunégonde.

Voltaire was born François-Marie Arouet on November 21, 1694. He assumed the pen name “Voltaire” in 1718. Voltaire was a critical and satiric writer who used his wit to attack both church and state. Candide is one of Voltaire’s most brilliant and most well-known works.

Read to Discover

Candide has been taught that “everything is for the best.” However, his adventures usually prove the opposite. Here, he has just been cast out of a castle. The “men in blue” he meets are army recruiters for Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, who was at war with the French when Voltaire wrote Candide. How can you tell that Voltaire is making fun of the Prussian king and his army?

Reader’s Dictionary

bulwark: strong support or protection
summarily: done without delay or formality
No, no, says one of the gentlemen, we are asking if you don’t love dearly the King of the Bulgars [Frederick the Great].

—Not in the least, says he, I never laid eyes on him.

—What’s that you say? He’s the most charming of kings, and we must drink his health.

—Oh, gladly, gentlemen; and he drinks.

—That will do, they tell him; you are now the bulwark, the support, the defender, the hero of the Bulgars; your fortune is made and your future assured.

Promptly they slip irons on his legs and lead him to the regiment. There they cause him to right face, left face, present arms, order arms, aim, fire, double-time, and they give him thirty strokes of the rod. Next day he does the drill a little less awkwardly and gets only twenty strokes; the third day, they give him only ten, and he is regarded by his comrades as a prodigy.

Candide, quite thunderstruck, did not yet understand very clearly how he was a hero. One fine spring morning he took it into his head to go for a walk, stepping straight out as if it were a privilege of the human race, as of animals in general, to use his legs as he chose. He had scarcely covered two leagues when four other heroes [Prussian soldiers], each six feet tall, overtook him, bound him, and threw him into a dungeon. At the court-martial they asked which he preferred, to be flogged thirty-six times by the entire regiment or to receive summarily a dozen bullets in the brain. In vain did he argue that the human will is free and insist that he preferred neither alternative; he had to choose; by virtue of the divine gift called “liberty” he decided to run the gauntlet thirty-six times, and actually endured two floggings. The regiment was composed of two thousand men. That made four thousand strokes. As they were preparing for the third beating, Candide, who could endure no more, begged as a special favor that they would have the goodness to smash his head. His plea was granted; they bandaged his eyes and made him kneel down. The King of the Bulgars [Frederick the Great], passing by at this moment, was told of the culprit’s crime; and as this king had a rare genius, he understood, from everything they told him of Candide, that this was a young metaphysician, extremely ignorant of the ways of the world, so he granted his royal pardon, with a generosity which will be praised in every newspaper in every age. A worthy surgeon cured Candide in three weeks with the ointments described by Dioscorides. He already had a bit of skin back and was able to walk when the King of the Bulgars went to war with the King of the Abares.

Nothing could have been so fine, so brisk, so brilliant, so well-drilled as the two armies. The trumpets, the fifes, the oboes, the drums, and the cannon produced such a harmony as was never heard in hell. First the cannons battered down about six thousand men on each side; then volleys of musket fire removed from the best of worlds about nine or ten thousand rascals who were clustering up its surface.