MAKING CONNECTIONS

What makes a nation?
The Arc de Triomphe is one of the national symbols of France. It was commissioned by Napoleon in 1806 to commemorate his Grand Army. Can you name some other national symbols of France? In this chapter you will learn how France became a nation.

- What are some national symbols of the United States?
- What are the characteristics of a nation?
- What is nationalism?

The French Revolution Begins

Essential Question:
What was the French system of government before the French Revolution?

(an absolute monarchy)

Point out that in Section 1, students will learn about social, political, and economic problems that created an atmosphere ripe for revolution.

Radical Revolution and Reaction

Essential Question:
What internal conflicts in France affected the progress of the French Revolution?

(Internal disputes about the proper changes in government resulted in great conflict and bloodshed.)

Point out that in Section 2, students will learn about the Reign of Terror that affected Paris and other communities, resulting in the deaths of many of the Revolution’s leaders.

The Age of Napoleon

1789
French Revolution begins
1793
King Louis XVI executed; Reign of Terror begins
1799
Napoleon leads coup d’état that topples French government
1803
United States purchases Louisiana Territory from France

1789
George Washington inaugurated as first U.S. president

Bridgeman-Giraudon/Art Resource, NY, John Lamb/Getty Images
Introducing 1815

Identifying

Create a Four-Door Book to record who, what, when, and where facts while you read about Napoleon Bonaparte.

1812
Napoleon invades Russia

1815
Napoleon defeated at the Battle of Waterloo

1810
Hidalgo leads Mexican independence movement

FOLDABLES™
Study Organizer

Identifying Create a Four-Door Book to record who, what, when, and where facts while you read about Napoleon Bonaparte.

History ONLINE
Chapter Overview—Visit glencoe.com to preview Chapter 18.
The French Revolution Begins

GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea

Struggle for Rights Social inequality and economic problems contributed to the French Revolution.

Content Vocabulary
- estate (p. 576)
- taille (p. 576)
- bourgeoisie (p. 578)
- sans-culottes (p. 583)

Academic Vocabulary
- consumer (p. 577)
- exclusion (p. 581)

People and Events
- Louis XVI (p. 578)
- Tennis Court Oath (p. 579)
- Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen (p. 581)
- Olympe de Gouges (p. 581)

Reading Strategy

Explaining As you read, use a diagram like the one below to help you study.

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 and more radical. The French Revolution established both a new political order and a new social order. For that reason, it is considered a turning point in European history.

Background to the Revolution

Main Idea The Third Estate, the vast majority of the French people, was heavily taxed and discontented.

HISTORY & YOU What if you had no say in family concerns despite doing all the household chores? Learn how the French people reacted to having no say in their government.

French society had changed little since medieval times. Feudalism established the privileges and obligations of the three main social classes. Although there were clergy and wealthy landowners in the American colonies, there were no laws giving them special status, unlike the class system in France. This social injustice caused unrest in eighteenth-century France.

France’s Three Estates

Since the Middle Ages, France’s population had been divided by law into one of three status groups, or estates. The First Estate consisted of the clergy, the Second Estate the nobles, and the Third Estate everyone else. Thus the Third Estate included anyone from the lowliest peasant to the wealthiest merchant.

The First Estate, or clergy, numbered about 130,000 out of a total population of 27 million and owned about 10 percent of the land. The clergy were radically divided. The higher clergy—cardinals, bishops, and heads of monasteries—were from noble families and shared their outlook and interests. The parish priests were often poor and from the class of commoners.

The Second Estate, or nobility, numbered about 350,000 and owned about 25 to 30 percent of the land. They played a crucial role in society in the 1700s. They held leading positions in the government, in the military, in the law courts, and in the Roman Catholic Church. Despite controlling most of the wealth of the kingdom, neither the clergy nor the nobles had to pay the taille (TAH•yuh), France’s chief tax.
Unlike the First and Second Estates, the Third Estate was divided by vast differences in occupation, level of education, and wealth. Peasants made up 75 to 80 percent of the Third Estate and owned about 35 to 40 percent of the land; middle-class members of the Third Estate owned the rest. At least half of the peasants had little or no land to live on.

All peasants owed certain duties to the nobles, which were a holdover from medieval times when serfdom was widespread. For example, a peasant had to pay a fee to grind his flour or press his grapes because the local lord controlled the flour mill and wine press. When the harvest time came, the peasant had to work a certain number of days harvesting the noble’s crop. Peasants fiercely resented these duties.

Another part of the Third Estate consisted of urban craftspeople, shopkeepers, and workers. These people, too, were struggling to survive. In the 1700s, the price of consumer goods increased much faster than wages, which left these urban groups with decreased 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. The bourgeoisie included merchants, bankers, and industrialists, as well as professional people—lawyers, holders of public offices, doctors, and writers.

The middle class was unhappy with the privileges held by nobles. They did not want to abolish the nobility, however, but to better their own position. Some bourgeoisie had managed to become nobles by being appointed to public offices that conferred noble status. About 6,500 new nobles had been created by appointment during the 1700s.

The bourgeoisie also shared certain goals with the nobles. Both were drawn to the new political ideas of the Enlightenment. In addition, 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 led them to take drastic action against the absolute monarchy of Louis XVI.

Financial Crisis

Social conditions, then, formed a long-standing background to the French Revolution. The immediate cause of the revolution was the near collapse of the French budget. Although the economy had been expanding for fifty years, there were periodic crises. Bad harvests in 1787 and 1788 and a slowdown in manufacturing led to food shortages, rising prices for food, and unemployment. One English traveler commented on the misery of French peasants:

**Primary Source**

“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.”

—an English traveler in France

On the eve of the revolution, the French economy was in crisis. Despite these problems, the French king and his ministers continued to spend enormous sums of money on wars and court luxuries. The queen, Marie Antoinette, was especially known for her extravagance and this too caused popular resentment. When the government decided to spend huge sums to help the American colonists against Britain, the budget went into total crisis.

With France on the verge of financial collapse, Louis XVI was forced to call a meeting of the Estates-General, representatives of all three estates meeting together, to raise new taxes. The Estates-General had not met since 1614 because French kings were so powerful.

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Jacques-Louis David, a representative of the Third Estate, depicted its challenge of the king’s authority in his painting, *The Oath of the Tennis Court June 20th 1789*.

1. **Analyzing Visuals**  From their dress, what social class do most people in the image appear to be?
2. **Recognizing Bias**  Explain why David’s image might convey a biased view of this event.
From Estates-General to National Assembly

The Third Estate claimed the right to have its votes count as much as those of the First and Second Estates.

HISTORY & YOU Have you heard about a riot and wondered what made people take to the streets? Learn why Parisian workers rioted in the summer of 1789.

Louis XVI called a meeting of the Estates-General at Versailles on May 5, 1789. In the Estates-General, the First and Second Estates each had about 300 representatives. The Third Estate had almost 600 representatives. Most of the Third Estate wanted to set up a constitutional government that would make the clergy and nobility pay taxes, too.

From the start, there were arguments about voting. Traditionally, each estate had one vote—the First and Second Estates could outvote the Third Estate two to one. The Third Estate demanded instead that each deputy have one vote. Under this new system, with the help of a few nobles and clerics, the Third Estate would then have a majority vote. The king stated that he favored the current system.

On June 17, 1789, the Third Estate boldly declared that it was the National Assembly and would draft a constitution. Three days later, on June 20, its deputies arrived at their meeting place, only to find the doors had been locked. They then moved to a nearby indoor tennis court and swore that they would continue meeting until they had a new constitution. The oath they swore is known as the Tennis Court Oath.

Bailly, the National Assembly’s president, led the Tennis Court Oath.

Some clergy and nobles joined in the Oath.

When the 600 delegates were locked out of Versailles, they walked to a nearby tennis court where they swore to meet until they had a constitution.
Louis XVI prepared to use force against the Third Estate. On July 14, 1789, about 900 Parisians gathered in the courtyard of the Bastille (ba•STEEL)—an old fortress, used as a prison and armory. The price of bread had reached record highs so the crowd was hungry and agitated. According to rumor, the king’s troops were coming, and there was ammunition in the Bastille. A group of attackers managed to lower the two drawbridges over the moat. Members of the French Guard joined the attack. After four hours of fighting, the prison warden surrendered. The rebels released the seven prisoners and cut off the prison warden’s head. Angered that there were no munitions, the crowd demolished the Bastille brick by brick. Paris was abandoned to the rebels.

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

Louis XVI was informed that he could no longer trust royal troops to shoot at the mob. The king’s authority had collapsed in Paris. Meanwhile, all over France, revolts were breaking out. Popular hatred of the entire landholding system, with its fees and obligations, had finally spilled over into action.

Peasant rebellions became part of the vast panic known as the Great Fear. The peasants feared that the work of the National Assembly would be stopped by foreign armies. Rumors spread from village to village that foreign troops were on the way to put down the revolution. The peasants reacted by breaking into the houses of the lords to destroy the records of their obligations.

**Reading Check**

**Examining** Why did the Third Estate object to how votes were counted in the Estates-General?

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**The King Concedes**

Unlike the rest, this woman is not dressed like Parisian women of the Third Estate.

Many of the women carried weapons abandoned by the French Guard after they sided with the rebels.

To Versailles, to Versailles, an 18th-century engraving, depicts French women on their way to confront Louis XVI.

1. **Making Inferences** What was the role of women in the French Revolution?
2. **Drawing Conclusions** What was the purpose of engravings like this?
End of the Old Regime

The National Assembly affirmed the "rights of man" and set up a limited monarchy in the Constitution of 1791.

**HISTORY & YOU** How did George III react to the Declaration of Independence? Read how Louis XVI reacted to the events of 1789.

The National Assembly reacted to news of peasant rebellions and rumors of a possible foreign invasion. On August 4, 1789, the National Assembly decided to abolish all legal privileges of the 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 English Bill of Rights of 1689 and by the American Declaration of Independence and Constitution, this charter of basic liberties began with "the natural and inalienable rights of man" to "liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression."

Reflecting Enlightenment thought, the declaration proclaimed that all men were free and equal before the law, that appointment to public office should be based on talent, and that no group should be exempt from taxation. Freedom of speech and of the press were affirmed.

The declaration raised an important issue. Should equal rights include women? Many deputies agreed, provided that, as one man said, "women do not hope to exercise political rights and functions." One writer, Olympe de Gouges, refused to accept this exclusion of women. Echoing the words of the official declaration, she wrote:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

"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."

—*from Declaration of the Rights of Woman and the Female Citizen*, Olympe de Gouges, 1791

**The King Concedes**

In the meantime, Louis XVI remained at Versailles. Used to the absolutist system, he stubbornly refused to accept the National Assembly’s decrees. On October 5, however, thousands of Parisian women—described by an eyewitness as “detachments of women coming up from every direction, armed with broomsticks, lances, pitchforks, swords, pistols and muskets”—marched to Versailles. Some of the women then met with the king. They told him that their children were starving because there was no bread. These women forced Louis to accept the new decrees.

Now the crowd insisted that the king and his family come to Paris to show support for the National Assembly. If the king was not under their close watch, they feared he would rouse the kings and princes from other countries to oppose reform.

On October 6, the king and his family returned to Paris. As a goodwill gesture, they brought wagonloads of flour from the palace storehouse. They were escorted by women who chanted: "We are bringing back the baker, the baker’s wife, and the baker’s boy." The king, the queen, and their son were now virtual prisoners in Paris.

**Church Reforms**

Under the old regime, the Catholic Church had been an important pillar of the social and political system. The revolutionaries felt they had to reform it too. The new revolutionary government had another serious motivation, however: the need for money. By seizing and selling off Church lands, the National Assembly was able to increase the state’s revenues.

Finally, the Church was formally brought under the control of the state. A law was passed called the Civil Constitution of the Clergy. It said that bishops and priests were to be elected by the people, not appointed by the pope and the Church hierarchy. The state would also pay the salaries of the bishops and priests. Because of these changes, many Catholics became enemies of the revolution.
New Constitution and New Fears

The new Constitution of 1791 set up a limited monarchy. There was still a king, but a Legislative Assembly would make the laws. The new body was designed to be conservative. First, only the so-called “active” citizens—men over 25 who paid a certain amount of taxes—could vote. All others were considered “passive” citizens with equal rights but no vote. Second, the method of choosing its 745 deputies meant that only relatively wealthy people would serve. Not only the clergy, but also government officials and judges, would be elected. Local governments were put in charge of taxation. The influence of the new government began to spread throughout France.

By 1791, the “ancien régime,” or old order, had been destroyed, but the new government did not have universal support. Political radicals and economically disadvantaged people wanted more reform. The king detested the new government’s regulation of the Church and his loss of absolute power. While Louis resisted the new constitution, family members and advisers urged him to take more action.

In June 1791, the royal family attempted to flee France in disguise. They almost succeeded in reaching allies in the east, but they were recognized and were captured at Varennes and brought back to Paris. In this unsettled situation, the new Legislative Assembly met for the first time in October 1791 and amended the constitution to allow for trying the king if he turned against the nation. Although Louis XVI publicly swore to uphold the new constitution, the constitutional monarchy seemed already doomed.

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., was an important spokesman for the civil rights movement in the United States in the 1960s. The purpose of the civil rights movement was to gain equal rights for African Americans. These were the same rights that the French Third Estate had fought for nearly 200 years earlier. However, Dr. King advocated nonviolent protest to accomplish these goals.

- All men are created equal
- All men have basic rights to liberty, property, and life

1. **Comparing and Contrasting** What are some similarities and differences between the American civil rights movement and the French Revolution?

2. **Making Inferences** Why could a nonviolent approach to change succeed in the United States in the 1960s, but not in France in the late 1700s?
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 and fearing attack, the Legislative Assembly decided to strike first, declaring war on Austria in the spring of 1792. The French fared badly in the initial fighting. A frantic search for scapegoats began. One observer in France noted:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

"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."

—An observer, 1792

Rise of the Paris Commune

In the spring of 1792, angry citizens demonstrated to protest food shortages and defeats in the war. In August, Paris radicals again decided the fate of the revolution. They declared themselves a commune—a popularly run city council—and organized a mob attack on the royal palace and Legislative Assembly.

The French Revolution was entering a more radical and violent stage. Members of the new Paris Commune took the king captive. They forced the Legislative Assembly to suspend the monarchy and to call for a National Convention. This time they wanted a more radical change. All the representatives who would decide the nation’s future would be elected through universal male suffrage, in which all adult males had the right to vote. This would broaden the group of voters to include men who did not meet the initial standards for citizenship established by the Assembly.

Many members of the Paris Commune proudly called themselves **sans-culottes**, meaning “without breeches.” They wore long trousers, not the knee-length breeches of the nobles, which identified them as ordinary patriots without fine clothes. Often, sans-culottes are depicted as poor workers, but many were merchants or artisans—the elite of their neighborhoods. The revolution was entering a more radical phase because of the threat of foreign intervention to reestablish the monarchy and because economic conditions in France showed little improvement. This led to calls for new measures to be taken to secure the future of the revolution and improve the living conditions of the people in France.

✓ **Reading Check** Evaluating: What was the significance of the Constitution of 1791?
A Revolution In Clothing

Throughout history, clothing has communicated a person’s social status, age, gender, marital status, and ethnicity. Before the French Revolution, some of the Third Estate tried to dress like the nobility. After the revolution, as the Third Estate gained power, their clothing became the style to copy.

SECOND ESTATE

According to the sumptuary laws, only noblemen could carry swords.

Hats were worn on top of elaborate wigs or carried as an accessory.

Wigs or hair were layered into powdered curls. Sometimes a hat with feathers was pinned on top.

Hoops, crumpled paper, or padding was used to enlarge and fluff the skirt.

Noblemen wore knee-length, tight-fitting breeches. Both men and women wore silk stockings.

Only nobility could wear satin, lace, and fur according to the sumptuary laws.

Sumptuary Laws

Before the French Revolution outlawed social classes, sumptuary laws dictated which materials, styles, and accessories could be worn by each estate. Even poorer nobles, who did not have many clothes, dressed in expensive fabrics. The bourgeoisie, wealthier members of the Third Estate, tried to imitate the style of the Second Estate. Only the sumptuary laws prevented the bourgeoisie from “impersonating” a member of the nobility.
During the Reign of Terror, a fashion statement became a political statement. Former nobles and wealthy bourgeoisie learned to avoid extravagant clothing. People wearing lavish clothes were often singled out for persecution, even execution. Revolutionary wear was simple, peasant garb in patriotic colors. Some revolutionary attire stayed in style, like the pantelons, or trousers.

Blue, white, and red were symbolic colors of the revolution. It was patriotic to wear the bonnet rouge, or red cap, with a circular badge known as a tricolor cockade.

Women of the Third Estate wore a hat with a badge and their hair loose.

Revolutionary women wore man-styled jackets over their dresses.

Practical fabrics and plain styles replaced expensive fabrics and fussy styles.

Revolutionaries made a political statement by wearing longer trousers. These men became known as the sans-culottes—without breeches.

Both men and women shunned high heels and wore more practical leather or wooden shoes.

1. **Comparing** Who sets fashion trends today, and who inspired fashion in the 1700s?

2. **Making Inferences** How do today’s clothing styles make political or social statements?
Radical Revolution and Reaction

**GUIDE TO READING**

**The BIG Idea**

**Struggle for Rights** Radical groups controlled the revolution, which many people in France and abroad opposed.

**Content Vocabulary**
- faction (p. 587)
- elector (p. 593)
- coup d'état (p. 593)

**Academic Vocabulary**
- domestic (p. 588)
- external (p. 588)

**People and Events**
- Georges Danton (p. 586)
- Jean-Paul Marat (p. 586)
- Jacobins (p. 587)
- Committee of Public Safety (p. 588)
- Maximilien Robespierre (p. 588)
- Reign of Terror (p. 589)
- Directory (p. 593)

**Reading Strategy**

**Classifying** As you read, create a diagram like the one below to help you study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions taken by the National Convention</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**HISTORY & YOU** How does our Congress work to solve problems and pass laws? Read how various factions tried to take power in France.

**Main Idea** When the new government was faced with many internal crises and external threats, it broke into factions.

**Just as in the American Revolution, participants in the French Revolution had different ideas about how to carry out revolutionary ideas and achieve their goals. The revolution tore France’s political, economic, and social structure apart, which made neighboring countries nervous. The French Revolution became more radical because of internal divisions and because of fear of foreign invasion.**

**The Move to Radicalism**

After his flight to Varennes, Louis XVI remained on the throne for a year, but it was a chaotic year. Unrest was fueled by continuing food shortages, military setbacks, and rumors of royalist conspiracies. By August of 1792, the monarchy was over. Rallied by the newly appointed minister of justice, Georges Danton, the sans-culottes attacked the palace, and the royal family had to seek protection from the Legislative Assembly.

The powerful Paris Commune forced the Legislative Assembly to call a National Convention. Before the Convention could meet, panic and fear again gripped Paris. Rumors spread that imprisoned nobles and other traitors were conspiring to defeat the revolution. Violence erupted in the streets in September, leaving thousands dead. New leaders of the people emerged, including Jean-Paul Marat, who published a radical journal called *Friend of the People*. Marat defended the September massacres.

Soon the life of the king was at risk. The buildup to his execution began with the elections for a new National Convention.

**The First Republic**

In September 1792, the newly elected National Convention began meeting. The Convention had been called to draft a new constitution, but it also served as the ruling body of France. It was dominated by lawyers, professionals, and property owners. Two-thirds of its deputies were under the age of 45, but most had some 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.
The Fate of the King

After 1789, citizens had enthusiastically formed political clubs of varying social and political views. Many deputies belonged to these clubs. The Girondins (juh•RAHN•duhns) tended to represent areas outside Paris. They feared the radical mobs of Paris and leaned toward keeping the king alive. The Mountain represented the interests of radicals in Paris, and many belonged to the Jacobins (JA•kuh•buhns) club. Increasingly they felt the king needed to be executed to ensure he was not a rallying point for opponents of the republic.

Both factions, or dissenting groups, tried to influence the “plain,” the majority of deputies who did not belong to any political club. In early 1793, the Mountain convinced the Convention to pass a decree condemning Louis XVI to death.

In a letter, Philipe Pinel, a physician, described the king’s execution:

“... [Louis XVI] looked at the scaffold without flinching. The executioner at once proceeded to perform the customary rite by cutting off the King’s hair, which he put in his pocket. Louis then walked up onto the scaffold. The air was filled with the roll of numerous drums... with such force that Louis’s voice was drowned and it was only possible to catch a few stray words like ‘I forgive my enemies’...

... Louis was fastened onto the deadly plank of the machine they call the guillotine and his head was cut off so quickly that he could hardly have suffered. This at least is a merit belonging to the murderous instrument... The executioner immediately lifted the head from the sack into which it fell automatically and displayed it [the head] to the people...

As soon as the execution had taken place, the expression on the faces of many spectators changed... and [they] fell to crying, ‘Vive la Nation!’... but a great number withdrew, their spirits racked with pain, to shed tears in the bosom of their families. As decapitations could not be performed without spilling blood on the scaffold many persons hurried to the spot to dip the end of their handkerchief or a piece of paper in it, to have a reminder of this memorable event.”

This popular print by Faucher-Gudin depicts Louis XVI’s execution on January 21, 1793.

1. **Predicting** What does the mood after the execution reveal about the next phase of the revolution?
2. **Evaluating** Is it significant that Louis XVI’s execution followed almost the same procedure as everyone else’s? Why or why not?
On January 21, the king was beheaded on the guillotine. Revolutionaries had adopted this machine because it killed quickly and, they believed, humanely. The king’s execution created new enemies for the revolution, both at home and abroad. A new crisis was at hand.

The execution of King Louis XVI pushed the revolution into a new radical phase. Henry de Firmont, a Catholic priest, was present at the king’s execution. He describes the events he witnessed:

**Primary Source**

“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.’”

—Henry de Firmont

**Crises and Responses**

Disputes between the Girondins and the Mountain blocked the writing of a constitution. The Paris Commune pressured the National Convention to adopt more radical measures: price controls on food and universal male suffrage. Peasants in western France and inhabitants of major provincial cities refused to accept the authority of the Convention. Uprisings began in the west and spread to the south.

After Louis XVI was executed, a 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 1793, the coalition was poised to invade. It seemed possible that the revolution would be destroyed, and the old regime reestablished. Confronted with domestic uprisings and external threats, the National Convention gave the Committee of Public Safety broad powers. This was dominated by Georges Danton, then by the radical Jacobin Maximilien Robespierre.

**Reading Check**

What were the differences between the Girondins and the Mountain?

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**People in History**

**Jean-Paul Marat**

1743–1793 French Revolutionary

Marat earned his nickname “drinker of blood” by urging the poor to take what they needed by force. As a radical Jacobin, Marat condemned the moderate Girondins. In *The Death of Marat*, Jacques-Louis David painted the murder scene and portrayed Marat as a martyr to the revolution. Marat often worked in his bathtub to soothe a skin condition. In Marat’s hand is a letter from Charlotte Corday, a Girondin sympathizer, who asked for an appointment with him. Corday stabbed Marat in the bathtub and later stood trial for her crime. Why did Marat condemn the approach of the Girondins?

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**Maximilien Robespierre**

1758–1794 French Revolutionary

Robespierre was one of the revolution’s most important leaders and a radical Jacobin. He drew his power from the Paris Commune and the support of the sans-culottes. In the National Convention, he preached democracy and universal male suffrage. His nickname was “The Incorruptible” because of his reputation for integrity. His weaknesses were self-righteousness and not tolerating any difference of opinion. Robespierre said, “How can one reproach a man who has truth on his side?” His passion in pursuing the Reign of Terror frightened many and led to his arrest and execution. How were Robespierre’s views different from other revolutionaries?
The Reign of Terror

While the Committee of Public Safety was in power, thousands were executed.

HISTORY & YOU Can you name a government that has executed its critics? Learn about the effects of the executions in France.

For roughly a year during 1793 and 1794, the Committee of Public Safety took control of the government. To defend France from domestic threats, the Committee adopted policies that became known as the Reign of Terror.

Crushing Rebellion

As a temporary measure, revolutionary courts were set up to prosecute counter-revolutionaries and traitors. Throughout France, almost 40,000 people were killed during the Reign of Terror. Of those, 16,000 people, including Marie Antoinette and Olympe de Gouges, died by the guillotine. Most executions occurred in towns that had openly rebelled against the Convention.

Revolutionary armies were set up to bring rebellious cities under the control of the National Convention. When the Committee of Public Safety decided to make an example of Lyon, 1,880 citizens of that city were executed. When guillotining proved too slow, grapeshot (a cluster of small iron balls) was used to shoot the condemned into open graves. A foreign witness wrote:

PRIMARY SOURCE

"Whole ranges of houses, always the most handsome, burnt. The churches, convents, and all the dwellings of the former patricians were in ruins. When I came to the guillotine, the blood of those who had been executed a few hours beforehand was still running in the street. . . . I said to a group of sans-culottes that it would be decent to clear away all this human blood. Why should it be cleared? one of them said to me. It's the blood of aristocrats and rebels. The dogs should lick it up."

—a German observer at Lyon, 1793

In western France, too, revolutionary armies were brutal in defeating rebels. 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 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 Third Estate. 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 realized. Robespierre wrote:

PRIMARY SOURCE

". . . [T]he springs of popular government in revolution are at once virtue and terror: virtue, without which terror is fatal; terror, without which virtue is powerless. Terror is nothing other than justice, prompt, severe, inflexible; it is therefore an emanation of virtue."

—Robespierre

The Republic of Virtue

In addition to the Terror, the Committee of Public Safety took other steps to control and shape a French society. Robespierre called this new order the Republic of Virtue—a democratic republic composed of good citizens. As outward signs of support for the republic, the titles "citizen" and "citizenship" were to replace "mister" and "madame." Women wore long dresses inspired by the clothing worn in the ancient Roman Republic.

Good citizens would be formed by good education. A law aimed at primary education for all was passed but not widely implemented. Another law abolished slavery in French colonies.

Because people were alarmed about high inflation, the Committee tried to control the prices of essential goods like food, fuel, and clothing. The controls did not work well, however, because the government had no way to enforce them.

From the beginning, women had been active participants in the revolution, although they had no official power.
During the radical stage of the revolution, women observed sessions of the National Convention and were not shy about making their demands.

In 1793, two women founded the Society for Revolutionary Republican Women in Paris. Most members were working-class women who asserted that they were ready to defend the republic. Most men, however, believed that women should not participate in either politics or the military.

The Convention also pursued a policy of de-Christianization. Its members believed that the religion encouraged superstition, rather than the use of reason. The word *saint* was removed from street names, churches were looted and closed by revolutionary armies, and priests were encouraged to marry. In Paris, the cathedral of Notre Dame, the center of the Catholic religion in France, was designated a “temple of reason.” In November 1793, a public ceremony dedicated to the worship of reason was held in the former cathedral. Patriotic young girls dressed 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 and the autumnal equinox. The calendar contained 12 months. Each month consisted of three 10-day weeks, with the tenth day of each week a day of rest.

The months were given new names that referred to agriculture or the climate. *Vendémiaire*, which started in September, meant “vintage time.” These changes in the calendar had a significant effect on religion in France, eliminating Sundays, Sunday worship services, and church holidays.

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

**Reading Check**

How did the Committee of Public Safety identify enemies of the state?

**Analyzing**

- Committee of Public Safety institutes a *levée en masse*, drafting men into the army
- 1,880 citizens of Lyon executed as example to enemies of the revolution
- Committee of Public Safety identify enemies of the state?
A Nation in Arms

**MAIN IDEA** A huge revolutionary army defended France against invasion.

**HISTORY & YOU** How would you feel if every young person in your town was drafted? Read to learn the French reaction to a national draft in 1793.

As foreign troops gathered on its borders, the revolution seemed to be in danger. To save the republic, the Committee of Public Safety issued a decree to raise an army:

> “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 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.”

—from the mobilization decree, August 23, 1793

**Rise of the Revolutionary Army**

In less than a year, the new French government had raised a huge army—by September 1794, it had over a million soldiers. It was the largest army ever seen in Europe, and it pushed the invaders back across the Rhine. It even conquered the Austrian Netherlands. In earlier times, wars were the business of rulers who fought rivals with professional soldiers. The new French army was created by a people’s government. Its wars were people’s wars.

**Primary Source**

February 1794
Robespierre addresses “On Political Morality” to the Convention, stating that a combination of virtue and terror would save the Republic from its enemies.

July 1794
Committee of Public Safety orders Robespierre’s execution.

June 1794
Law of 22 Prairial gives Robespierre more power; French army ends threat of foreign invasion.

August 1794
Law of 22 Prairial repealed; release of prisoners begins.

1. **Determining Cause and Effect** What did the execution of Louis XVI set in motion in France and in the rest of Europe?

2. **Drawing Conclusions** Explain why the Reign of Terror came to an end.
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 was obsessed with ridding France of all the corrupt elements. Only then could the Republic of Virtue follow.

In June 1794, the Law of 22 Prairial was passed, which gave Robespierre more power to arrest and execute enemies of the revolution. Deputies in the National Convention who feared Robespierre decided to act, lest they be the next victims. They gathered enough votes to condemn him, and Robespierre was guillotined on July 28, 1794.

After the death of Robespierre, the Jacobins lost power and more moderate middle-class leaders took control. The Reign of Terror came to a halt. In August 1794, the Law of 22 Prairial was repealed and the release of prisoners began.

Reading Check

How did the revolutionary army help to create nationalism?

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**Percentages of Victims of the Terror by Class**

- First Estate—Clergy 8%
- Second Estate—Nobility 10%
- Third Estate—Peasants to Bourgeoisie 82%

Source: Guide de la Révolution Française.

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The Radical’s Arms by George Cruikshank shows the British view of the Reign of Terror. The banner above the guillotine reads, “No God! No King! No Religion! No Constitution!”

1. **Identifying Points of View** What opinion of the Terror do Wordsworth and Cruikshank share?

2. **Making Inferences** Wordsworth’s poem seems to indicate that “all parties, ages, ranks” suffered equally during the Terror. Does this chart and the one on page 577 support or challenge this view?
With the Terror over, the National Convention moved in a more conservative direction. First, it restricted the power of the Committee of Public Safety. Next, churches were allowed to reopen. Finally, a new constitution was created.

To keep any one political group from gaining control, the Constitution of 1795 set up two legislative houses. A lower house, the Council of 500, drafted laws. An upper house of 250, the Council of Elders, accepted or rejected proposed laws.

The method for election shows that the new government was much more conservative than the government of Robespierre. Members of both houses were chosen by electors, or qualified voters. Only those who owned or rented property worth a certain amount could be electors—only 30,000 people in the whole nation qualified. This was a significant change from the universal male suffrage the Paris Commune had demanded.

Under the new constitution, the executive was a committee of five called the Directory. The Council of Elders chose the Directors from a list presented by the Council of 500. The Directory, which lasted from 1795 to 1799, became known mainly for corruption. People reacted against the sufferings and sacrifices that had been demanded in the Reign of Terror. Some people made fortunes from government contracts or by loaning the government money at very high interest rates. They took advantage of the government’s severe money problems during these difficult times.

At the same time, the government of the Directory faced political enemies from both conservatives and radicals. Some people wanted to bring back the monarchy, while others plotted to create a more radical regime like Robespierre’s. Likewise, economic problems continued with no solution in sight. Finally, France was still conducting expensive wars against foreign enemies.

To stay in power, the Directory began to rely on the military, but one military leader turned on the government. In 1799 the successful and popular general Napoleon Bonaparte toppled the Directory in a coup d’état (koh-day-TAH), a sudden overthrow of the government. Napoleon then seized power.

**Reading Check** Describing Describe the government that replaced the National Convention.
Who Should Be a Citizen?

What is a citizen? One definition is a free person who owes loyalty to a nation and who receives protection, rights, and privileges in return.

Who should be a citizen? At the time of the American Revolution only free, white adult males who owned property or paid taxes could vote. By 1870, all adult males “regardless of race, color, or previous condition of servitude” were granted the right to vote, but it was 1920 before American women could vote.

In France, the Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen addressed social distinctions, but opinions differed on how to interpret the document. Read the excerpts from Robespierre and d’Aelders and study Fragonard’s painting to see how they viewed citizenship and the continuing struggle for rights.

SOURCE 1

In this speech from October 1789, Maximilien Robespierre stated his view on property requirements for holding office and voting.

All citizens, whoever they are, have the right to aspire to all levels of office-holding. Nothing is more in line with your declaration of rights, according to which all privileges, all distinctions, all exceptions must disappear. The Constitution establishes that sovereignty1 resides in the people, in all the individuals of the people. Each individual therefore has the right to participate in making the law which governs him and in the administration of the public good which is his own. If not, it is not true that all men are equal in rights, that every man is a citizen. If he who only pays a tax equivalent to a day of work has fewer rights than he who pays the equivalent to three days of work, and he who pays at the level of ten days has more rights than he whose tax only equals that value of three, then he who enjoys 100,000 livres [French pounds] of revenue has 100 times as many rights as he who only has 1,000 livres of revenue. It follows from all your decrees2 that every citizen has the right to participate in making the law and consequently that of being an elector or eligible for office without the distinction of wealth.

SOURCE 2

Etta Palm d’Aelders was a woman active in a reform group called the Cercle Social (Social Circle). D’Aelders expressed her opinions in “The Injustices of the Laws and Favor of Men at the Expense of Women” (December, 1790).

Do not be just by halves, Gentlemen; . . . justice must be the first virtue of free men, and justice demands that the laws be the same for all beings, like the air and the sun. And yet everywhere, the laws favor men at the expense of women, because everywhere power is in your hands. What! Will free men, an enlightened people living in a century of enlightenment and philosophy, will they consecrate3 what has been the abuse of power in a century of ignorance? . . .

The prejudices with which our sex has been surrounded—supported by unjust laws which only accord us a secondary existence in society and which often force us into the humiliating necessity of winning over the cantankerous4 and ferocious character of a man, who, by the greed of those close to us has become our master—those prejudices have changed what was for us the sweetest and most saintly of duties, those of wife and mother, into a painful and terrible slavery. . . .

Oh! Gentlemen, if you wish us to be enthusiastic about the happy constitution that gives back men their rights, then begin by being just toward us. From now on we should be your voluntary companions and not your slaves. Let us merit your attachment!

1 sovereignty: power, authority
2 decrees: authoritative decisions; declarations
3 consecrate: make sacred
4 cantankerous: having a bad disposition; quarrelsome
SOURCE 3

On May 20, 1795, an angry mob in the Convention hacked the head off deputy Feraud and presented it to the chairman, Boissy d’Anglas, who saluted the head. After this incident, d’Anglas presented measures to prevent the return of the Reign of Terror and to take precautions against anarchy. Usually the crowds in the balcony were merely rowdy, insulting and threatening the deputies. At times like the one in the painting, they became a mob, invading the chamber and killing deputies with whom they disagreed. Some leaders thought the poor and the uneducated would take over the government, leading to violence and disorder. They feared “mob rule.”

1. Analyzing What does Robespierre think about basing citizenship on whether a person has property or pays taxes?
2. Explaining What does d’Aelders mean by women’s “secondary existence in society”?
3. Drawing Inferences What do you think Fragonard’s opinion might have been of universal suffrage—the right of all citizens to vote?
4. Comparing Although Robespierre was not a supporter of equal rights for women, list some similarities between his and d’Aelders’s arguments.
5. Contrasting How does d’Aelders portrayal of women contrast with Fragonard’s?
6. Drawing Conclusions Does universal suffrage mean anarchy or mob rule? How would you answer the question “Who should be a citizen?” Which source has a position most like your own?

—anarchy: state of lawlessness based on lack of government authority
The Age of Napoleon

Napoleon Bonaparte dominated French and European history from 1799 to 1815. During his reign Napoleon built and lost an empire and also spread ideas about nationalism in Europe.

The Rise of Napoleon

Napoleon, a popular general, overthrew the Directory, set up a new government, and eventually took complete power.

HISTORY & YOU What qualities do you look for in a political leader? Learn what made the French follow Napoleon.

Napoleon Bonaparte’s role in the French Revolution is complex. In one sense, he brought it to an end when he came to power in 1799. Yet he was a child of the revolution as well. Without it, he would never have risen to power, and he himself never failed to remind the French that he had preserved the best parts of the revolution during his reign as emperor.

Early Life

Napoleon was born in 1769 in Corsica, an island in the Mediterranean, only a few months after France had annexed the island. His father came from minor nobility in Italy, but the family was not rich. Napoleon was talented, however, and won a scholarship to a famous military school.

When he completed his studies, Napoleon was commissioned as a lieutenant in the French army. Although he became one of the world’s greatest generals and a man beloved by his soldiers, there were few signs of his future success at this stage. He spoke with an Italian accent and was not popular with his fellow officers.

Napoleon devoted himself to his goals. He read what French philosophers had to say about reason, and he studied famous military campaigns. When revolution and war with Europe came about, there were many opportunities for Napoleon to use his knowledge and skills.

Military Successes

Napoleon rose quickly through the ranks. In 1792 he became a captain. Two years later, at age 24, the Committee of Public Safety made him a brigadier general. In 1796 he became commander of the French armies in Italy. There Napoleon won a series of battles with qualities he became famous for—speed, surprise, and decisive action. Napoleon defeated the armies of the Papal States and
their Austrian allies. These victories gave France control of northern Italy. Throughout the Italian campaigns, Napoleon’s energy and initiative earned him the devotion of his troops. His keen intelligence, ease with words, and supreme self-confidence allowed him to win the support of those around him.

In 1797 he returned to France as a hero. He was given command of an army in training to invade Britain, but he knew the French could not carry out that invasion.

Instead, Napoleon suggested striking indirectly at Britain by taking Egypt. Egypt lay on the route to India, a major source of British wealth and therefore one of Britain’s most important colonies. Napoleon’s goal of taking Egypt was never met, however. The British were a great sea power and controlled the Mediterranean. By 1799, the British had defeated the French naval forces supporting 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 of 1799 that overthrew the Directory and set up a new government, the **consulate**. In theory, it was a republic, but, in fact, Napoleon held absolute power. Napoleon was called first consul, a title borrowed from ancient Rome. He appointed officials, 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.

**Reading Check**  Describing  What personal qualities gained Napoleon so much popular support?

**Napoleon’s Domestic Policies**

**Main Idea**  Napoleon brought stability to France and established a single law code that recognized the equality of all citizens before the law.

**HISTORY & YOU**  How would you feel if a government official checked all your mail before you read it? Read how many of Napoleon’s policies reduced freedom.

Napoleon once claimed that he had preserved the gains of the revolution. Since he destroyed the republican form of government when he took power, how could Napoleon make this assertion? As we look

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**Connecting to the United States**

Napoleon’s rule had a direct connection to expansion in the United States. In 1803 Napoleon sold the Louisiana Territory to the United States for $15 million. The boundaries of the Louisiana Purchase ran from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Gulf of Mexico to the Canadian border. This sale has been called the greatest land deal in history.

The Louisiana Territory was originally claimed by France in 1682, went to Spain in 1763, and back to France in 1800. This last exchange closed the port of New Orleans to Americans. President Thomas Jefferson sent two ministers to France to address the problem. They threatened to create an alliance with Great Britain if the French failed to respond. Napoleon offered the entire territory for sale, an offer Jefferson couldn’t resist.

- Napoleon gained $15 million for his military campaigns, particularly against Great Britain, and he could now focus on his European campaigns rather than on struggles across the Atlantic.

- The United States doubled in size and gained full control of the Mississippi River, along with resources such as minerals, farm and grazing land, forests, and wildlife.

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**CONNECTING TO TODAY**

1. **Explaining**  Why did Napoleon sell the Louisiana Territory?
2. **Making Connections**  Why was it important for the United States to control New Orleans?
at Napoleon’s domestic policies, it will be possible to judge whether the emperor’s claims had any merit.

**Peace with the Church**

One of Napoleon’s first moves at home was to establish peace with the Catholic Church, the oldest enemy of the revolution. In matters of religion, Napoleon himself was a man of the Enlightenment. He believed in reason and felt that religion was at most a social convenience. Since most of the French were Catholic, Napoleon felt it was good policy to mend relations with the Church.

In 1801 Napoleon came to an agreement with the pope, which recognized Catholicism as the religion of a majority of the French people. In return, the pope would not 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. It also meant that people who had acquired church lands in the revolution became avid supporters of Napoleon.

**Codification of the Laws**

Napoleon’s most famous domestic achievement was to codify the laws. Before the revolution, France had almost 300 different legal systems. During the revolution, efforts were made to prepare a single law code for the entire nation. However, the work was not completed until Napoleon’s reign.

Seven law codes were created, but the most important was the Civil Code, or Napoleonic Code, introduced in 1804. It preserved many of the principles that the revolutionaries had fought for: equality of all citizens before the law; the right of the individual to choose a profession; religious toleration; and the abolition of serfdom and all feudal obligations.

For women and children, the Civil Code was a step back. During the radical stage of the revolution, new laws had made divorce easier and allowed children, even daughters, to inherit property on an equal basis. The Civil Code undid these laws. Women were now “less equal than men.”

When they married, they lost control over any property they had. They could not testify in court, and it became more difficult for them to begin divorce proceedings. In general, the code treated women like children, who needed protection and who did not have a public role.

**A New Bureaucracy**

Napoleon is also well known because he created a strong, centralized administration. He focused on developing a bureaucracy of capable officials. Early on, the regime showed that it did not care about rank or birth. Public officials and military officers alike were promoted based on their ability. Opening careers to men of talent was a reform that the middle class had clamored for before the revolution.

Napoleon also created a new aristocracy based on meritorious service to the nation. Between 1808 and 1814, Napoleon created about 3,200 nobles. Nearly 60 percent were military officers, while the rest were civil service or state and local officials. Socially, only 22 percent of this new aristocracy were from noble families of the old regime; about 60 percent were middle class in origin.

**Preserver of the Revolution?**

In his domestic policies, then, Napoleon did keep some major reforms of the French Revolution. Under the Civil Code, all citizens were equal before the law. The concept of opening government careers to more people was another gain of the revolution that he retained.

On the other hand, Napoleon destroyed some revolutionary ideals. Liberty was replaced by a despotism 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 and banned books, including de Staël’s. He insisted that all manuscripts be subjected to government scrutiny before they were published. Even the mail was opened by government police.
As a result of his conquests, Napoleon spread revolutionary ideals and nationalism throughout Europe. To ensure loyalty, Napoleon installed his relatives on the thrones of the lands he conquered. When Napoleon named his brother Jerome king of Westphalia, he explained the importance of spreading the principles of the French Revolution.

“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... should be completely abolished. ... 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.”

—Napoleon Bonaparte

### Napoleon’s Family & His Empire (1799–1812)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caroline [sister] &amp; Joachim Murat</td>
<td>Duke and Duchess of Berg</td>
<td>1806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jerome [brother] Bonaparte</td>
<td>King of Westphalia</td>
<td>1807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elisa [sister] Bacciochi</td>
<td>Princess of Lucca and Piombino Duchess of Tuscany</td>
<td>1806, 1809</td>
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<tr>
<td>Caroline [sister] &amp; Joachim Murat</td>
<td>King and Queen of Naples</td>
<td>1808</td>
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<td>Pauline [sister] Borghese</td>
<td>Duchess of Guastalla</td>
<td>1806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prince Eugène de Beauharnais [Napoleon’s stepson]</td>
<td>Viceroy of Italy Prince of Venice</td>
<td>1805–1807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louis [brother] Bonaparte &amp; Hortense de Beauharnais [Napoleon’s stepdaughter]</td>
<td>King and Queen of Holland</td>
<td>1806–1810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joseph [brother] Bonaparte</td>
<td>King of Spain</td>
<td>1806</td>
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### Map 1: Spreading the Principles of the Revolution

- **France, 1799**
- **French Empire, 1812**
- **Dependent states, 1812**
- **States allied against Napoleon, 1812**
- **States allied with Napoleon, 1812**
- **French victory**

1. **Location** In which areas would you expect the ideals of the revolution to be popular? Why?
2. **Regions** If Napoleon had not established his empires, do you think the same ideas would have spread in Europe? Why or why not?
Napoleon’s Empire

As Napoleon conquered Europe, he spread nationalist ideas. Inspired by those ideas, conquered peoples resisted Napoleon’s armies and helped bring about the collapse of his empire.

**HISTORY & YOU** How would Americans react to a foreign country dictating trade policy to their government? Read how Napoleon tried to bar trade with Britain.

Napoleon is, of course, known less for his domestic policies than for his military leadership. His conquests 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. “The French Revolution is not finished,” he said, “so long as the scourge of war lasts. . . . I want peace, as much to settle the present French government, as to save the world from chaos.” In 1802 a peace treaty was signed, but it did not last long. War with Britain broke out again in 1803. 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.

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 ruled by relatives of Napoleon. Eventually these included 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 countries defeated by Napoleon and then forced to join his struggle against Britain. These 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. In the inner core and dependent states of his Grand Empire, Napoleon tried to destroy the old order. The nobility and the clergy everywhere in these states lost their special privileges. Napoleon decreed equality of opportunity with offices open to those with ability, 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.

Like Hitler 130 years later, Napoleon hoped that his Grand Empire would last for centuries, but his empire collapsed almost as rapidly as it was formed. Two major reasons help explain this collapse: Britain’s ability to resist Napoleon and the rise of nationalism.

**British Resistance**

Napoleon was never able to conquer Great Britain because of its sea power, which made it almost invulnerable. Napoleon hoped to invade Britain, but the British defeated the combined French-Spanish fleet at Trafalgar in 1805. This battle ended Napoleon’s plans for invasion.

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 also 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 1810, British overseas exports were at near-record highs.
Nationalism
A second important factor in the defeat of Napoleon was nationalism. Nationalism is the sense of unique identity of a people based on common language, religion, and national symbols. Nationalism was one of the most important forces of the nineteenth century. A new era was born when the French people decided that they were the nation.

Napoleon marched his armies through the Germanies, Spain, Italy, and Poland, arousing new ideas of nationalism in two ways. First, the conquered peoples became united in their hatred of the invaders. Second, the conquered peoples saw the power and strength of national feeling. It was a lesson not lost on them or their rulers.

The Fall of Napoleon
After major losses in Russia and Austria, Napoleon was defeated at Waterloo.

**HISTORY & YOU** Today there are some rulers who go into exile to avoid prosecution in their homelands. Read why in 1815 the French government exiled Napoleon.

Napoleon’s downfall began in 1812 when he decided to invade Russia. Within only a few years, his 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, but he also knew that if he did not punish
The Final Defeat

The new king had little support, and the French people were not ready to surrender the glory of empire. Nor was Napoleon ready to give up. Restless in exile, he left the island of Elba and slipped back into France. The new king sent troops to capture Napoleon, who 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!”


Russia, Great Britain, Austria, and Prussia responded to Napoleon’s return. They again pledged to defeat the man they called the “Enemy and Disturber of the Tranquility of the World.” Meanwhile, Napoleon raised another French army of devoted veterans who rallied from all over France. He then readied an attack on the allied troops stationed across the border 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. Napoleon remained in exile until his death in 1821, but his memory haunted French political life for many decades.
Visual Summary

**CAUSES of the French Revolution**
- France was ruled by absolute monarchy.
- A rigid social class system existed.
- The government was bankrupt.
- The Third Estate had no voice in government.
- Bad harvests, rising food prices, and unfair taxation caused civil unrest.
- The political goals of the nobility and middle class challenged the monarchy.

**LONG-TERM EFFECTS of the French Revolution**
- Napoleon’s army conquered other countries and changed many traditional political and class systems.
- French armies spread nationalism and Enlightenment ideals to other countries.

**SHORT-TERM EFFECTS of the French Revolution**
- The end of the monarchy caused initial chaos.
- France was attacked by foreign countries.
- The beheading of royals and the Reign of Terror led to internal disorder.
- Napoleon seized power and became emperor of France.

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**Place Louis XV, Near the Louvre Palace, Paris, in 1775**
- Statue of King Louis XV

**Place Louis XV Became Place de la Révolution in 1792.**
- The guillotine replaced the statue of King Louis XV.

**Place de la Révolution Became Place de la Concorde (Harmony).**
- The Egyptian obelisk replaced the guillotine.
- The Madeleine began as a temple to honor Napoleon’s soldiers.