

Russian influence. But the allies hoped that the new Greek state, converted into a monarchy in 1831, would serve them as a basis of operations to counteract the diplomacy of the Tsar in the Eastern peninsula.

Summary. State of the World of 1828. — Without any violent revolution, but in consequence of the persevering efforts of wise men, France with Martignac, England with Canning and Portugal through Dom Pedro, took up again liberal traditions. To them Spain was to be led back by a change in the law of succession. In the New World ten republics were born and the only monarchy which remained there had become constitutional. On the old continent the new Hellenic state, the work of sentiment as much as of politics, had taken its place among the nations on the side of free institutions. In Italy, especially at Milan and Rome, in Germany, Hesse, Baden, Brunswick and Saxony a portentous fermentation announced to unpopular governments that revolutions could only be prevented by reforms. In Belgium and in Poland, under the lead of the clergy, the insurrection of nationalities and of religions was preparing which antagonistic religions and nationalities wished to smother. And lastly, commerce and manufactures, which had been developed in the calm of peace, letters, which were animated by a breath of renewal, and the periodical press, which was becoming a power, all favored the advance of public spirit toward popular independence and individual liberty. Thus, everything warned the governments to keep in that great liberal current which was traversing the world from one pole to the other, from Paris to Lima. Unfortunately there were princes and ministers who tried once more to resist that force which some call Providence or fate, and which to others is the irresistible result of a thousand causes, great or small, by which the common life of a nation and of humanity is determined.

XXXV

NEW AND IMPOTENT EFFORTS OF THE OLD RÉGIME
AGAINST THE LIBERAL SPIRIT

Dom Miguel in Portugal (1828). Don Carlos in Spain (1827). — Absolutism, astonished and uneasy after its reverses, made a supreme effort to regain possession of the countries which had just broken from its control. The signal was given by Vienna which, under the direction of Prince Metternich, was the citadel of reaction. Dom Miguel had taken refuge there and from it kept Portugal in a state of incessant agitation, hoping to dethrone his niece, Doña Maria, then a child of seven. Dom Pedro had believed he could save his daughter's throne by marrying her to Dom Miguel and investing him with the regency. The regent swore fidelity to the Constitution (February 22, 1828), but four months afterwards proclaimed himself king. This perjury and usurpation was supported by the English Tories and seemed successful at first. Despotism terrorized the country. The victims of assassination, execution or banishment were numbered by thousands (1829).

Dom Miguel was the son of a sister of Ferdinand VII. The nephew was as bad as the uncle, and the king of Spain had given bloody pledges to the absolutists. Nevertheless the friend of the Jesuits was deemed too liberal. In 1825 Bessières, an adventurer of French origin, took up arms "to deliver the king held captive by the negroes" or Constitutionals. In 1827 the former soldiers of the Army of the Faith proclaimed his brother, Don Carlos, the leader of the clerical party, as king. This attempt did not succeed: but it was the beginning of an interminable war. Dom Miguel had rebelled two or three times against his father. The representatives of the old régime, the Apostolicals, as they called themselves in Spain, were accordingly as revolutionary as their adversaries of 1820. It will not be surprising to find soon this same contempt for law in the spirit and acts of their friends in France.

The Wellington Ministry (1828). The Diet of Frankfort.—Some time after the death of Canning the Tories returned to power with the Wellington ministry and tried to give a different direction to the policy of Great Britain. Zeal for the cause of Greece immediately slackened. The protection accorded the Portuguese Liberals was withdrawn. Wellington recalled the English corps which had been sent to the Tagus, stopped by main force an expedition of Constitutionals, and recognized Dom Miguel as king (1829). At home the importation of foreign grain was discouraged. The emancipation of the Roman Catholic Irish was opposed although O'Connell, "the great agitator," had already begun to stir the masses with the cry, "Justice for Ireland." Liberal opinion gained strength. In the following year it carried the Irish Bill. Lord John Russell, the Whig leader, succeeded in passing a resolution which made it no longer incumbent on all candidates for offices under the crown to prove that they received the sacrament according to the rites of the Anglican Church. Hitherto all except Episcopalians had been excluded from office. Thus the Tories were obliged to bow before the current which was flowing toward free institutions.

Italy, in the stern grasp of Austria, no longer made any movement, and Germany was becoming equally silent. "Since 1815," wrote a Prussian ambassador, the personal friend of his king, "since 1815 we have lived weighed down with heavy chains. We have beheld all voices stifled, even those of the poets, and we have been reduced to seeking refuge in the sanctuary of science." Nevertheless, reforms in material interests were accomplished. The Zollverein was introduced, which suppressed internal customs-duties.

But in defiance of the independence of the Confederate States, the Diet of Frankfort in 1824 renewed its declaration that it would everywhere uphold royalty. That was saying in effect that for the simplest reforms the Liberals would be obliged to conquer the resistance of their respective sovereigns and of the armies of the entire Confederation, since the latter was self-appointed judge of whatever acts might compromise "the monarchical principle." The law was continued which in 1819 had established rigorous penalties against the press for a period of five years. A commission was further charged with "examining defects

in instruction," so as to subject the rising generation to an education in keeping with the spirit of the Holy Alliance. Lastly, as the debates of the Diet, hitherto public, seemed to disturb men's minds, the assembly decided to hold its deliberations in future only behind closed doors. The federal government hid itself in the shadow like the inquisitors of Venice. Alexander adopted the same measures with regard to the Polish Diet (1825).

The Tsar Nicholas.—In Russia the nation was summed up in one man, the Tsar. The prohibition issued by Alexander against bringing into Russia any books which treated of politics "in a manner hostile to the principles of the Holy Alliance" had been a hindrance to very few readers. But the moral contagion, which cannot be kept out by a line of custom-houses, crossed the frontier, and the new ideas gained a meagre following here and there. Alexander's last moments were darkened by the discovery of a formidable conspiracy which extended even to the army. "What harm have I done them?" he exclaimed sadly. No harm except in seeking to be the intelligence and will of 60,000,000 souls. Even in Russia there were already men who believed that that rôle was ended.

When Alexander died at Taganrog (December, 1825), his brother, the Grand Duke Constantine, voluntarily repeated his renunciation of the crown. Nicholas, a third son of Paul II, was proclaimed Tsar. He was a man of iron, no harder to others than to himself. Convinced that he was a representative of the divine will, he consequently acted with perfect calmness, whether ordering the punishment of an individual, the execution of a people, or a war which was to carry off a million men. The plots formed under Alexander were not abandoned. Some of the conspirators aimed at overthrowing Tsarism by uniting all the Slavic population in one federal republic, like the United States. Others thought to force its surrender by imposing upon it a constitution. They brought over many regiments to their cause. On the day when the garrison of St. Petersburg was to take the oath to the new ruler, the sedition broke out. Before nightfall it was crushed. After a few executions in the provinces, Russia recognized her master in that prince who for a quarter of a century was to Europe the haughty and all-powerful incarnation of autocracy.

The Polignac Ministry (1829). Capture of Algiers.— Thus in Germany, Russia, and the Iberian and Italian peninsulas, the liberal spirit was again repressed. The allies of 1815 seemed to have conquered once more. In Great Britain it was awakening but under the prudent guardianship of the Tories. Hitherto it had been the privilege of France to move the world. To which side would she incline? If she were able to continue her liberal evolution peacefully, the new light would shine abroad without a shock and with a penetrating force well-nigh irresistible.

So long as M. de Martignac remained in the government the Liberals retained their hopes. Unhappily Charles X, docile to the counsels of the Congregation, supported his minister without liking him. After eighteen months his self-control was exhausted. On August 8, 1829, taking advantage of a slight rebuff imprudently inflicted by the Chamber on his ministers in a matter of minor importance, he replaced them by Messieurs De Polignac, De Labourdonnaie, and De Bourmont. The choice of such men by the monarch amounted to a declaration of war against the country. A crisis was inevitable. For ten months the opposition press constantly repeated that the government would end of necessity by a coup d'état, and the deputies declared in their address of reply to the king's speech, that the ministry did not possess their confidence. The Chamber was dissolved, but the 221 signers of the address were re-elected. Royalty, vanquished in the elections, decided to make its own revolution.

The military success of the Algerian expedition encouraged this resolve. Thirty-seven thousand French troops, under the Count de Bourmont, had landed in Africa to avenge an affront to a French consul and had taken possession of the country and city of Algiers. The booty seized defrayed the cost of the expedition. Since that time Algeria has been a possession of France.

The Revolution of 1830.— On the 26th of July ordinances appeared which annulled the liberty of the press, rendered the last elections void and created a new electoral system. This was a coup d'état against public liberty. It overthrew the Charter, on which the return of the Bourbons to the throne of their fathers had been conditioned. The magistrates declared these ordinances illegal. Paris replied to

the provocation of the court by the three days of July 27, 28 and 29, 1830. This time resistance was legitimate, since both the burghers and populace fought those who had infringed the Constitution. Despite the bravery of the royal guard and of the Swiss, Charles X was vanquished. When he offered to withdraw the ordinances and then abdicated in favor of his grandson, the Duke de Bordeaux, he was answered by the watchword of revolutions, "It is too late." He again went into exile. Six thousand men had been slain or wounded. They were victims to the obstinacy of an old man, who, in the words of Royer-Collard, "had set up his government counter to society as if it existed against society, as if to give society the lie and defy it."

France saluted with almost unanimous acclamations this separation from the men and ideas of 1815. In again adopting the flag of 1789, she seemed also to be regaining possession of herself. She seemed to be winning the liberties which the Revolution had promised but had not yet bestowed. Reverentially she was about to divorce religion from politics in order to restore it to the place which it ought never to have quitted, in the temple and the individual conscience.

XXXVI

CONSEQUENCES OF THE REVOLUTION OF JULY IN FRANCE. STRUGGLE BETWEEN THE LIBERAL CONSERVATIVES AND THE REPUBLICANS

(1830-1840)

Character of the Period comprised between 1830 and 1840.

— Under the Restoration only two policies found themselves face to face. These were the policy of the Holy Alliance and that of the liberals. Thus the victory of that period is a summary of the obscure or brilliant, the generous or criminal, struggle between these two principles. After 1830 this conflict continued but was complicated by new interests.

The revolution of July, 1830, which in certain countries assured the victory to liberal ideas, seemed to promise it to others which it incited to insurrection. Meanwhile the half-ruined alliance of 1815 made an effort to maintain itself. If the western Powers, France, England, Belgium, Switzerland, Spain and Portugal, escaped therefrom forever, the central and eastern states, Prussia, Austria and Russia, remained faithful to that alliance. But the principle of free society daily enlarged its scope like a sea which eats away its shores and thrusts its waves always farther inland. Thus gradually spreading it agitated Italy, shook Germany and raised Poland a moment from her bier.

The principal representative of the spirit of reaction in the preceding period had been Prince Metternich, with his calm skill and his cautious and temporizing policy. Now the Emperor Nicholas was its highest expression by his implacable energy and his activity as well as by the grandeur of his plans.

But new questions arise and divert attention from internal anxieties. The immense heritage of the Turkish Empire seemed about opening up, and men asked themselves uneasily who were to be its heirs. Egypt, on the shortest

road to India, was becoming civilized under a barbarian genius and the maritime powers were quarrelling over their influence on the Nile. Central Asia became the battlefield for the rival intrigues of England and Russia. The barriers which shut off the extreme East opened a little and were soon to fall before the commerce of the world. The activity of mankind expanded. From 1789 to 1815 men thought only of France, victorious or vanquished, and forgot Asia, where England was growing strong, and the New World, where the American Republic was noiselessly becoming a giant. Between 1815 and 1830 attention, still centred upon Europe, turned aside for a moment only to behold the birth of the new states of Spanish America. In the third period one must go from pole to pole, would he keep pace with civilization which wishes to complete its possession of the globe by commerce or by war, its two mighty instruments.

King Louis Philippe. — La Fayette said to the people at the city hall, pointing toward the Duke of Orleans, "There is the best of republics." Many thought like La Fayette. The private virtues of the prince, his noble family, his former relations with the leaders of the liberal party, the carefully revived memories of Jemmapes and Valmy, his simple habits and the popular education given to his sons in the public schools—all encouraged the hopes of the people.

The Duke of Orleans, the head of the younger branch of the house of Bourbon, was proclaimed king on August 9, after having sworn to observe the revised charter. The changes then made in the constitutional compact, or during the following months in the existing laws, were unimportant. The heredity of the peerage and the censorship of the press were abolished. The qualification for election was fixed at 500 francs and the qualification to serve as an elector at 200 francs. Thus the political rights of persons of fortune were maintained without specially stipulating those of intelligence. The article was suppressed which recognized the Roman Catholic religion as the state religion, and all the peerages created by Charles X were abolished. But in 1814 Louis XVIII had seemed to grant a charter of his own good will. In 1830 Louis Philippe accepted one which the deputies imposed. Therein lay the whole revolution. Nevertheless the fact must not be for-

gotten that rights, first violated by royalty, had been again violated by the Chamber, since the deputies had disposed of the crown and re-made the Constitution without a mandate from the country. This will prove for the Orleans dynasty an incurable source of weakness. The government, born of a fact and not of a principle, will not enjoy either the force formerly conferred by legitimacy or that which is to-day conferred by the national expression.

The Laffitte Ministry (1830).—The shock caused by the fall of the Restoration had imparted an unexpected strength to the republican party. This party must be taken into account first of all. It was flattered for awhile in the person of two men whom the republicans respected, General La Fayette, who was appointed commander of all the national guard of France, and M. Laffitte, who was called to the ministry (November 2). The popularity of the former was cleverly exploited until after the trial of the ministers of Charles X, and that of the second until the moment when it became necessary to make a plain declaration of sentiments on foreign policy.

France had the distinguished honor of riveting the attention of the world upon herself. At the crash of the throne which crumbled at Paris all the unpopular powers were compromised. We shall soon see that in Switzerland the aristocratic governments fell, and that liberal innovations were introduced into Germany. Italy was quivering with excitement. Spain was preparing a revolution. Belgium was separating from Holland. England herself, troubled and agitated, was on the point of wresting the Reform Bill from the Tories. Peace was more profitable to liberty than war and French ideas re-won the conquests which French arms had lost.

But was France to champion every European insurrection at the risk of inciting a general war and of shedding torrents of blood? The new king did not think so. Belgium had separated from Holland and wished to unite with France. Her advances were discouraged for fear of exciting the jealousy of England. The Spanish refugees wanted to make a revolution in their country. They were arrested on the frontier so that international law should not be violated even against a prince who was a secret enemy. Poland, liberated for a few moments by a heroic effort, appealed to France. Was it possible to save her by arms? As the

Poles themselves said in their national calamity, "God is too high and France is too far." The meagre assistance sent to her did not prevent Warsaw from succumbing. Its fall found a sad echo in the heart of every Frenchman. Italy, bound hand and foot by Austria, strove to break her chains. M. Laffitte wished to aid her. The king refused to follow his advice and called Casimir-Périer to the presidency of the Council.

The Casimir-Périer Ministry (1831).—This policy was esteemed too prudent. Casimir-Périer imparted to it a momentary grandeur by the energy with which he supported this system of moderation. He made two distinct declarations. The first was, that he desired order and legality, and consequently would combat the republicans and legitimists to the death if they employed riots to effect the triumph of their opinions; the second was that he would not plunge France into a universal war and consequently for the sake of peace would make every sacrifice compatible with the honor of the country. This haughty language was supported by deeds. Dom Miguel in Portugal had maltreated two Frenchmen. A fleet forced the defences of the Tagus, which were reputed impassable, and anchored 300 fathoms from the quays of Lisbon. The Portuguese ministers humbly made proper reparation. The Dutch invaded Belgium. Fifty thousand French entered the country and the flag of the Netherlands retreated. The Austrians who had once left the pontifical states returned thither. Casimir-Périer, determined to enforce the principle of non-intervention, sent a flotilla into the Adriatic, and troops landed and seized Ancona. This appearance of the tricolored flag in the centre of Italy was almost equivalent to a declaration of war. Austria did not accept the challenge but withdrew her troops.

At home the President of the Council followed with the same energy the line of conduct which he had marked out for himself. The legitimists were disturbing the western departments. Flying columns stifled the revolt. The workmen of Lyons, excited by their misery but also by agitators, rose, inscribing on their banners this plaintive and sinister motto: "To work and live or to fight and die." After a horrible conflict in the heart of the city they were disarmed and on the surface order seemed to be restored. Grenoble was a scene of blood in its turn. The so-called

plots of Notre Dame and of the Rue des Prouvaires broke out in Paris.

Such was the ministry of Casimir-Périer, an energetic struggle in which his strong will did not recoil at any obstacle for the cause of order. Colleagues, Chambers, the king himself, he dominated over them all. Such a life had exhausted his strength when he was stricken down by cholera (May 16, 1832).

Ministry of October 11, 1832. — Society was profoundly undermined by the partisans of Saint Simon and Fourier, who demanded another social order. These men as yet played the part of pacific apostles only, but the insurrection in Lyons had revealed the masses as an army fully prepared to apply their doctrines. The national guard with energy defended royalty when, after the funeral of General Lamarque, the republicans fought and lost the battle of June 5 and 6 behind the barricades of Saint Méry. This check disconcerted their party for a time. A month later the death of the Duke of Reichstadt, the son of Napoleon, removed a formidable rival from the Orleans dynasty, which at the same time seemed to gain support by the marriage of Princess Louise to the king of the Belgians.

Another claimant also lost an opportunity. The Duchess de Berri had secretly landed on the coast of Provence with the title of regent, and endeavored to kindle civil war in the west in the name of her son, Henry V. But there were no longer either Vendéans or Chouans. The new ideas had penetrated thither almost more than elsewhere. "These people are patriots and republicans," said an officer, charged with fighting them. The country was promptly pacified and the duchess, after wandering from farmhouse to farmhouse, entered Nantes disguised as a peasant woman. Her adventurous freak showed the weakness of the legitimists. To complete their overthrow, M. Thiers, then minister, caused active search to be made for the duchess. She was found and confined at Blaye, where circumstances forced her to acknowledge a secret marriage which rendered all similar attempts in the future impossible.

Success Abroad. — Certain results of the French foreign policy reacted on their domestic policy. Thus the capture by French troops of the citadel of Antwerp, which the Dutch refused to restore to the Belgians, terminated a critical situation which might any moment have brought

on war. Further acquisitions in Africa as well as an expedition to the banks of the Scheldt cast a little glory on the French army.

In the East French diplomacy mediated between the Sultan and his victorious vassal, Mehmet Ali, the pasha of Egypt. The treaty of Kутаieh, which left Syria to Mehmet Ali, strengthened the viceroy of Egypt, the guardian in behalf of Europe of the two chief commercial routes of the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf which England wished to seize.

In Portugal Dom Miguel, an absolutist prince, was de-throned and replaced by Doña Maria, who gave her people a constitutional charter (1834). In Spain Ferdinand VII died (1834), excluding from the succession his brother, Don Carlos, who was upheld by the retrograde party. Thus the whole peninsula might escape at the same time from the absolutist party had England and France been ready to combine and prevent another Congress of Laibach or Verona. The treaty of the Quadruple Alliance, signed on April 22, 1834, between the courts of Paris, London, Lisbon and Madrid, did, in fact, promise to the new Spanish and Portuguese governments the support of the two great constitutional countries against the ill-will of the northern courts. An army corps of 50,000 men was formed at the foot of the Pyrenees for the purpose of supporting, in case of need, the young Queen Isabella against the Spanish legitimists, the natural allies of the French legitimists.

Insurrections at Lyons and at Paris (1834). Attempt of Fieschi (1835). — At home the Chambers had at last passed a law organizing primary instruction (1833). In Parliament, on important questions, the ministry was sure of the majority. Though the jury often acquitted persons accused of political crimes, the army was faithful, and the first attempt against the life of the king caused royalty to profit by the horror which such crimes always inspire. "Well! They have fired at me," said the king. "Sire," replied Dupin, "they have fired at themselves."

The insurrections of April, 1834, at Lyons and at Paris, and the dramatic incidents of the trial of 164 republicans before the Court of Peers, led to the imprisonment or flight of nearly all their leaders and the momentary ruin of that party as a militant faction.

Meanwhile the violent had recourse again to assassina-

tion. At the review of July 28, 1835, Fieschi, a returned convict and forger, directed an infernal machine at the king. Eighteen persons were killed and twenty wounded. Among the slain was Marshal Mortier.

This horrible attempt appalled society. The ministry took advantage of the universal indignation to present the Laws of September concerning the Court of Assizes, the jury and the press. They were planned to render punishment for crime more severe and more prompt. They prohibited all discussion as to the principles of the government and curtailed the press.

The Thiers Ministry (1836). — The cause of order, earnestly upheld at home, was now triumphant. M. Thiers, President of the Ministerial Council after February 22, 1836, wished to repeat the foreign policy of Casimir-Périer. The Spanish Carlists were making threatening progress in the peninsula. M. Thiers decided to interfere. England herself requested it. This course indicated closer relations with that power and the intention of defending liberal ideas in Europe. The memory of the unfortunate intervention of 1823 would thus have been gloriously effaced.

The same ministry conceived and prepared another expedition. Desirous of further acquisitions in Algeria, M. Thiers ordered Marshal Clausel to attack Constantine, one of the strongest fortresses in Africa. He also intended to have General Bugeaud enter Spain at the head of 12,000 men. Thus the government, which had put down troubles at home, was about to exercise the activity of France abroad. The timorous king gave his consent to the expedition against Constantine, because cannon-shots fired in Africa, he said, were not heard in Europe; but he would allow no intervention in Spain. M. Thiers, rather than yield, quitted the ministry, where he was replaced by M. Molé as President of the Council.

The Molé Ministry (1836-1839). — The first part of M. Molé's ministry was marked by misfortunes. Marshal Clausel, whose forces were insufficient, failed in the expedition against Constantine. Prince Louis, the nephew of Napoleon, tried to rouse the garrison of Strasburg to revolt. He was arrested and conducted beyond the frontiers. His accomplices were brought before the jury, which discharged them because the principal culprit had been removed from its jurisdiction. This verdict displeased the

court. The ministry proposed a peculiar law which aimed at trying citizens and soldiers by different courts though accused of the same crime. The Chamber rejected it.

These checks were relieved during the following year by some successes. The army at last planted its flag upon the walls of Constantine (1837). To end a long standing quarrel with Mexico an expedition was despatched which took possession of Vera Cruz. Mexico paid a war indemnity. The Prince de Joinville was on the fleet. He displayed the same courage which his brothers had often shown in Africa. The birth of a son to the Duke of Orleans, to whom the king gave the name of Count of Paris, seemed to consolidate the dynasty.

But vigorous attacks upon the ministry were already preparing in the heart of Parliament. M. Molé had just recalled the French troops from Ancona in compliance with the terms of the treaty of 1833. It was asserted that the removal of the tri-colored flag from Ancona was a humiliation to France in Europe and the abandonment of a precious guarantee against Austria. French diplomacy was no more happy in the final regulation of the Dutch-Belgian affair. The Belgians by their revolution had aimed at separating two peoples of different language, religion and interests. But the treaty of the twenty-four articles, accepted by the French ministry, ceded to the king of Holland Belgian populations which had fought against him. Europe would not allow the friendly province of Luxemburg to be annexed to France, which would have covered a vulnerable point in the French frontier.

With a little more regard for the national honor and with a little more confidence in the national strength, it was said that those concessions for peace at any price might have been spared. But the real pretext of these attacks was what was called the insufficiency of the ministry. M. Guizot, the leader of the doctrinaires, who were a small but talented and ambitious party; M. Thiers, the leader of the Left Centre which vigorously condemned personal government; and M. Odilon Barrot, leader of the deputies opposed to the policy, but devoted to the person of the king, formed a coalition with the motto of 1830: "The king reigns, but does not govern." The ministry wished to resign. The king, whose cause was at stake, refused to allow it, and appealed to the country by dissolving the

Chamber. The ministry fought vigorously in the electoral battle, but was vanquished and fell. Jealousies in the distribution of offices caused the coalition to disband the day after its victory. Difficulties over the formation of a new ministry kept Paris in suspense for more than a month. Certain republicans, with more faith in gunshots than in the propaganda of ideas, attempted a revolution. They could not even get up a riot.

Ministry of Marshal Soult (1839). — At last a cabinet was formed under the presidency of Marshal Soult. None of the leaders of the coalition were members of it. Therefore it could be nothing but a Ministry *ad interim*. It did not last ten months.

Meanwhile, the Emir Abd-el Kader in Africa proclaimed the Holy War. Within two months the regular infantry of the Moslem chieftain was crushed at the battle of Chiffa. Still the great concern of this cabinet was not Algiers, but the redoubtable Eastern question, as we shall see later on.

XXXVII

CONSEQUENCES IN EUROPE OF THE REVOLUTION OF JULY

(1830-1840)

General State of Europe in 1830. — The revolution of July was not the cause of the memorable events which occurred in Europe after the three days of Paris. Everything was ripe in England for the fall of the Tories; in Belgium, Italy and Poland for a national insurrection; in Spain and Portugal and in the bosom of the Germanic Confederation for enforcing the complaints of the constitutionals. The repressive policy, followed by the great states after 1815, had prepared the inflammable materials upon which fell a spark from the conflict at Paris. Then the fire burst out in every direction. At certain points it did its work and cleared the ground for new edifices. At others it was stopped, smothered for the moment. Some of the nations abandoned the system of authority for the contract system. That is, they repudiated the theory of aristocratic or royal rights and adopted that of the rights of the nation. Other peoples, held to the earth by powerful hands, moved restlessly, but were unable to gain their feet.

England. Whig Ministry (1830). The Reform Bill (1831-1832). — The first Parliament which assembled at London after the French Revolution of 1830 overthrew the Tory ministry, despite its illustrious leader, the Duke of Wellington. The Whigs assumed the direction of affairs and introduced a Reform Bill which suppressed fifty-six rotten boroughs, gave representation to the towns which had none, and created a multitude of new electors by lowering the electoral requirement in the towns to a household franchise of ten pounds sterling. Thus the English reform was much more liberal than the French. Thus the number of electors was almost doubled. England alone then had more than 800,000. But we shall see in 1848 the