

1821, during one of the most violent tempests that had ever raged on the island—fitting time for the soul of Napoleon to take its departure. In his last moments his thoughts wandered to the scenes of his military glory, and his last words were those of command, as he fancied himself at the head of his armies.

54. After the capitulation of Paris, the tranquilization of France, and the future peace and safety of Europe, received the first attention of the allies. Louis XVIII. following in the rear of their armies, entered the capital on the 8th of July; but the French people felt too deeply the humiliation of defeat to express any joy at his restoration. The mournful tragedy which followed, in the execution of Marshal Ney and Labedoyère for high treason in favoring Napoleon's return from Elba, after the undoubted protection which had been guaranteed them by the capitulation of Paris, was a stain upon the character of the allies; and although Ney's treason was beyond that of any other man, to the end of the world his guilt will be forgotten in the broken faith of his enemies, and the tragic interest and noble heroism of his death. The fate of Murat, king of Naples, was equally mournful, but less unjust. On Napoleon's landing at Frejus he had made a diversion in his favor by breaking his alliance with Austria, and commencing the war; but the cowardly Neapolitans were easily overthrown, and Murat was obliged to seek refuge in France. At the head of a few followers he afterwards made a descent upon the coast of Naples, in the hope of regaining his power; but being seized, he was tried by a military commission, condemned, and executed.

55. On the 20th of November, 1815, the second treaty of Paris was concluded between France and the allied powers, by which the French frontier was narrowed to nearly the state in which it stood in 1790: twenty-eight million pounds sterling were to be paid by France for the expenses of the war, and a larger sum still for the

captain's summit is two thousand seven hundred and three feet in height. Jamestown, the port, and residence of the authorities, is the only town. Longwood, the residence of Napoleon, stands on the plateau, in the middle of an extensive park. After Napoleon's death the house was for some time uninhabited, but was finally converted into a kind of farming establishment; and recently, the room in which the conqueror of Austerlitz breathed his last was occupied as a cart-house and stable!

Napoleon arrived at St. Helena on the 13th of October, 1815, and there he expired on the 5th of May, 1821. His remains, after having been deposited for nineteen years in a humble grave near the house, were, in 1840, conveyed with great pomp and ceremony to France, where, agreeably to the wish expressed in his last will, they now repose, in the Hotel des Invalides, in Paris.

spoliations which she had inflicted on other powers during her Revolution, and for five years her frontier fortresses were to be placed in the hands of her recent enemies; while the vast treasures of art which adorned the museums of the Louvre—the trophies of a hundred victories—were to be restored to the States from which they had been pillaged by the orders of Napoleon. Mournfully the Parisians parted with these memorials of the glories of the consulate and the empire. The tide of conquest had now set against France herself.—her pride was broken—her humiliation complete—and the iron entered into the soul of the nation.

SECTION II.

FROM THE FALL OF NAPOLEON TO THE PRESENT TIME

I. THE PERIOD OF PEACE: 1815—1820.

ANALYSIS. [TREATIES OF 1815.] 1. Treaty between Russia, Prussia, Austria, and England. The "Holy Alliance." General accession to it.—2. Its authorship, objects, and effects.—3. Condition of Europe. Continued popular excitement, but change in its objects.

4. The social contest in ENGLAND. Prosperity of England during the war.—5. Disappointed expectations. Causes of a general revulsion. Scarcity, in 1816.—6. Other contributing causes—diminished supply of the precious metals, &c. Demands of the Radicals.—7. Policy of the English government. Reforms granted. Reported conspiracy.—8. Stringent measures of government. The meeting at Manchester. [Manchester.] Continued complaints. Government carries all its important measures.—9. The piratical States of Northern Africa. [Barbary.] The United States of America and Algiers.—10. Chastisement of Algiers by an English squadron, in 1816.—11. Importance of these events. Decline of the Ottoman empire.

12. Situation of FRANCE at the time of the second restoration. Change in public feeling against the Bonapartists and Republicans. Punishment of the Revolutionists demanded.—13. Religious and political feuds. Atrocities.—14. Demands, and acts, of the Chamber of Deputies of 1815. Singular position of parties.—15. Policy of the king and ministry, and *coup d'etat* (*Koo-dá-tah*) of Sept. 1816.—16. Effects of the new measures.

II. REVOLUTIONS IN SPAIN, PORTUGAL, NAPLES, PIEDMONT, GREECE, FRANCE, BELGIUM, AND POLAND: 1820—1831.

I. SPAIN. 1. Spain from 1815 to 1820. Grant of a constitution in 1820. The party opposed to it. Action taken by the European powers.—2. Interference of the French in 1823. Remainder of the reign of Ferdinand. The course of England and the United States of America.

II. PORTUGAL. 1. Situation of Portugal. Revolution of 1820. Opposition to, and suppression of, the new constitution. Anarchy.—2. Don Pedro. Don Miguel's usurpation. Civil war. Foreign interference, and restoration of tranquillity.

III. NAPLES. 1. History of the kingdom of Naples previous to 1815.—2. The subsequent rule of Ferdinand. Popular insurrection in July, 1820. Grant of a constitution. Revolution of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, to put down the constitution. [Troppau].—3. Conduct of Ferdinand. [Laybach.] An Austrian army suppresses the Revolution.

IV. PIEDMONT. 1. Account of the Sardinian monarchy. [Sardinia. Tessino] Feelings and

complaints of the Piedmontese.—2. Insurrection in Piedmont, March 1821. Success of the insurgents, and abdication of the king. Austrian interference suppresses the Revolution.

V. THE GREEK REVOLUTION. 1. History of Greece from 1481 to 1821. Proclamation of Grecian independence in 1821. Suppression of the Revolution in Northern Greece. [Islamism. Trieste.]—2. Beginning and spread of the Revolution in the Morea. Proclamation of the Messenian senate. [Kalamatia.] Aid extended to the Greeks.—3. Rage, and cruelties, of the Turks. Effects produced.—4. Events on the Asiatic coast, in Candia, Cypress, Rhodes, &c. Successes and retaliatory measures of the Greeks. [Monembasia. Navarino. Tripolizza.]—5. Defeat of the Turks at Thermopylae. The peninsula of Cassandra laid waste by them. [Cassandra.] The Turks driven from the country to the cities.

[1822.]—6. Acts of the Greek congress. [Epidaurus.] Dissensions and difficulties among the Greeks.—7. Principal military events of 1822. [Scio. Napoli di Romania.]—8. Destruction of Scio. Events in Southern Macedonia. [Salonica.]—8. Events in Western Greece. The Greek fire-ships. [Tenedos.] Great loss of Turkish vessels. Taking of Napoli di Romania.

[1823.]—9. Events of the war during the year 1823. [Missolonghi.] The poet Lord Byron. [1824.]—10. The Turks besiege Negropont, subdue Candia, reduce Ipsara, and attack Samos. The Egyptian fleet. [1825-6.]—11. Successes of Ibrahim Pacha in the Morea. Siege and fall of Missolonghi. [Salona.] Fate of the inhabitants of Missolonghi.—12. Danger apprehended from the successes of Ibrahim Pacha, and treaty of London, July 1827.—13. Allied squadron sent to the archipelago. Battle of Navarino. Rage of the Porte.—14. French and English army sent to the Morea, 1828. War between Russia and Turkey. [Pruthi.] Convention with Ibrahim Pacha. Successes of the Greeks. Retaliatory measures of the sultan.—15. Protocol of the allies, Jan. 1827. [Cyclades.] Successes of the Russians, and peace of Adrianople. [Balkan Mts.]—16. Unsettled condition of the country and its subsequent history.

VI. THE FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1830. 1. Beginning of the reign of Charles X. Principles of his government and opposition of the people. The Polignac ministry, 1829.—2. The royal speech at the opening of the Chambers in 1830. Effects. Reply of the Chambers. Dissolution of the Chambers.—3. War with Algiers.—4. Continued excitement in France. Result of the elections. Course pursued by the ministry. The three ordinances of July 26th. Accompanying report of the ministers.—5. The course pursued by the public journals. Excitement throughout Paris. Apathy of the king and ministers.—6. Events of the 27th. Marmont. Arming of the people.—7. On the 28th the riot assumes the aspect of a Revolution. The contest during the day. Its results.—8. Renewal of the contest on the third day. Defection of the troops of the line, and success of the revolution. Installation of a provisional government. Louis Philippe elected king.—9. Alarm of the continental sovereigns. The emperor of Russia, Charles X. and his ministers.

VII. BELGIUM. 1. Effects of the French Revolution upon Europe. Revolution in Belgium.—2. Vain attempts at reconciliation. Declaration of Belgian independence. Protocol of the five great European powers. Selection of a king. [Saxe-Coburg, Gotha.] Siege and surrender of Antwerp. Prosperity of Belgium.

VIII. POLISH REVOLUTION. 1. Disposition made of Poland by the congress of Vienna. Alexander's arbitrary government of Poland.—2. The government of Poland under the emperor Nicholas. Character of Constantine. Effect of his barbarities. Secret societies. [Volhynia.]—3. Revolutionary outbreak at Warsaw, Nov. 1830. A general rising in Warsaw. The provisional government.—4. Fruitless attempts to negotiate. Russian and Polish forces. Opening events of the war.—5. Night attacks and rout of the Russians. [Bug River.] Conduct of Prussia and Austria.—6. Battle of Ostrolenka. [Minsk. Ostrolenka.] Death of Diebitsch and Constantine. Conspiracy at Warsaw.—7. Dissensions among the Poles. Fall of Warsaw and end of the war. Fate of the Polish generals, soldiers, and nobility. Result.

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II. FRENCH REVOLUTION OF 1848. 1. Most important events of the reign of Louis Philippe.—2. Lafayette's instrumentality in his election. Anomalous and difficult position of Louis Philippe. The temporary success of his government.—3. Discontent of the middle and lower classes.—4. The political reform banquets of 1847-8. The contemplated banquet for the 22d of Feb., 1848,—forbidden by the government. Measures taken by the opposition deputies.—5. Announcement of the postponement of the banquet. Popular assemblage dispersed. Disturbances in the evening of the 22d.—6. Renewed disturbances on the morning of the 23d. Demands of the National Guards acceded to. The people fired upon in the evening.—7. A Thiers' ministry organized. Proclamation on the morning of the 24th, and withdrawal of the troops. Disarming of the troops, abdication of the king, pillage of the palace, and flight of the king and ministers.—8. Meeting of the Chamber of Deputies. Adoption of a Republic.—9. M. Lamartine. General adhesion to the new government.—10. The Moderate and the Red Republicans. Their respective principles. Demands upon the government.—11. Antipathies of the two sections of the Republican party. Popular demonstrations. The April elections. The executive committee.—12. Insurrection of the 15th of May. Its suppression.—13. Precautionary measures of the government. Insurrection of June—suppressed after a bloody contest.—14. Cavaignac chief executive. Treatment of the insurgent prisoners. Adoption, and character of, the new constitution.

III. REVOLUTIONS IN THE GERMAN STATES, PRUSSIA, AND AUSTRIA. 1. Effects of the recent French Revolution upon the German States. Events in Baden.—2. Events at Cologne, Munich, and Hesse-Cassel. [Hanau. Hesse-Cassel.]—3. Convention at Heidelberg. [Heidelberg.] Action of the Frankfort diet. Course of Frederick William of Prussia. Saxony and Hanover. Revolt of Sleswick and Holstein.

4. Excitement in Vienna, caused by the Revolution in Paris. [Galicia. Metternich.]—5. Opening of the diet of Lower Austria. Commotions and bloodshed.—6. Concessions of the government, and triumph of the people.—7. Efforts of government to fulfil its promises. Difficulties that intervened. Rule of the mob. Flight, and return, of the emperor. [Inspruck.] 8. Demands of the Bohemians. A Slavic Congress. Bombardment of Prague, and termination of the Bohemian Revolution.—9. Hungary at this period. Revolt of the Croats, who are supported by Austria. [Hungary. Croatia.] Second Revolution in Vienna. Flight of the emperor. [Olmutz.] Siege and surrender of Vienna.—10. The Hungarian army during the siege.—11. Character of the second Revolution in Vienna. Reaction in the popular mind, and triumph of despotism.

IV. REVOLUTIONS IN ITALY. 1. Austrian influence and interference in Italian affairs since the fall of Napoleon. [Modena. Parma. Papal States.]—2. Election of Pope Pius IX. in 1846. His character and acts. Austria interferes [Ferrara.] A general rising against Austria. Withdrawal of Austrian troops. [Bologna. Lucca.]—3. Austrian force in Lombardy. General insurrection throughout Austrian Italy. Charles Albert of Sardinia espouses the cause of Italian nationality. Final triumph of the Austrians under Radetsky. An armistice.—4. Renewal of the war—second triumph of Radetsky, and abdication of Charles Albert.—5. Blockade and fall of Venice.—6. Revolution in Naples. [Kingdom of Naples.] War with, and final reduction of, the Sicilians. [Palermo.]—7. Difficulties of the pope.—8. His growing unpopularity and flight. [Gaeta.] The Roman Republic instituted.—9. The pope's appeal for aid—how responded to.—10. Reduction of Rome by the French army. Return of the pope. The change in him and his people.

V. HUNGARIAN WAR. 1. Immediate cause of the second Revolution in Vienna. Hungarian and Croatian war.—2. Historical account of the Magyars. [Theiss.] Character of the Hungarian government.—3. Repeated acknowledgments of its independence.—4. Ferdinand the Fifth. His means of influence,—and Austrian control over the government of the Hungarians. The two parties in Hungary.—5. Concessions to Hungary in March, 1848. [Pesth.]—6. Anarchy and misrule in Hungary.—7. A more alarming danger to Hungary. Her population. Revolt of Croatia. [Slavonians.] The Serbian revolt. [Serbs.] Actual beginning of the war on the part of Hungary. [Carlowitz. Peterwardein. The Banat.] Austria openly supports the Croatian rebellion.—8. Action of the Hungarian Diet. Defeat of Jellachich near Pesth.—9.

Character, and situation, of Ferdinand, who abdicates the throne. The Hungarian Diet refuses to acknowledge his successor. Failure of the attempt at negotiations.—10. Defection of several of the Hungarian leaders,—but general adherence to Kossuth and the country. Want of arms—but partially supplied. Hungarian force.—11. Austrian plan of invasion. Austrians enter Pesth, Jan. 1849, and the government retires to Debreczin. Concentration of the Hungarian force. General Bem. [Debreczin. Comorn. Eperies. Bukowina.]—12. Loss of Esseck. Bem's first repulse. His final successes. [Esseck. Wallachs. Hermannstadt. Cronstadt. Temeswar.]—13. Dembinski. Operations in the valley of the Theiss. [Szegedin. Maros. Kápolna &c.] Battles of Kápolna.—14. Gorgey. His victories over the Austrians. [Tapiobiaske. Godollo. Waitzen. Nagy Sarlo.] Siege of Buda. [Buda.]—15. Constitution for the Austrian empire. Declaration of Hungarian independence. Kossuth governor of Hungary.—16. Austrian and Russian preparations for a second campaign. The Hungarian forces.—17. Invasion of Hungary in June. [Presburg. Bartfeld.]—18. Gradual concentration of the enemies of Hungary. [Hegyés.] Barbarities of Haynau.—19. Gorgey's retreat to Arad. [Onod. Tokay. Arad.] Want of concert among the Hungarian generals.—20. Retreat of Dembinski. Defeat at Temeswar, and breaking up of the southern Hungarian army. Gorgey's failure to support Dembinski. His suspected fidelity. Supreme power conferred upon him.—21. Gorgey's treason, and surrender of his army, Aug. 13th, 1849.—22. Previous successes of the Hungarians in the vicinity of Comorn. [Raab.] Surrender of Comorn, Sept. 29th.—23. Fate of Kossuth, Bem, Dembinski, &c. [Widdin.]—24. The closing tragedy of the Hungarian war. Fate of the inferior officers, Hungarian soldiers, &c.

VI. USURPATION OF LOUIS NAPOLEON. 1. Election of a chief magistrate in France in 1845. The six candidates. Cavaignac, and Louis Napoleon. Election of the latter. Inauguration and oath of office.—2. History of Louis Napoleon down to the period of his election. [Fortress of Ham.]—3. His declaration of principles. Jealousy of him. Parties in the Assembly.—4. Want of confidence between the President and Assembly. Acts of the Assembly.—5. Proposed revision of the constitution.—6. President's message of November 1851. Increasing animosity of the Assembly against the President.—7. An approaching crisis,—how anticipated by Louis Napoleon. Circumstances of the *coup d'état* of December 2d.—8. Meeting, and arrest, of members of the Assembly. The public press. Decree for an election. Insurrection of December 4th, suppressed by the military.—9. Result of the elections of December. The new constitution. Louis Napoleon President for ten years. Assumes the title of emperor.

I. THE PERIOD OF PEACE: 1815—1820.

1. On the day of the signing of the treaty of Paris, another was concluded between Russia, Prussia, Austria, and England, designed as a measure of security for the allied powers, and declaring that Napoleon Bonaparte *and his family* should be forever excluded from the throne of France. On the same day a third treaty, of notorious celebrity, called "The Holy Alliance," was subscribed by the emperors of Russia and Austria, and the king of Prussia, who bound themselves, "in conformity with the principles of Holy Scripture,—to lend each other every aid, assistance, and succor, on every occasion." This treaty was ere long acceded to by nearly all the continental powers as parties to the compact, although the ruling prince of England declined signing it, on the ground that the British constitution prevented him from becoming a party to any convention that was not countersigned by a responsible minister.

2. The terms of the Holy Alliance were drawn by the young Russian emperor Alexander, whose enthusiastic benevolence prompted him to devise a plan of a common international law that should substitute the peaceful reign of the Gospel in place of the rude empire of the sword. But the law of the Holy Alliance, although beneficent in its origin, was to be interpreted by absolute monarchs: as it was evident that its only active principle would be the maintenance of despotic power, under the mask of piety and religion, it was justly regarded with dread and jealousy by the liberal party throughout Europe, and was in reality made a convenient pretext for enforcing the doctrine of passive obedience, and resisting all efforts for the establishment of constitutional freedom.

3. The treaties of 1815 both closed the ascendancy of imperial France in Europe, and terminated, for a time at least, the revolutionary movements in the civilized world. Twenty-five years of war had exhausted the treasures of Europe, and covered her soil with mourning, and never before had the sweets of repose been so eagerly coveted by rulers and people. But although the nations had tired of the mingled horrors and glories of military strife, the excitement occasioned by the revolutionary wars continued, and, for want of other channels of action, seized hold of the social passions of the masses: military gave place to democratic ambition—the old ante-revolutionary contest between despotism and democracy revived,—to be followed by other revolutions still, until one or the other principle shall triumph—until, in the language of Napoleon, Europe shall become either Cossack or Republican.

4. In England, the social contest, wearing a milder aspect than on the continent, displayed itself in the legal strife for government relief and parliamentary reforms. During a long and expensive war, England had enjoyed extraordinary domestic prosperity: since the year 1792 her population had increased more than four millions, notwithstanding the absorption of five hundred thousand men in the army and navy: the exports, imports, and tonnage, of the kingdom, had more than doubled since the war began; and although the public debt had grown to an enormous amount, agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, had gone on increasing, during the whole struggle, in an unparallelled ratio.

5. It was confidently anticipated, not only by the ardent and enthusiastic, but also by the prudent and sagacious, that when the enormous expenss of the war establishment should be removed, and

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peace had thrown open the ports of all Europe to the enterprise of British merchants, the tide of national prosperity would rise still higher and higher; but never were hopes more cruelly disappointed. Exports, to an enormous amount, being suddenly thrown into countries impoverished by war, glutted the foreign market; and the consignments, in most instances, were sold for little more than half their original cost—spreading ruin throughout the commercial interests. Moreover, the opening of the European and American ports for the supplies of grain, glutted the home market of England; and prices of every species of agricultural produce soon fell to two-thirds of what they had been during the closing scenes of the war: a season of unusual scarcity, in 1816, threatening a famine, increased the general distress, which, like a pall of gloom, enshrouded the whole kingdom.

6. Other causes, in addition to those originating in the mere transition from a state of war to one of peace, doubtless contributed to the general revulsion in business, among which may be mentioned, as the most prominent, the greatly diminished supply of the precious metals from South America,^a owing to the unsettled state of that country then occupied with revolutionary wars, and the rapid contraction of the paper currency of Great Britain, in anticipation of a speedy return to specie payments. But the English Radical or Republican party attributed the difficulties to excessive taxation and the measures of a corrupt government; and a vehement outcry was raised for parliamentary reform, and retrenchment in all branches of public expenditure.

7. The English government, wiser than the continental powers, has ever had the prudence to make reasonable concessions to reasonable popular demands, before the spark of discontent has been blown into the blaze of revolution; and now, after a spirited contest, a heavy property tax, that had been patiently submitted to as a necessary war measure, was repealed, amid the universal transports of the people: the remission of other taxes followed, and, in one year, a reduction of thirty-five million pounds sterling was made from the national expenditure, although strongly opposed by the ministry. Still the distress continued; the popular feeling against the government increased; numerous secret political societies were organized among the disaffected; and early in the following year (1817) a com-

^a. From 1815 to 1816 the amount of gold and silver coin produced from the mines of South America fell from about seven million pounds sterling to five and a half million pounds.

mittee of parliament reported that an extensive conspiracy existed, chiefly in the great towns and manufacturing districts, for the overthrow of the monarchy, and the establishment of a republic in its stead.

8. In consequence of the information, greatly exaggerated, which had been communicated to the committee, ministers were enabled to carry through parliament bills for suspending the privileges of the writ of habeas corpus, and for suppressing tumultuous meetings, debating societies, and all unlawful organizations. Armed with extensive powers, government took the most active measures for putting a stop to the threatened insurrection: a few mobs were suppressed; many persons were arrested on a charge of high treason; and several were convicted, and suffered death. In 1819 a large and peaceable meeting at Manchester,¹ assembled to discuss the question of parliamentary reforms, was charged by the military, and many lives inhumanly sacrificed; but all attempts in parliament for an inquiry into the conduct of the Manchester magistrates, under whose orders the military had acted, were defeated. Although the people still justly complained of grievous burdens of taxation, and unequal representation in parliament, those evils were not so oppressive as to induce them to incur the hazards of revolution; and government, having yielded to the point where danger was past, was sufficiently strong to carry all its important measures.

9. An event of general interest that occurred soon after the close of the European war was the merited chastisement of the piratical State of Algiers. During a long period the Barbary² powers had carried on a piratical warfare against those nations that were not sufficiently powerful to prevent or punish their depredations. From the year 1795 to 1812 the United States of America had preserved peace with Algiers by the payment of an annual tribute; but in the latter year the Dey, believing that the war with England would render the Americans unable to protect their commerce in the Mediterranean, commenced a piratical warfare against all American vessels that fell in the way of his cruisers. In the month of June 1815, an American squadron, under the command of Commodore Decatur, being sent

1. *Manchester*, the great centre of the cotton manufacture of Great Britain, and the greatest manufacturing town in the world, is situated on the Irwell, an affluent of the Mersey, thirty-one miles east from Liverpool. (*Map No. XVI.*)

2. *Barbary* is the name that has been usually given, in modern times, to that portion of northern Africa bordering on the Mediterranean, and lying between the western frontier of Egypt and the Atlantic. The name *Barbary* is derived from that of its ancient inhabitants, the *Berbers*.

to the Mediterranean, after capturing several Algerine vessels, compelled Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis, to release all American prisoners in their possession, pay large sums of money, and relinquish all future claims to tribute from the United States.

10. In the following year, the continued piracies of the Algerines upon some of the smaller European States that claimed the protection of England, induced the British government to send out a powerful squadron, with directions to obtain from the Dey unqualified abolition of Christian slavery, or, in case of refusal, to destroy, if possible, the nest of pirates whose tolerance had so long been a disgrace to Christendom. On the 27th of August the British fleet, commanded by Lord Exmouth, appeared before Algiers, whose fortifications, admirably constructed, and of the hardest stone, were defended by nearly five hundred cannon and forty thousand men. No answer being returned to the demands of the British government, the attack was commenced in the afternoon of the same day; and although the defence was most spirited, by ten in the evening all the fortifications that defended the approaches by sea were totally ruined, while the shot and shells had carried destruction and death throughout the city. On the following morning the Dey submitted, agreeing to abolish Christian slavery forever, and immediately restoring twelve hundred captives to their country and friends. The total number liberated at Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis, was more than three thousand.

11. The humiliation of the piratical Barbary powers by the Americans in 1815, and the battle of Algiers in the following year, were events highly important to the general interests of humanity, not only from their immediate results, but as the beginning of the decisive ascendancy of the Christian over the Mohammedan world. Former triumphs of the cross over the crescent had averted subjugation from Christendom, or had been obliterated by subsequent disasters; but since the battle of Algiers, the followers of the prophet have seen, and mournfully submitted to, their destiny; Algiers has since become a province of a Christian State; and the Ottoman empire is only saved from dissolution by the jealousies of its Christian neighbors.

12. The situation of France at the time of the second restoration of Louis XVIII., with a vast foreign army quartered upon her people, an empty treasury, and an unsettled government, was gloomy in the extreme. With a vacillation peculiar

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to the French people, public opinion had already turned against the Bonapartists and the Republicans, who were regarded as the authors of all the evils under which the nation suffered; and the king soon found himself seriously embarrassed by the ardor of his own friends. Punishment of the Revolutionists, and a restoration of the powers and privileges of the nobility and the clergy, were violently demanded by the Royalists; but, fortunately, the extreme danger of any violent reactionary movement was too manifest to permit the king to intrust the government to the ultraists of his own party.

13. Had it not been for the presence of a large foreign army France might again have been doomed to the horrors of civil war: as it was, the party feuds of centuries between the Roman Catholics and Protestants, revived by the embittered feelings of the moment, broke forth anew in the south of France: the Royalists demanded vengeance against the Republicans; and political zeal combined with religious enthusiasm to arouse the worst passions of the people, and incited to numerous massacres, which recalled the memory of the bloodiest period of the Revolution. Although the king denounced these atrocities, and called upon the magistrates to bring the guilty parties to justice, the latter were screened from arrest, or, if taken, were acquitted in face of the clearest evidence of their guilt.

14. The Chamber of Deputies, at its first meeting, in the autumn of 1815, urgently demanded of the king that those "who had imperilled alike the throne and the nation should be delivered over to the just severity of the tribunals:" stringent laws were passed punishing seditious words; courts martial were established for trying political offences; and when the king, after the execution of Ney, Labeledoyère, and a few others, proposed a general amnesty, the chamber had prepared, and demanded the proscription of, a list of twelve hundred additional victims; and in order to secure the amnesty the king was compelled, against his inclination for moderate measures, to assent to an amendment providing for the perpetual banishment of all those who had voted for the death of his brother, the unfortunate Louis XVI. France presented the singular spectacle of an ascendant Royalist party arrayed in opposition to the king, who, in order to check their undue zeal, was compelled to ally himself with the Republicans, the natural enemies of his cause.

15. Although the ultra Royalists controlled the action of the legislature, there was still a powerful party of ultra Revolutionists among the people; and it was the policy of the king and his ministry

to guard against the danger of the ascendancy of either, by conforming to the general principles which the Revolution had impressed upon the nation. As the legislative body continually thwarted the government, it was determined to alter the composition of the representatives by a *coup d'état*, or arbitrary ordinance of the king; and accordingly, on the 5th of September, 1816, a royal ordinance was published, which dissolved the Chamber of Deputies, arbitrarily diminished the number of representatives, and secured the election of a majority of those who were attached to the measures of the ministerial party.

16. The royal ordinance of September, although conferring the right of suffrage upon only one hundred thousand out of thirty millions of the population of France, was far more democratic than accorded with the wishes of the Royalists, who feared that the new representatives, chosen mostly from the middle classes of landed proprietors, would incline towards a republican form of government, under which they might most effectually secure their own rights, and divide among themselves the honors and emoluments of office.^a And such, indeed, was the result. The electoral law proclaimed by the king, and the subsequent creation^b of a large body of peers taken from the Liberals and Bonapartists, soon placed the control of government in the hands of the democratic party, which was naturally antagonistic to the power which had given it influence; but the Royalists, who at the restoration had seemed the ruling party, were unwilling to resign the control of the government; and the struggle continued to increase in violence between them and the Liberals, until it finally resulted in the Revolution of 1830, and the overthrow of the monarchy.

II. REVOLUTIONS IN SPAIN, PORTUGAL, NAPLES, PIEDMONT GREECE, FRANCE, BELGIUM, AND POLAND: 1820—1831.

I. SPAIN. 1. During the period of general peace, from 1815 to 1820, Spain, under the rule of the restored Ferdinand, was in a state of constant political agitation; and in 1820 an insurrection of the soldiery compelled the king to restore to his subjects the free and almost republican constitution of 1812. The Republicans, however,

a. By the ordinance of Sept. 5th, 1816, the right of suffrage was established on the basis of the payment of three hundred francs direct taxes to the government.

b. March 5th, 1819.

who thus obtained the direction of the government, showed little wisdom or moderation; and a large party, directed by the monks and friars, and supported by the lower ranks of the populace, was formed for the restoration of the monarchy. Several of the European powers, in a congress held at Verona, adopted a resolution to support the authority of the king in opposition to the constitution which he had granted; but England stood aloof, and to France was intrusted the execution of the odious measure of suppressing democratic principles in Spain.

2. Accordingly, early in the year 1823, a French army of a hundred thousand men, under the command of the Duke d'Angoulême, entered Spain: the patriots made but a feeble resistance, and the king was soon restored to absolute authority, on the ruins of the constitution. The remainder of the reign of Ferdinand, who died in 1833, was characterized by the complete suppression of all liberal principles in politics and religion, and the revival of the ancient abuses which had so long disgraced the Spanish monarchy. England and the United States severely censured the interference of France in the domestic affairs of the Spanish nation, and showed their sympathy with the cause of the oppressed by recognizing, at as early a period as possible, the independence of the Spanish South American republics, which had recently renounced their allegiance to Spain.

II. PORTUGAL. 1. The adjoining kingdom of Portugal was a prey to similar commotions. The emigration of the king and court to Brazil during the peninsular war, has already been mentioned, (p. 488.) The nation being dissatisfied with the continued residence of the court in Brazil, which in fact made Portugal a dependency of the latter, and desiring some fundamental changes in the frame of government, at length in August 1820 a revolution broke out, and a free constitution was soon after established, having for its basis the abolition of privileges, the legal equality of all classes, the freedom of the press, and the formation of a representative body in the national legislature. This constitution, being violently opposed by the clergy and privileged classes, who formed what was called the apostolical party, at the head of whom was Don Miguel, the king's younger son, was suppressed in 1823, and a state of anarchy continued until the death of the king in 1826, when the crown fell to Don Pedro, emperor of Brazil.

2. Don Pedro, however, resigned his right in favor of his infant daughter Donna Maria, at the same time granting to Portugal a

constitutional charter, and appointing his brother Don Miguel regent. Although the latter took an oath of fidelity to the charter, he soon began openly to aspire to the throne, and by means of an artful priesthood caused himself, in 1829, to be proclaimed sovereign of Portugal, while the charter was denounced as inconsistent with the purity of the Roman faith. The friends of the charter, aided by Don Pedro, who repaired to Europe to assert the rights of his daughter, organized a resistance, and after a sanguinary struggle during which they were once driven into exile, they obtained the promise of support from France, Spain, and England, who in 1834 entered into a convention to expel the younger brother from the Portuguese territories. Soon after, Don Miguel gave up his pretensions, and the young queen was placed upon the throne, since which time the country has remained comparatively tranquil.

III. NAPLES. 1. The kingdom of Naples, embracing Sicily and southern Italy, nearly identical with the Magna Græcia of antiquity had been erected into an independent monarchy in 1734, under the Infante Don Carlos of Spain, who took the name of Charles III. It continued under a succession of tyrannical or imbecile rulers of the Bourbon dynasty till 1798: the Italian portion of the kingdom was then overrun by the French, who held it from 1803 till 1815, when it reverted to its former sovereign Ferdinand, who, during the French rule, had maintained his court in the Sicilian part of his kingdom.

2. Under the rule of Ferdinand, popular education was wholly neglected; the roads, bridges, and other public works which the French had either planned or executed, were left unfinished, or fell into decay; and yet the people were oppressively taxed, and a representative government was denied them. At length, on the 2d of July, 1820, the growing discontents of the people broke out in open insurrection, and a remonstrance was sent to the government demanding a representative constitution. One based on the Spanish constitution of 1812 was immediately granted, and the Neapolitan parliament was opened on the 1st of October following; but on the same month a convention of the three crowned heads who formed the Holy Alliance, attended by ministers from most of the other European powers, met at Troppau;¹ and it was there resolved by the

1. *Troppau*, the capital of Austrian Silesia, is situated on the Oppa, a tributary of the Oder, thirty-seven miles north-east from Olmutz. From 20th October to 20th November, 1820, it was the place of meeting of the diplomatic congress, which afterwards removed to Laybach. (*Map No. XVII.*)

sovereigns of Russia, Austria, and Prussia, to put down the Neapolitan constitution by force of arms.

3. France approved the measure, but the British cabinet remained neutral. The old king Ferdinand, who had been invited to visit the sovereigns at Laybach,¹ was easily convinced that his promises had been extorted, and therefore were not binding; and Austrian troops immediately prepared to execute the resolutions of the congress, while the aid of a Russian army was promised, if necessary. An Austrian force of forty-three thousand men entered the Neapolitan territory, heralded by a proclamation from Ferdinand, calling his subjects to receive the invaders as friends. A few slight skirmishes took place, but the country was quickly overrun; foreign troops garrisoned the fortresses; the king's promise of complete amnesty was forgotten; and courts martial and executions closed the brief drama of the Neapolitan Revolution.

IV. PIEDMONT. 1. Piedmont is the principal province of the Sardinian monarchy;² and the latter, first recognized as a separate kingdom by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, comprises the whole of northern Italy west of the Tessino,³ together with the island of Sardinia in the Mediterranean. The Piedmontese, never considering themselves properly as Italians, had been proud of their annexation to France under the rule of Napoleon; and on the restoration of the monarchy they were the first of the Sardinian people to exhibit the liberal principles of the French Revolutionists, and to complain of the oppressive exactions imposed upon them by the government.

2. Scarcely had the Neapolitan Revolution been suppressed, when an insurrection, beginning with the military, broke out in Piedmont. On the 10th of March, 1821, several regiments of troops simultaneously mutinied; and it is believed that the malcontents were secretly favored by Charles Albert, a kinsman of the royal family, who

1. *Laybach*, the capital of Austrian Illyria, (which latter embraces the duchies of Carinthia and Carniola,) is situated on a navigable stream, a tributary of the Save, fifty-four miles north-east from Trieste. It is celebrated in diplomatic history for the congress held here in 1821. (*Map No. XVII.*)

2. *Sardinia* (Kingdom of) embraces the territory of Piedmont, Genoa, and Nice, and the adjacent duchy of Savoy on the west side of the Alps, together with the island of Sardinia. Savoy, which was governed by its own counts as early as the tenth century, was the nucleus of this monarchy. Genoa was annexed to the Sardinian crown at the peace of 1815. (*Map No. XVII.*)

3. The *Tessino* or *Ticino* (anciently *Ticinus*, see p. 152,) having its sources in Mount St. Gothard, flows southward, and after traversing the Lago Maggiore in its entire length, and forming the boundary between Lombardy and Piedmont, falls into the Po at Pav'ia. (*Map No. XVII.*)

afterwards became king of Sardinia. The seizure of the citadel of Turin, on the 12th, was followed, on the 13th, by the abdication of the king Victor Emanuel, in favor of his absent brother Charles Felix, and the appointment of Prince Albert as regent. While efforts were made to organize a government, an Austrian army was assembled in Lombardy to put down the Revolution: the new king repudiated the acts of the regent, who threw himself on the Austrians for protection: on the 8th of April the insurgents were overthrown in battle; and on the 10th the combined royal and Austrian troops were in possession of the whole country. In Piedmont, as in Naples, Austrian interference, ever exerted on the side of tyranny, suppressed every germ of constitutional freedom.

V. THE GREEK REVOLUTION. 1. In the year 1481, Greece, the early and favored seat of art, science, and literature, was conquered by the Turks, after a sanguinary contest of more than forty years. The Venetians, however, were not disposed to allow its new masters quiet possession of the country; and during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries it was the theatre of obstinate wars between them and the Turks, which continued till 1718, when the Turks were confirmed in their conquest by treaty. Although the Turks and Greeks never became one nation, and the relation of conquerors and con-

quered never ceased, yet the Turkish rule was quietly submitted to until 1821, when, according to previous arrangements, on the 7th of March Alexander Ypsilanti, a Greek, and then a major-general in the Russian army, proclaimed, from Moldavia, the independence of Greece, at the same time assuring his countrymen of the aid of Russia in the approaching contest. But the Russian emperor declined intervention; the Porte took the most rigorous measures against the Greeks, and called upon all Mussulmen to arm against the rebels for the protection of Islamism: the wildest fanaticism raged in Constantinople, where hundreds of the resident Greeks were remorselessly murdered; and in Moldavia the bloody struggle was terminated with the annihilation of the patriot army and the flight of Ypsilanti to Trieste,² where the Austrian government seized and imprisoned him.

1. *Islamism*, from the Arabic word *salama*, "to be free, safe, or devoted to God," is the term which the followers of Mahomet apply to their religion. The term "Mohammedanism" is as objectionable as the term "popery."

2. *Trieste*, a seaport town of Austrian Illyria, is near the north-eastern extremity of the Adriatic, seventy-three miles north-east from Venice. During the middle ages Trieste was the capital of a small republic. (Map No. XVII.)

2. In southern Greece no cruelties could quench the fire of liberty and sixteen days after the proclamation of Ypsilanti the Revolution of the Morea began at Suda, a large village in the northern part of Achaia, where eighty Turks were made prisoners. The revolution rapidly spread over the Morea and the islands of the Ægean: the ancient names were revived; and on the 6th of April the Messenian senate, assembled at Kalamatia,¹ proclaimed that Greece had shaken off the Turkish yoke to save the Christian faith, and restore the ancient character of the country. From that time the Greeks found friends wherever free principles were cherished; and from England and the United States large contributions of clothing and provisions were forwarded to relieve the sufferings inflicted by the wanton atrocities of the Turks.

3. The rage of the Turks was particularly directed against the Greek clergy, many of whom were murdered, among them the aged patriarchs of Constantinople and Adrianople; and several hundred of the Greek churches were torn down, while the Christian ambassadors of neutral powers in vain remonstrated with the Turkish divan. These excesses, and the massacre of those whom the Turks took in arms, showed to the Greeks that the struggle in which they had engaged was one of life and death; and it is not surprising, therefore, that the Greeks often retaliated when the power was in their hands.

4. During the summer months the Turks committed great depredations among the Greek towns on the coast of Asia Minor: the inhabitants of the island of Candia, who had taken no part in the insurrection, were disarmed, and the archbishops, and many of the priests, executed: in Cyprus, where also there had been no appearances of insurrection, the Greeks were disarmed, and their archbishop and other prelates murdered. The most barbarous atrocities were also committed at Rhodes, and other islands of the Grecian Archipelago, where the villages were burned, and the country desolated. But when in August the Greeks captured the strong Turkish fortresses of Monembasia² and Navarino,³ and in October that of Tripolitza,⁴

1. *Kalamatia* is near the head of the Messenian Gulf, now called the Gulf of Kalamatia. Its ancient name was *Calamæ*. It is east of the Pamisus river—now the Pamitza. (Map No. I.)

2. The fortress of *Monembasia* is in the vicinity of the ancient Epidaurus, on the eastern coast of Laconia, forty-three miles south-east from Sparta. (Map No. I.)

3. *Navarino* is on the western coast of Messenia, near the ancient Pylus. It stands on the south side of a fine semi-circular bay of the same name, cut off from the sea by the long narrow island of Sphagia—anciently *Sphacteria*. (Map No. I.)

4. *Tripolitza*, a town of modern origin, and, under the Turks, the capital of the Morea, is about five miles north of *Tegea*, in the ancient Arcadia. Its name *Tripolitza*, "the three