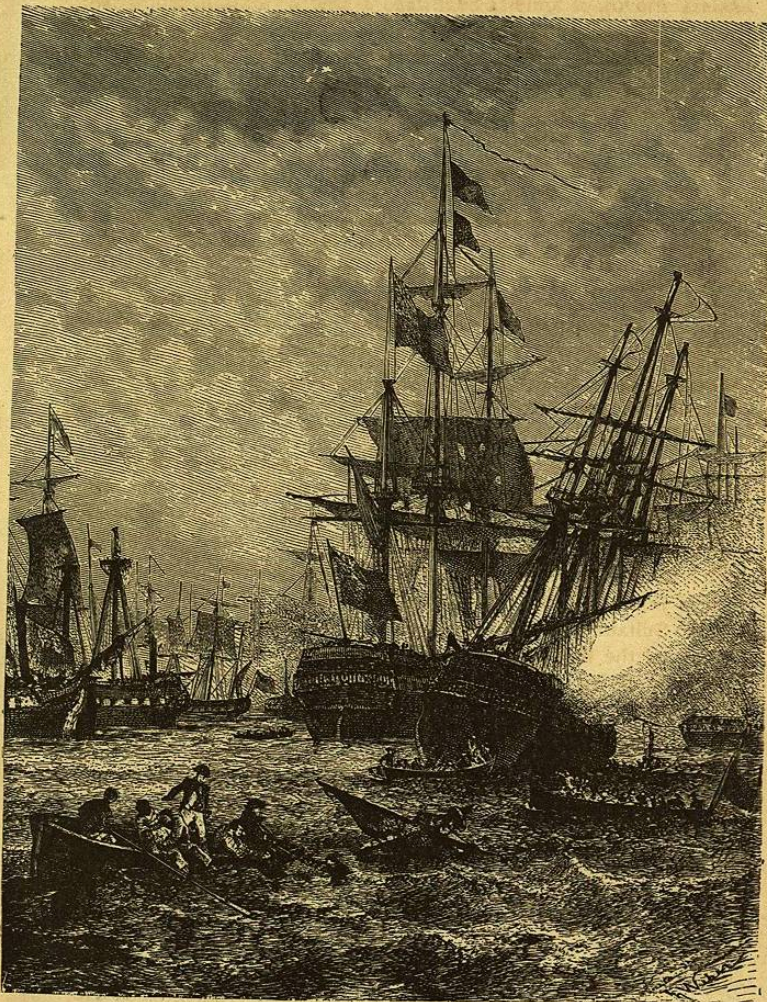


## CHAPTER VII.

India.—Lord Mornington Governor-General.—Arthur Wellesley.—War with Tippoo.—Capture of Seringapatam.—Bonaparte in Egypt.—March to Syria.—Jaffa.—Siege of Acre.—Battle of Aboukir.—Bonaparte hears of the defeats of the French.—He leaves Egypt and arrives in Paris.—The French Directory.—Revolution of the Eighteenth Brumaire.—Overthrow of the Directory by Bonaparte.—British Expedition to Holland.—New Constitution in France.—Bonaparte First Consul.—The First Consul's letter to the King.—Lord Grenville's hostile answer.—High price of Corn in England.—Distress and Riots.—Injudicious attempts to regulate prices.—Bonaparte's civil administration.—He assumes the state of a sovereign.—Italy.—Bonaparte takes the command of the army.—The Campaign.—Battle of Marengo.—Campaign under Moreau in Germany.—Peace of Luneville.

BONAPARTE was shut up in Egypt. To conquer the country,—to establish a sovereignty that might ultimately make him the master of India,—was a project of romantic grandeur. But its immediate realization had become an impossibility. The battle of the Nile had dissipated some of these dreams. Nevertheless, on the 26th of January, 1799, Bonaparte addressed a letter from Cairo to Tippoo Sultaun: "You have been informed of my arrival on the borders of the Red Sea, with an innumerable and invincible army, full of the desire of releasing and relieving you from the iron yoke of England." Within a few months from the date of this letter, Tippoo was slain in the defence of Seringapatam, and his kingdom of Mysore came to an end.

Sir John Shore, afterwards lord Teignmouth, succeeded earl Cornwallis in the government of India. During his administration the two sons of Tippoo, who had been taken as hostages for the due performance of their father's engagements, were given up, however doubtful might have been the continued amity of the Sultaun. In 1798, lord Teignmouth was succeeded by lord Mornington, afterwards created marquis Wellesley. At the head of the Indian government was now a man of splendid abilities, and of vigour of character well fitted for action in any great crisis. He had a sound adviser, not only in military affairs, but in political, in his younger brother, Arthur Wellesley, then in his thirtieth year, who held the rank of colonel. The "Supplementary Dispatches," edited by the present duke of Wellington, exhibit very strikingly how, at a very early period of his great career, the mind



THE BATTLE OF ABOUKIR. — Vol. vii. 132.

of this remarkable man was formed to embrace the largest views with the closest attention to the most minute detail. From his arrival in India as the colonel of an infantry regiment in 1797, to his acceptance of a responsible command in 1799, we may trace the same qualities which, more than any other man, fitted him for an encounter with the genius of Bonaparte. Arthur Wellesley's regiment, the 33rd, formed part of an army assembled at Vellore, in November, 1798, under the command of general Harris. Lord Mornington had endeavoured, without effect, to detach Tippoo from the dangerous influence of the agents of the French government. The language of the Governor-General was conciliatory, but it was firm. His proposal to negotiate was met by evasions. Tippoo continued to rely upon the assistance of the French. "The providence of God, and the victorious arms of the British nation, frustrated his vain hopes, and checked the presumptuous career of the French in Egypt, at the moment when he anxiously expected their arrival on the coast of Malabar."\* He rejected every pacific overture. General Harris accordingly entered the Mysore territory on the 5th of March, 1799. The ally of the English, the Nizam of the Deccan, sent a large contingent to join the army; and this force, to which the 33rd regiment was attached, was placed under the command of colonel Wellesley. † The novelty, no less than the magnitude, of these operations, appears to have impressed the young commander of the Nizam's army with a feeling of wonder which inexperience is not ashamed to display. The British grand army and the Nizam's army marched in two columns parallel to each other. "The march of these two armies was almost in the form of a square or oblong, of which the front and rear were formed of cavalry, and about two or three miles in extent; the right and left (owing to the immense space taken up in the column by field-pieces, drawn by bullocks), about six or seven miles. In this square went everything belonging to the army. . . . You will have some idea of what there was in that space when I state to you the number of bullocks that I know were in the public service." These he computes at sixty thousand. The Nizam's army had twenty-five thousand bullocks loaded with grain; besides elephants, camels, bullocks, carts, belonging to individuals, beyond all calculation. "You may have some idea of the thing when I tell you that, when all were together, there was a multitude in motion which covered eighteen square miles." † The Bombay army joined these two moving multitudes; and after sev-

\* Declaration of the Governor-General in Council, 22nd February, 1799.

† "Supplementary Dispatches," vol. i. p. 240.

eral encounters with the forces of Tippoo, the united armies had taken up a position before Seringapatam. A series of successful attacks upon the enemy's posts enabled the breaching batteries to be erected at a short distance from the walls; and the breach was sufficiently complete for the city to be stormed on the 4th of May. It was in the possession of the besiegers within two hours. Tippoo was killed in one of the gateways. His body was found among five hundred others, piled in a very narrow compass. Colonel Wellesley's letter to the Governor-General is very characteristic. "It was impossible to expect that, after the labour which the troops had undergone in working up to this place, and the various successes they had had in six different affairs with Tippoo's troops, in all of which they had come to the bayonet with them, they should not have looked to the plunder of this place. Nothing therefore can have exceeded what was done on the night of the 4th. . . . I came in to take the command on the morning of the 5th; and, by the greatest exertion, by hanging, flogging, &c., &c., in the course of that day, I restored order among the troops, and I hope I have gained the confidence of the people."\* Colonel Wellesley congratulates his brother "upon having brought the war to a most fortunate conclusion in the course of about two months, and of having destroyed the greatest enemy the British nation ever had in India, and one whose powers were most formidable." The territories of Tippoo were divided amongst the English, the Nizam, and a descendant of the ancient rajahs of Mysore, who had been dispossessed by Hyder. Colonel Wellesley was appointed governor of Seringapatam; and, during several years, he was employed in the organization of the civil and military administration of Mysore.

When Bonaparte wrote to Tippoo at the end of January, 1799, the Porte had declared war against France. Jezzar, the pasha of Acre, had received orders from the sultan to commence hostilities against the French, and he had seized El Arish, on the borders of Egypt. The war against the invaders of the dominions of the sultan was to be carried on with vigour. An army was collecting in Syria; another army was to be landed at Alexandria; in the spring they were to operate in combination. Bonaparte resolved to anticipate these movements, by attacking the fortified places in Syria where troops and stores were being gathered together. He thought the reduction of these positions would be soon effected; that he should add the conquest of Syria to that of Egypt; become master of the Euphrates as he had become master of the

\* "Supplementary Dispatches," vol. i. p. 212.

Nile; and then have all the communications with India open to him. On the 1st of February, his army, consisting of about thirteen thousand men, entered the Desert. He had mounted one of his regiments on fleet dromedaries, each dromedary carrying two men, seated back to back. The French on the march followed the course of the Mediterranean. El Arish surrendered to them on the 18th of February, and Gaza surrendered on the 25th. On the 3rd of March they had reached Jaffa, the ancient Joppa. This place was defended by a thick wall, flanked with towers; and contained a garrison of more than four thousand men. It was taken by assault; and for thirty hours was delivered over to pillage and massacre. Something followed, more horrible even than the ordinary atrocities of warfare. Several thousand of the garrison were prisoners. "Bonaparte," says Thiers, "decided upon a terrible measure, which is the sole cruel act of his life. Transported into a barbarous country, he had involuntarily adopted its measures. He caused these prisoners to pass under the edge of the sword."\* The justification alleged is, that the French had no means of sending them to Egypt; that the army was itself in want of rations; and that to let them go free would be to increase the number of their foes. The decision was not taken upon the single authority of Bonaparte. It was debated for three days in councils of war; and then the prisoners were marched out from the camp in parties to the sand hills around Jaffa, and there put to death by volleys of musketry, or by the bayonet.

Before the French marched from Jaffa, the plague had made its appearance. Hospitals were established there; and the army moved forward to Acre. Jezzar had resisted the solicitations of the French to become their friend; and had determined to defend the strong place in which he was shut up. In the gulf of Acre was sir Sidney Smith, with two English ships of war. He had captured some vessels bringing along the coast from Egypt some of the heavy artillery of the French army; and these were landed for the defence of Acre. A French emigrant officer, colonel Philippeaux, who had been a fellow-student with Bonaparte in the military school, co-operated with sir Sidney Smith in this gallant defence. A small breach having been made, the French ventured upon an assault on the 25th of March. They were arrested by a counterscarp and a fosse. For two months was Acre vainly attempted to be taken. In April, an army from Damascus had crossed the Jordan for the relief of Acre. Kleber, with a small number of troops, first encountered this force of thirty thousand,

\* "Révolution Française," livre xliii.

chiefly cavalry. He maintained his ground until the arrival of Bonaparte and Murat with effectual aid. The Mussulmans were completely routed on the plain of Esdraelon, between Mount Hermon and Mount Thabor. Bonaparte then hurried back to Acre. The English and Turks, during the temporary suspension of assaults, had constructed intrenchments outside the town. In the early part of May, the French repeatedly attacked these works, but without success. On the 7th of May, a Turkish fleet with reinforcements appeared in sight. The place must be stormed before the reinforcements could land. It was stormed on the 7th; it was stormed on the 8th; it was stormed on the 10th. Bonaparte was held at bay. On the 21st, the camp before Acre was broken up. On his return march to Egypt, from Cesarea to Jaffa, the whole country was set on fire. The Turks and Arabs hung on the French rear, and killed every straggler. The sick dropped on the burning sand, unable to keep up with their comrades. At Jaffa the army halted. What was to be done with the sick in the hospitals? Thiers gives one version of a story that brought as much odium upon Bonaparte as the massacre of the Turkish prisoners: "Bonaparte said to the physician Desgenettes, that it would be much more humane to administer some opium to them, than to leave them alive. The physician made this answer, 'My business is to cure and not to kill.' No opium was administered; and the fact only served for the propagation of an unworthy calumny, now destroyed."\* A French historian, Poujoulat, who had travelled in Palestine, does not doubt that between three and four hundred sick and wounded were poisoned. Bonaparte himself denied to O'Meara the poisoning even of "a few *miserables*, who could not recover." But he added, "Not that I think it would have been a crime had opium been given to them; on the contrary, I think it would have been a virtue."†

Bonaparte returned to Cairo, assuming to himself all the honours of a conqueror. It is difficult to determine whether his proclamations to the people of Egypt, or his despatches to the French Directory, contain the greater number of lies and exaggerations in reference to this Syrian campaign. But the misfortunes of the siege of Acre were redeemed by a great victory, on the 25th of July, over a Turkish army which had landed at the peninsula of Aboukir. Bonaparte, upon the news of their landing, had made a rapid march from Cairo to Alexandria with ten thousand men; and the rout of the Turks, who fought most bravely, was complete.

\* "Révolution Française," livre xliii.

† "Voice from St. Helena," vol. i. p. 332.

After the decisive battle of Aboukir, Bonaparte became restless. His communication with Europe had been cut off for nearly a year. It had been an eventful year. The French armies in Italy and in Germany had sustained great reverses, of which he was ignorant. He had in vain sent forth some brigs to detain merchant vessels, that he might obtain news from Europe. He then sent a flag of truce to the Turkish fleet, under the pretence of negotiating an exchange of prisoners, but with the real intent that some intelligence should be obtained. Sir Sidney Smith, says Thiers, learning that Bonaparte was ignorant of the disasters of France, "felt a malignant pleasure in sending to him a packet of all the journals." Bonaparte passed an entire night in devouring the information contained in these newspapers. He at once took his determination to embark secretly for Europe. Let us take a rapid glance at the various events that led this man of decision to resolve that "the time is out of joint," and that he alone was "born to set it right."

After the separate treaty of Campo Formio between Austria and France, a Congress assembled at Radstadt, to treat of the complex subject of a general peace, to include all the States of the German empire. Its sittings, which commenced in December, 1797, were continued through 1798. At the end of that year a treaty of alliance between Great Britain and Russia, against France, was agreed upon; and the emperor Francis and the emperor Paul were drawing together in a determination to unite their forces in a common endeavour to resist the growing power of the ambitious Republic. Naples and Sardinia had declared war against France. At the beginning of January, 1799, the king of Naples had fled from his capital to Palermo; the French general Championnet had entered the city; proclaimed the abolition of royalty; and the kingdom of Naples was henceforth to be the Parthenopean Republic. A Russian army of sixty thousand men, commanded by Suwaroff, arrived in Moravia in December; and were welcomed by the emperor of Germany with unmistakeable demonstrations. The French plenipotentiaries at Radstadt demanded that the Diet of the Empire should oppose the entrance of the Russian army upon Germanic territory. The answer being unsatisfactory, Ehrenbreitstein, which had been long blockaded by the French, was besieged, and the fortress capitulated in January. The French were now masters of both banks of the Rhine. Jourdan crossed the river into Suabia; the Directory declared war against Austria; Jourdan advanced to the Danube; was encountered by the archduke Charles, and driven back over the Rhine in April. When Switzerland was invaded by the French in 1798, the Grisons stood aloof. They were now

assaulted by the French; but the Austrians came from the Tyrol to their aid, and drove the invaders from their territory. Switzerland now became the seat of war, and Massena stood upon the defensive at Zurich. At the close of March the Austrian and French armies were actively engaged in Italy. The French were driven beyond the Mincio. The ability of Moreau could not enable him to make a stand against the determination of the old Austrian general Melas. On the 18th of April, Suwaroff joined the Austrians with fifty thousand Russians, and this famous slaughterer of Turks and Poles took the command of the combined armies. The battle of Cassano, on the 27th of April, was decisive of the fate of the Cisalpine Republic. The battle of the Trebbia ensued, in which, after three days of desperate conflict, Suwaroff defeated Macdonald and Victor, who retreated over the Apennines. The attempted junction of the two armies of Italy resulted in the defeats of the two commanders, Moreau and Macdonald. In three months the great campaigns of Bonaparte thus appeared to have been productive only of fleeting triumphs. Royalty was restored at Naples by cardinal Ruffo, with English assistance; and, painful to record, the bad faith and miserable vengeance of the corrupt and despotic court upon the patriotic party found a supporter in the greatest of British admirals. Such was the posture of European affairs when George III. closed the Session of Parliament on the 12th of July, and said, "It is impossible to compare the events of the present year with the state and prospects of Europe at the distance of but a few months, without acknowledging, in humble thankfulness, the visible interposition of Divine Providence, in averting those dangers which so long threatened the overthrow of all the establishments of the civilized world." Such were the confident expectations of the parties to the Second Coalition against France, concluded on the 22nd of June, between Great Britain, the emperor of Germany, the emperor of Russia, some of the German minor States, Naples, Portugal, Turkey, and Barbary. France herself was exposed to a greater danger than that of external foes. Her executive government was weak and unpopular. The people were oppressed by taxes; and more oppressed by the Conscription, by which every Frenchman, from the age of twenty to forty-five, was liable to be chosen by lot for military service. Such was the news that sir Sidney Smith might have placed before Bonaparte on the banks of the Nile. The intelligence of the journals, it is believed, was confirmed by a private communication from his brothers Lucien and Joseph; which had reached him by a faithful messenger, in spite of the vigilance of the English cruisers.

On the 24th of August, Bonaparte embarked at Alexandria, accompanied by seven of his generals. Two frigates and two smaller vessels had been got ready, by his orders, for this perilous adventure. This was not, says Thiers, a desertion; "for he left a victorious army to brave dangers of every kind, and, most horrible of all, the danger of being carried in fetters to London." Bonaparte was himself very calm amidst these dangers. He possibly did not imagine that Pitt would carry him about in an iron cage, like another Bajazet, even if he were captured by an English fleet. It was the 9th of October when he landed at Fréjus. The people ought to have opposed his landing as a violation of the Quarantine laws, but they said, "Better the plague than the Austrians." The Austrians were close at hand. They occupied all the mountainous passes which separate France from Italy. After the great victory of the Austro-Russian army at Novi, in August—which victory was succeeded by other triumphs—the French were expelled from the land which Bonaparte had conquered and revolutionized. That he should have been received in Provence as the man whose advent would be the safety of France was a natural and reasonable confidence. On the 16th of October, Bonaparte was in Paris. From his old house in la rue Chantereine he proceeded immediately to the Luxembourg, the palace of the Directory. He told the members that having become apprised of the disasters of France he had come to defend the country. But he was to them an object of suspicion and of fear. Bernadotte, it is said, counselled the arrest of Bonaparte for desertion; and Barras replied, "We are not strong enough for that." The Directory consisted of Barras, Sièyes, Ducos, and two obscure republicans, Moulins and Gohièr. They were divided in their policy as to abiding by the existing Constitution, which some wished to modify and some to overturn. Bonaparte came as a new power to mould or to awe conflicting opinions, whether of the Directors or of the Legislative bodies, into a shape favourable to his own ambition. He attached himself to the party of Sièyes and Ducos. Barras preserved a sort of neutrality. Bonaparte had two able counsellors to assist him in any intrigue for the transfer of power to new hands—Talleyrand and Fouché. The majority of the Council of Five Hundred, with Bernadotte, were against any project for organic change. Three weeks of intrigue ended in placing France under a Dictatorship—three weeks of plots, which Bourienne, Bonaparte's secretary, says, "were accompanied by so much trickery, falsehood, and treachery, that for the honour of human nature it is desirable to hide them under a veil." The preparations of the conspirators were at length complete. The Coun-

cil of Ancients possessed an authority, under the Constitution, for determining the place of meeting of the Legislative body. A packed number assembled privately on the 9th of November (18th Brumaire), and decreed that the sitting should be held the following day at the palace of St. Cloud. Bonaparte was charged with the execution of this decree; and all the troops of the line and the National Guards were placed under his orders. He very quickly availed himself of his power, by stationing troops at the Tuileries, at the Luxembourg, at St. Cloud, under the command of his trusty generals; and by assigning to other chosen lieutenants positions where military force might put down all opposition that might be excited by those whose reign was coming to a close. Barras, Moulins, and Gohier were left to their own reflections in the Luxembourg, whilst their servant was thus preparing to become their master. The Council of Five Hundred met on the 9th of November, only to hear the decree which suspended their sitting on that day, and which ordered their assembling on the next day at St. Cloud. At one o'clock on the afternoon of the 10th, the Council of Ancients and the Council of Five Hundred assembled, surrounded by troops. Bonaparte came in his carriage, with a numerous escort. Sièyes and Ducos were also there to confer with him. The Ancients were told that the Directors had resigned, and it was proposed to replace them according to the provisions of the Constitution. Barras had indeed resigned, by getting away from Paris in hot haste. Moulins and Gohier were prisoners in the Luxembourg. It was a critical moment. Bonaparte came into the Assembly; and, according to the historical authorities of the Revolution, harangued with visible emotion but with great effect. The speeches which the historians put into his mouth differ very considerably; and well they may differ, says Bourienne, who was present, "for he made no speech, but delivered a series of rambling, unconnected sentences, and confused replies to the President's questions." Berthier and Bourienne were glad to get him away from the wearied and impatient Assembly. At the Council of Five Hundred, to which Bonaparte then repaired, there were fewer words but more action. He entered the wing of the palace where they were sitting, followed by grenadiers. Furious cries assailed him of "Down with the tyrant—Down with the dictator—Go out—Go out." His soldiers surrounded him as he made for the door. He mounted his horse when he escaped from what he represented as a danger to his person, and told his troops that an attempt had been made to assassinate him. "Vive Bonaparte" was the re-assuring cry. Within there was now a greater danger than the imaginary daggers of the

irritated members of the Five Hundred. His brother Lucien was the President, and he was called upon to declare Napoleon, "hors la loi"—those terrible words which had sent Robespierre and many another revolutionary tyrant to the scaffold. Lucien refused to put the question, and implored them to hear his brother. By direction of Napoleon grenadiers again entered the hall; seized Lucien, and carried him forth. The two mounted their horses; Lucien harangued the troops; told them that assassins were overwhelming the majority; that he and his brother would swear to be faithful to Liberty. The soldiers hesitated at the proposal to expel the Five Hundred from their hall; but Lucien exclaimed, "I swear that I will stab my own brother to the heart if he ever attempt anything against the liberties of France." Again the soldiers shouted "Vive Bonaparte." Murat and Leclerc then put themselves at the head of a battalion; led them to the door of the Assembly: drowned the outcries of the members by beat of drums; and cleared the hall by that irresistible power which Mirabeau declared should alone disperse the Tiers Etat—"We will only quit by the power of the bayonet."\* Night came on. Lucien collected some thirty members of the Five Hundred, who passed decrees, in the name of that body, to the effect that the Directory existed no longer; that sixty persons were no longer representatives; and that a Provisional Executive Commission should be formed of three members, who should be styled Consuls—Sièyes, Ducos, and Napoleon Bonaparte being named to that office. The Council of Ancients concurred in the decrees. The three colleagues immediately took the oaths to be faithful to the sovereignty of the people, to the Republic, to Liberty and Equality, and to the representative system. The Republic on that night really came to an end.

Whilst these events were taking place in Paris; whilst the supreme power was passing into the hands of a great soldier,—a man of indomitable energy, gathering round him all the civil and military talent of his country, without respect to the claims of birth, and despising the routine which placed authority in the hands of the incapable—the British administration, rarely departing from its almost slavish dependence upon royal command or parliamentary influence, had sent a powerful force for the deliverance of Holland, organized upon the old principles of favouritism. Other men than equerries at Windsor anticipated the result; when "unformed regiments were hurried on immediate service;" and brigades were made up "for the amusement of young Princes and of foolish and

\* *Ante*, vol. vi. p. 477.

inexperienced Generals." \* The "young princes" likely to be employed were the dukes of York, Cumberland, and Gloucester. The duke of York was the only prince of the three who went to Holland for his "amusement." A British army was assembled on the coast of Kent. A general, neither foolish nor inexperienced, Sir Ralph Abercromby, sailed on the 12th of August, with a first detachment of twelve thousand men; and he was to be joined by a Russian contingent of seventeen thousand men, paid by England, for the conveyance of which force to Holland a squadron had been sent forth in July. All went well for a time. Abercromby effected a landing at the Helder, supported by a fire from the fleet; and the troops were all disembarked on the 27th, after a feeble resistance. The fort of the Helder, which commanded the entrance of the Texel, was taken possession of; and the English fleet entered, and summoned the Dutch fleet to surrender. There was no battle; for the Dutch seamen were in a state of insubordination, and thus eight sail of the line and seventeen frigates fell into our hands. The ships were sent to England, our sailors murmuring that they had not been taken as prizes in fair fight; and public opinion complaining that we had turned a mutiny to our own advantage when we had so recently been placed in extreme danger by a mutiny in our own fleet. Abercromby, with his small force, maintained a defensive position; and on the 10th of September repulsed a fierce attack of twenty-four thousand French and Dutch under general Vandamme. The Russian contingent, with an additional force of seven thousand British, now arrived. But there came with them a commander-in-chief who was to supersede Abercromby. The duke of York took the command of the united British and Russian army of thirty-six thousand men. This was indeed to make war upon a large scale, as far as numbers were concerned. The expedition to Holland was the greatest attempt of the British government since the beginning of the contest with France. One thing was wanted—a General fit to command. The duke of York was not without experience in military matters; he was personally brave; but what he had done before as the leader of an army was no warranty for his fitness for this high responsibility. On the 19th of September it was determined to attack the enemy in four columns, the ground being of a nature to prevent a concentrated operation. The Russian column under general Hermann was routed. On the centre and left, where the duke of York was present, general Dundas and general Pulteney were defeating the enemy. But the duke, hearing of the disaster of Hermann, instantly changed a plan which was

\* Cornwallis—"Correspondence," vol. iii. p. 123.

leading to victory, and marched to the assistance of the broken Russians. The duke was himself then compelled to retreat; and the day presented the usual consequences of bravery without judgment. On the 2nd of October another battle was fought, in which the right and centre of the British and Russians were partially successful, but where the want of combination prevented any real advantage. Time was precious. The republicans were gathering in great force; and some strong place must be obtained, through the possession of which supplies from the interior of the country could alone be insured. The army could not remain to starve in the narrow corner on which they were encamped, amidst dykes and causeys, on swampy ground now saturated with autumnal rains. Haarlem must be taken. The French, posted on a narrow isthmus by which it was necessary to approach Haarlem, were ready to contest the passage. On the 6th of October a battle was fought during the whole day, with equal bravery and equal loss. But the duke of York was no nigher the possession of Haarlem. The French were reinforced; the duke of York retired. Dangers were thickening around him. His great army was reduced to twenty thousand men, by sickness as much as by battle. He had provision only for eleven days. He proposed a suspension of arms to general Brune, the French commander, preparatory to the evacuation of Holland by the British and Russians. The only point gained in this convention was that the Dutch fleet was to be retained. He bought the permission to go home in safety, upon the condition that eight thousand French and Dutch seamen, prisoners of war in England, should be given up to the French government. The troops quitted Holland on the 30th of November. Loud were the murmurs at home. The people were thankful that a navy remained to them in which command did not wholly go "by favour and affection." Some were glad that the ending of the expedition was no worse. "The armistice in Holland," wrote Cornwallis, "although it is not, perhaps, the most brilliant way of getting out of the scrape, has relieved my mind from much anxiety, and has insured to us some army, if we are not bent upon throwing it away." \*

When Bonaparte and his two colleagues had taken possession of the Luxembourg on the 11th of November, he had no precedence. Each Consul was in his turn to act as president. There was much to be accomplished before Bonaparte could be installed in that almost absolute power to which all his movements were tending. A new Constitution was to be made. Commissions were appointed to square and dovetail the work into shape.

\* "Correspondence," vol. iii. p. 141.