

according to the lines laid down by the great French general. The books and pamphlets on this wonderful man fill some hundreds of volumes. The judgments passed on him are almost as numerous as the writers.

However difficult it may be to come to a conclusion in regard to his motives, the actual results of his life are tolerably clear. Considering these, perhaps we shall be justified in affirming that on the whole the world has good reason to be thankful for, if not to, Napoleon.

218. Summary.—The entire period covering nearly twenty years is filled with this one great name of Napoleon. Through his energy and genius France emerged from the anarchy of the Revolution, and became, outwardly at least, a strong, united, law-abiding nation. Through his ambition she conquered, but then lost, a large part of Europe. Finally, through the instrumentality of Napoleon, the principles of constitutional and political progress were to a large extent disseminated and eventually established.

SECTION XIV

France has not lost, and will not lose, courage. She is laboring; she is hoping; and while endeavoring to find her proper path, she looks forward to the day when revolutions will be at an end, and when liberty with order will forever crown the long and painful efforts of her most faithful servants of every name and period. — GUIZOT DE WITT.

FRANCE SINCE NAPOLEON I (1815-)

LOUIS XVIII, 1815-1824.	THE SECOND REPUBLIC, 1848-1852.
CHARLES X, 1824-1830.	LOUIS NAPOLEON, 1852-1870.
LOUIS PHILIPPE, 1830-1848.	THE THIRD REPUBLIC, 1870-

219. Louis XVIII's Charter; Execution of Labédoyère and Ney; Humiliation of France.—After the final fall of the emperor in June, 1815, Louis XVIII, a younger brother of Louis XVI, resumed the crown which the unexpected return of Napoleon from Elba had forced him to lay aside.¹ The king dated his accession from the death of his nephew, Louis XVII, in 1795,² calling 1815 the twentieth year of his reign. By this convenient fiction Napoleon was treated as a usurper not worthy of being reckoned among the sovereigns of France, and the republic and the empire were alike ignored.

The new ruler fully realized that "revolutions never go backward," and that France as he found it was not the France that existed before the days of the National Convention and the Reign of Terror. He therefore bound himself to carry out the principles of the liberal charter which he had granted on first ascending the throne.

¹ See Paragraph 215.

² See Paragraph 194.

That charter embodied the principles of the English constitution. It established a limited monarchy and guaranteed the nation these four fundamental rights:

- I. Equality before the law.
- II. Personal freedom.
- III. Freedom of conscience or religious liberty.
- IV. Freedom of the press.

Not long after the beginning of the reign General Labédoyère¹ and Marshal Ney were tried and sentenced to death for the aid they had given Napoleon after his escape from Elba. The Duke of Wellington tried hard to save the life of the illustrious marshal, who had fought at Waterloo, and on twenty bloody fields besides; but his efforts failed. Ney was shot as a traitor to that Bourbon dynasty, which after the emperor's exile he had solemnly promised to support. It was a sorrowful case, but according to the laws of war Ney was justly condemned. A braver man never fell. To-day his remains rest in an unmarked grave in the cemetery of Père La Chaise.

Meanwhile the conquerors of Napoleon forced France to sign a treaty which humiliated her to the last degree. By it the nation was obliged to pay seven hundred million francs (\$140,000,000) to the allies for the expense they had incurred in the war, besides an enormous bill of damages. Next, the country had to surrender a number of important border fortresses on the northeast. Finally, France bound herself to maintain, solely at her own expense, a frontier garrison of one hundred and fifty thousand foreign soldiers for three years.

Thus she was forced to pay for the rod with which she had been beaten, and then to tie her own hands so that she should be helpless to resist in the future.

220. The Second White Terror; Murder of the Duke of Berry; War with Spain; Reactionary Policy; Death of the King.—Louis XVIII was himself a moderate and well-meaning

¹ Labédoyère (lā-bēh-dwā-yēr).

man, but he could not withstand the constant pressure of the ultra-conservative party. When they came into power, they permitted that disgraceful persecution of the Bonapartists—or adherents of Napoleon—which received the name of the White Terror.¹ No less than seven thousand Bonapartists were cast into prison, and in Marseilles and other parts of the south many were murdered, their houses pillaged, and their wives and children treated with horrible cruelty and insult.

In 1820 the Duke of Berry, nephew to Louis XVIII, was murdered by a political assassin. The only motive was the man's hatred of the Bourbon race, and his belief that the duke was most likely, through his children, to carry forward the succession of those princes. This event naturally inflamed the hostility and bitterness of parties to a much greater degree, and so kept the country in a state of feverish agitation.

Toward the close of his reign the king was forced into a war with Spain. The czar of Russia had organized a league, with the emperor of Austria and the king of Prussia, called the Holy Alliance, which, notwithstanding its plausibly pious name and its professed object of maintaining Christianity, was mainly intended for the suppression of democratic ideas. The Spaniards rose in revolt against the intolerably oppressive acts of their sovereign, Ferdinand VII, and compelled him to accept a constitution limiting his despotic power.

Under the pressure of the Holy Alliance, Louis was obliged to send troops to Spain to reinstate Ferdinand in his former position, and thus to maintain by force of arms the old abuses which his subjects had hoped to remedy.² This war was part of that policy which the Bourbon kings and their sympathizers

¹ It was really the Second White Terror. See Paragraph 192.

² This reactionary policy extended to America, where Spain resolved to overthrow the South American republics which had revolted against her despotic rule. The Monroe Doctrine owed its origin, in part, to the determination of the United States not to permit Spain to reconquer the colonies she had lost. See The Leading Facts of American History in this series.

undertook to carry out all over Europe after the destruction of Napoleon, and which was to give rise to new revolutions.

From this time Louis XVIII became more and more the tool of the party that was opposed to political progress. The liberty of France was constantly infringed upon, education fell into the hands of a narrow sectarian class, and even the holiday amusements of the people were suppressed. On these days the laboring man was now compelled to attend church, while on all the others he was kept busy working to pay taxes. His life therefore had but two sides: one was enforced drudgery; the other, enforced devotion.

Can it be wondered at, that henceforth the peasants and the hod carriers grew discontented? While engaged in these restrictive measures, Louis XVIII, an old, gouty, overgrown epicure, whose very title was turned into a pun on his love of eating,¹ finished his career and was gathered to his fathers (1824). He was the last French king who died in France or was buried in French soil.

221. Charles X's Arbitrary Government; Greece; Algeria; Coup d'État; Revolution. — If Louis XVIII's face had been turned partly toward the past, that of his successor,² Charles X, was wholly set that way. He was anointed and crowned at Reims with all the pomp and ceremony of the ancient Bourbon monarchs.

He professed to believe in the divine right of kings,³ and even went so far as to restore the long-obsolete custom of touching for the cure of scrofula.⁴ His policy was to govern France as though she was wholly destitute of reason or power to govern herself.

¹ Louis Dix-huit (Louis the Eighteenth), punningly called by the people, *Louis des huitres* (Oyster Louis).

² Charles X: he was the youngest brother of Louis XVIII. Prior to his coming to the throne he had the title of Count of Artois.

³ See Paragraph 148.

⁴ See Paragraph 150.

He endeavored to reestablish the monastic institutions which the Revolution had abolished, and to reinstate the Jesuits that Louis XV had expelled and the pope suppressed.¹ He did all in his power to indemnify the nobles who had fled from France, when they should have stayed and fought for her, by trying to have the state pay them for the value of their confiscated estates.²

Finally, in an evil hour for himself, he maddened Paris by disbanding the National Guard, which was largely made up of prudent and conservative citizens opposed alike to revolution and to tyranny. He also attacked the liberty of the press by attempting to secure the enactment of a law restricting the publication and sale of all books and newspapers except such as should be approved by a committee in sympathy with himself. Fortunately the bill failed to pass the upper house of the legislature: had it succeeded, nearly all literary production, whether good or bad, would have come to a standstill. It was a measure characteristic of the Middle Ages rather than of the nineteenth century, and it shows the policy of the man who supported it.

During the remainder of his brief reign the king "shifted about from contradiction to contradiction and from inconsistency to inconsistency." Fortunately, he was obliged to make some concessions to the liberal party, and to remove the Jesuits from the control of the schools and colleges. Abroad, however, France gained a glory she could not boast at home. In alliance with England and other powers she assisted Greece to throw off the barbarous rule of the Turks; and by a war with the dey of Algiers (1830), that city was captured, and a large and flourishing French colony was established in northern Africa. To-day Algeria is considered the most valuable dependency possessed by the nation.³

¹ See Paragraph 167.

² See Paragraph 181.

³ The area of the organized part of Algeria is a little less than 123,000 square miles, or considerably more than half that of France. The population is about

The king's policy at home irritated the liberal party in the highest degree. At the elections of 1830 they gained a complete victory. Charles, far from heeding the warning, now determined on a *coup d'état*.¹ On the morning of July 26 he issued five ordinances. The first suspended freedom of the press. The second dissolved the new liberal legislature. The third took away the ballot from all but property holders. The fourth summoned a new legislature elected under this restrictive law. The fifth nominated a Council of State, composed of those who sympathized wholly with the king.

The result of these arbitrary measures was a revolution, which in three days (July 27, 28, and 29)² made Charles realize that he was no longer wanted by the majority of the people, and that not even the army would fight for him. He accordingly abdicated,³ went to England, and thence to Austria, where he died in 1836.

222. Louis Philippe and Lafayette; the King's Liberal Policy; Political Parties. — In the Revolution of 1830 the venerable Lafayette, then past three-score years and ten, was made chief of the revived National Guard. For a short time he held absolute power, and might perhaps have secured the abolition of monarchy had he so chosen. But he acquiesced in the desire of Guizot, Thiers,⁴ and other leading men who favored Louis Philippe, Duke of Orléans, as successor

4,000,000. The Algerian Sahara, to be added to the above, is estimated to have an area of 135,000 square miles, with a population of about 50,000. The colony carries on a very large and lucrative commerce, most of which is with France.

¹ *Coup d'état* (kōō dā-tā'): a violent, unexpected, and unconstitutional act by a king or governing power.

² The Column of July, in the Place de la Bastille, commemorates those who fell in the Revolution of 1830.

³ Charles abdicated in favor of his grandson, Henry, Duke of Bordeaux (later known as Henry, Count of Chambord). He died in 1883. He was the last representative of the older Bourbons and of the Ultra-Royalist or Legitimist party. The Count of Paris, grandson of Louis Philippe, is considered to be his political successor.

⁴ Thiers (te-ér').

to Charles X. The duke was accordingly invited to act as lieutenant general of the kingdom as a preparatory step to his receiving the crown.

General Lafayette called on him to pay his respects. "You know," said he to the duke, "that I am a Republican, and consider the constitution of the United States as the most perfect that ever existed." "So do I," replied the duke; "but do you think that in the present condition of France it would be advisable for us to adopt it?" "No," answered Lafayette; "what the French people need now is a popular throne surrounded by institutions that are wholly republican." "That," rejoined the duke, "is just my opinion."

Not long after this conversation Louis was offered the crown. He accepted it, and took the title of "Louis Philippe, King of the French," as Napoleon had called himself "Emperor of the French."¹ He was a liberal Bourbon, a member of the Bourbon-Orléans family, and the very opposite of Charles X. He was popularly known as "the citizen king." The new sovereign affected little state or ceremony, discarded royal robes, and announced his intention of standing by the revised charter,² and of favoring true political liberty.

Four parties divided France: (1) the Legitimists, who wished to restore the hereditary Bourbon line³ and carry-out the old narrow Bourbon policy as nearly as possible as it existed before the great Revolution; (2) the Constitutionalists, who supported the reigning king, and believed in a monarchy limited by a written charter or constitution similar to that of England; (3) the Bonapartists, who wished to place a member of that family on the throne; (4) the Republicans, who declared that kings had had their day, and what France wanted was "government of the people, by the people, and for the people," after the

¹ See Paragraph 204.

² The charter given by Louis XVIII, revised so as to make it still more liberal. See Paragraph 219.

³ See Genealogical Table, Appendix, page vii.

example set by America. Of the four parties the last was the most determined, and in many ways the most formidable.

223. Riots; Labor Troubles; Effects of the Revolution of 1830; Belgium; the Cholera. — Shortly after Louis Philippe's accession the Legitimists held a commemorative service over the remains of the murdered Duke of Berry.¹ The Republicans and the Paris rabble attacked the church where the services were conducted, threw the priests' vestments, the crucifix, and communion plate into the Seine, and sacked the archbishop's residence. This and several subsequent riots were quelled with fire engines, — a kind of cold-water artillery, quite as effectual as grapeshot, and which had the advantage of breaking no bones, shedding no blood, and making no martyrs.

The next year (1831) there were strikes and labor insurrections at Lyons and elsewhere, followed by an attempt of the Legitimists to overturn the government and put their candidate, the son of the widowed Duchess of Berry, on the throne.

Meanwhile the Revolution of 1830, which had driven Charles X from France, was making its influence felt in Europe. In England that great movement set in toward reforming and extending the right of suffrage, which resulted in the passage of the memorable Reform Bill of 1832.²

In Brussels a revolt broke out against the Dutch king of the Netherlands, who had been put in power by that Congress of Vienna that hated political progress and popular rights. The revolt was successful, and in July, 1831, Belgium obtained its independence and chose its own sovereign, who took the title of King of the Belgians.

The change was an advantage to both Holland and Belgium. The people of the two countries differed in blood, in language, and in religion, — one being Dutch, the other French; one

¹ See Paragraph 220.

² See The Leading Facts of English History in this series.

Protestant, the other Catholic; now that each was left free to govern itself in its own way, prosperity ensued for both.

The year after was marked by the outbreak in March of a frightful, malignant epidemic of a new kind, soon to become familiar under the name of Asiatic cholera. In six months it carried off nearly twenty thousand victims in Paris alone; and the fatal disease did not cease until it had gone round the globe and returned to its original home in the East.

Three days after the scourge appeared, a masked ball was given in Paris. Among the dancers several personated the cholera. Suddenly at midnight one dancer after another fell shrieking to the floor. The ball was broken up. Fifty victims were carried to the hospital, many of whom a few hours later were buried in their masquerade dress.

224. Attempts to assassinate the King; Louis Napoleon's Conspiracy. — In 1835 several attempts were made to murder the king, and from that time he continued to have his life threatened by desperate men. One evil effect of these violent efforts to change the government, not by law, but by the bullet and the dagger, was the enactment of a number of severe statutes respecting the press. These were intended to put a stop to the publication of articles inciting insurrection and assassination, but at times they were used by those in power to check the legitimate utterance of the daily journals, and so increased the ill-feeling.

Prince Louis Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon I., crossed the frontier from Switzerland in 1836, and entering Strasburg tried to rouse that city to rebellion in his favor. The undertaking had no results, except that the prince was promptly arrested and sent out of the country to New York. A few years later he had the audacity to make a second attempt. This time he came from England and landed at Boulogne.

He had with him a tame eagle which was probably intended to remind the French, in a theatrical kind of way, of the

imperial eagles which figured on the arms of the first Napoleon. But the conspiracy proved as tame and harmless as the pet bird of its originator. Nobody was seriously hurt, still less killed, and the would-be emperor was sent to the castle of Ham¹ to meditate on his misadventure. His sentence was for life; but after six years' confinement he managed to escape to England, to make a third and successful attempt, in a different way, at a later period.

225. **Science; the Photograph; Literature.** — But the political history of any period, however important, is at best but half the history of a people's life. If society owes much to its statesmen, it owes no less, perhaps, to its inventors, its scientists, — such as Pasteur, — and to its great writers. The French, it is true, have never been prominent in the field of practical science and the inventive arts. The triumphs of steam, electricity, and labor-saving machines belong to the Anglo-Saxon race.

The French list of noted inventions in the last two centuries is a short one: it includes Montgolfier's² balloon, which has never yet proved of any practical worth; the celebrated Jacquard³ loom for weaving all kinds of figured stuffs; an improved form of water wheel for driving machinery;⁴ the Minié⁵ rifle; and last, but greatest of all, the wonderful and world-wide-known invention or discovery of Daguerre.⁶

It had been known for centuries that if a room be made wholly dark with the exception of a small aperture left to

¹ Ham (õn): a fortress and prison in the department of the Somme, in the north-west of France.

² Montgolfier (mõn-gol-fe-ã): 1783.

³ Jacquard (zhã-kar'): 1801.

⁴ A turbine wheel, invented by Fourneyron in 1836.

⁵ Minié (me-ne-ã): commonly pronounced mìn'e. Colonel Minié invented his rifle about 1850.

⁶ Daguerre (dã-gêr'): 1789-1851. He began life in Paris as a scene painter. There, in connection with a friend, he invented the diorama. Later he commenced a series of experiments in photography with the help of Niepce (ne-êps'), a French chemist, who made important discoveries in the art; Daguerre, however, was the first to turn them to practical account. The first pictures were taken on plates of highly polished metal, and received the name of daguerreotypes, which was soon superseded by that of photographs.

admit a ray of sunlight, that the result will be a dim sun picture of outside objects represented on the wall. The same thing would of course result if a box were used instead of a room, and it was found that by placing a convex lens in the aperture the brilliancy of the picture on the side or bottom of the box was greatly increased. Such a box, called a camera, was a well-known toy, though occasionally it had been utilized by draughtsmen, who copied the outlines of the picture in pencil.

The question was, could these pictures be in any way made permanent? That was the problem the French scene painter, Daguerre, set himself to solve. As early as 1825 a lady went to the distinguished chemist, Dumas,¹ to ask his opinion on the matter. She had a deep interest in his answer, for the French artist, like Palissy, the discoverer of porcelain,² was spending all his time and money in experiments which brought in nothing but vexatious disappointment. The lady said to Dumas: "I am the wife of Daguerre, the painter. He is possessed with the belief that he can find a method of fixing the sun pictures of the camera on metal or paper. Do you, sir, as a man of science, believe it can be done, or is my husband insane?" Dumas replied: "In the present state of our knowledge we are unable to do what your husband is attempting; but I cannot say that it will always be so, still less can I say that I think him mad because he seeks to accomplish it."

Fourteen years passed away, fourteen years of renewed effort and of renewed disappointment. Then, in 1839, Arago, the distinguished French astronomer, announced in the Paris Academy of Sciences that Daguerre had triumphed — in his hand he held up to his delighted audience the first perfect photograph. Since then photography, like printing, has encircled the globe. Like printing, too, it disseminates knowledge,

¹ Dumas (dü-mã').

² Palissy, the potter: a celebrated French potter of the sixteenth century. He succeeded, after years of experiments, in discovering the secret of making porcelain.

reproducing not what men think, but what they see. The scientific and practical uses of this art are constantly extending, and Arago did no more than justice to Daguerre's invention when he declared that it would finally take its place with the greatest of those of the present century.

In literature and art France, during this and the preceding periods since the coming in of the century, was prolific in works of a high order of merit. We have the poets, Chénier¹ and Béranger²; the novelists, Madame de Staël,³ Balzac, George Sand, and, last and greatest, Victor Hugo. In philosophy and science we find Cousin,⁴ Comte,⁵ Laplace,⁶ Arago, and Cuvier⁷; with the essayists and historians, Chateaubriand,⁸ Lamartine, Sismondi, Guizot,⁹ Michelet,¹⁰ Martin,¹¹ De Tocqueville,¹² and Sainte-Beuve¹³; lastly, the artists, Vernet,¹⁴ Houdon, and Delaroche.¹⁵

226. The Spanish Marriages; Political Banquets; Revolution of 1848. — In 1846 the queen of Spain married her cousin, and on the same day the king's youngest son married the queen's sister. This last alliance united the Spanish and French Bourbons. The English were strongly opposed to the union, since they feared that it might lead eventually to an extension of Louis Philippe's power to Spain. The liberal party in France were likewise alarmed, and the excitement was increased by the belief that the king had some deep design in bringing about the marriage of his son, which the English declared was done in violation of a solemn agreement that Louis Philippe was to defer the nuptials until the queen of Spain should become mother to an heir to the crown.

1 Chénier (shā-ne-á').
 2 Béranger (bā-rōn-zhā').
 3 De Staël (dēh stā-él).
 4 Cousin (koo-zān').
 5 Comte (kōnt').
 6 Laplace (lā-pliiss').
 7 Cuvier (kū-ve-á').
 8 Chateaubriand (shā-tō-bre-ōn').

9 Guizot (gē-zo' or gwe-zo').
 10 Michelet (mē-sh-lā').
 11 Martin (mār-tān').
 12 De Tocqueville (dēh tok-vēl').
 13 Sainte-Beuve (sānt-buv').
 14 Vernet (vēr-nā').
 15 Delaroche (d'lā-rosh').

The crisis of disaffection was reached in 1848. The great mass of the people were still without the ballot and had no direct voice in making the laws they were commanded to obey. Great reforms had taken place in this respect in England, and the French workingman now asked for the same rights that his fellow-toilers enjoyed on the other side of the Channel.

Banquets were held at which fiery speeches were made, demanding new concessions of political power to the people. The government determined to suppress these expressions of feeling. The attempt was made, and resulted in the Revolution of February, 1848. The king, believing it useless to resist the mob, abdicated and fled to England — that favorite refuge for monarchs retired from business. Hordes of drunken ruffians then sacked the palace of the Tuileries and threatened to reduce Paris to chaos.

The French Revolution excited the Chartists or Radical party in England to demand new political reforms,¹ which, though refused at the time, were conceded in great measure at a later date. Similar movements began in nearly every capital of Europe; so true is it that what is done in France is almost sure to be repeated or attempted elsewhere.

227. The Provisional Government; Republicans versus Communists; National Workshops. — A provisional government was now established, of which Lamartine was the real head. The inscription "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity" — words which mean much or little, according to their interpretation and application — was then ostentatiously painted in large letters on all public buildings, and also, as a means of conciliating the mob, on many private ones.

There were two leading parties in Paris: the moderate Republicans under Lamartine; and the Communists, who demanded an equal division of property, who wanted the state

¹ See The Leading Facts of English History in this series.

to provide work, and whose symbol was the Red Flag, meaning "Bread or Blood."

Barricades still existed in the streets, and the Socialists or Communists threatened to overthrow the Republicans as the Republicans had overthrown the monarchy. Lamartine resolved to try to pacify the mob by appealing to reason. "What do you want?" he asked. "Your head," shouted one of the crowd. "I only wish you had it on your shoulders," retorted the statesman; "then you would show more sense." Shouts and laughter greeted this sally, and the rabble grew good-natured.

But the Communists were determined that the state should do that impossible thing—find or make employment for all who demanded it. Through their influence National Workshops were established. These shops soon had about forty thousand persons on the government pay roll, at wages which began with five francs (\$1.00) a day, but before long diminished to six francs (\$1.20) a week. The shops turned out a disastrous failure. They not only ran the state in debt some fifteen million of francs (\$3,000,000) in a few months, but, what was worse, they seriously disturbed regular business, and weakened that individual power of self-help which is worth infinitely more to every man than any amount of government assistance.

The result was that the great body of citizens became disgusted with the very name of National Workshops, and called for their abolition. An order was accordingly issued requiring a certain proportion of the workmen, to enlist in the army or else provide for themselves. This order gave rise to a new and desperate insurrection on the part of the Communists. Paris became a battlefield; thousands of lives were lost, and at one time it seemed as though the city would be transformed into a veritable Red Republic.

228. The Second Republic; Louis Napoleon; Italy; the Coup d'État; Napoleon III. — Finally the republican forces

triumphed over anarchy, and in December, 1848, Louis Napoleon was elected president of the second French Republic for four years by universal suffrage. He declared, "My name is a symbol of order, nationality, and glory"; the country people believed in him as they had believed in the first Napoleon; to this fact he mainly owed his success in getting the position he coveted.

But the Legislative Assembly had learned to distrust the principle of universal suffrage, and now endeavored to limit it. The ground for this action was, first, the belief that most of the peasantry were too ignorant to be trusted with the ballot; and secondly, that if they continued to hold it, designing men would secure their votes to keep themselves permanently in power. Though Napoleon used his influence to prevent it, the assembly ultimately carried a bill restricting suffrage.

Meanwhile Italy, feeling the effects of the recent French Revolution, had risen and endeavored to throw off the Austrian yoke. An insurrection in Rome caused the flight of the pope, and under the influence of Garibaldi and Mazzini¹ a republic was proclaimed. Louis Napoleon, it is said, had pledged himself years before to favor Italian liberty; now, however, he sent troops to crush the Roman republic and reinstate the pope. This action secured him the ardent support of the Church.

At home a struggle of a different kind was going on. According to the terms of the newly adopted constitution, the president of the French Republic could not become a candidate for reelection until four years after his term of office had expired. Louis Napoleon's term would end in 1852. If the law was carried out, he could not run again until 1856. That was too long for him to wait, and he resolved to try what a *coup d'état*² would do in his favor. He made his preparations

¹ Mazzini (mät-see'nee).

² See Paragraph 221.

carefully and quietly, by putting his friends in the most important offices, by creating new generals favorable to his designs, and by gaining the good will of the army.

When all was ready, the *coup d'état* took place. At midnight of December 1, 1851, the chief opposition members of the Legislative Assembly were arrested and hurried from their beds to prison cells. Paris was filled with troops who held the city completely in their power. The next morning the citizens woke up to find themselves helpless to resist, and to read the following proclamation which was posted throughout the metropolis:

(1) The Legislative Assembly is dissolved; (2) universal suffrage is restored; (3) under the provision of universal suffrage a new general election is called for December 14; (4) Paris and suburbs are declared in a state of siege and subject to military law; (5) the Council of State is dissolved.

Some attempts at revolt were made in which several hundred lives were lost, but nothing was gained. Louis Napoleon sent many of the imprisoned legislators into exile,¹ or transported them, with others who resisted his power, to the pestilential marshes of the penal colony of Cayenne.²

Then he promulgated a new constitution which, among other changes, made the presidential term of office ten years instead of four, and which greatly increased the president's power. This condition was accepted by the country by a very large vote in its favor.

Napoleon was now sure of his position. There was but one step more for him to take to secure all that he desired. In less than a year he had taken it and reached the summit of his ambition. On November 21, 1852, by an almost unanimous vote, France made him emperor. On December 1 he

¹ Among those thus banished was the distinguished author, Victor Hugo. He retired to the island of Guernsey. The next year he published his satirical historical work, entitled *Napoléon le Petit* (Napoleon the Little).

² Cayenne: in French Guiana, South America.

took the title of Napoleon III. The next year he married the Countess Eugénie,¹ a Spanish lady of great beauty.

229. Public Improvements; the Crimean War; the War in Italy; Mexico. — It is reported that the first Napoleon, when told that the people of Paris were discontented, said, "Well, gild the dome of Les Invalides," — one of the principal public buildings, — "this will give them something to look at." Acting, perhaps, on the same principle, the new emperor began his improvements in the city.

Where there had been mazes of narrow, crooked, and filthy streets he laid out magnificent boulevards, straight as an arrow — a clear field for grapeshot if needful — and paved with asphalt, which no mob could dig up for barricades. At the same time he built a system of sewers superior to that of any capital in Europe or America. Thus both above ground and under ground the metropolis was benefited.

But the debt thereby created was enormous; taxes increased proportionately, and rents rose with them. For a time, however, all went prosperously. Thousands of workmen were employed at good wages, speculators and contractors made fortunes, and every one agreed that under the emperor's hand the most beautiful city in the world had now become more beautiful than ever.

In 1854 Napoleon formed an alliance with England against Russia, and engaged in that Crimean War which was undertaken to repel the advances of Russia in Turkey. The allies attacked the fortress and city of Sevastopol, on the Black Sea, and after nearly a year's siege succeeded in taking them. Peace was then made, and Turkey was accordingly secured, for the time, against Russian interference for either good or ill.

Five years later the emperor began a war against Austria, ostensibly in behalf of Italy. He declared that that country should be rescued from her cruel oppression. The Italians

¹ Eugénie de Montijo, Countess of Teba.

under Victor Emmanuel were endeavoring to establish their independence as a nation. The great body of the French people strongly sympathized with their efforts, and the war undertaken to assist them was highly popular.

"Italy," said Napoleon, "shall be free from the Alps to the Adriatic." Louis Napoleon, however, was not fighting merely for sentiment. He had made an agreement with Victor Emmanuel, by virtue of which the latter was to give him Savoy and Nice to annex to France as a recompense for his help. The French and Sardinians were successful in the campaign, and gained the victories of Montebello, Magenta, and Solferino. Had they pushed on, the whole of Italy might soon perhaps have been united under its chosen king.

Suddenly, without apparent reason, to the astonishment of all Europe, Napoleon met Francis Joseph, Emperor of Austria, at Villa Franca,¹ and concluded a peace whereby the Italians felt themselves sacrificed to Austria and the pope, though Lombardy was added to the dominions of Victor Emmanuel. Napoleon came out of the war with some military glory and with the two additions (Savoy and Nice) which he had coveted for France. The mystery of the Treaty of Villa Franca has since been explained; and it is now known that the threatened interference of Prussia and other German states in behalf of Austria forced the French emperor to make peace.

During the Civil War in the United States the French emperor was secretly hostile to the Union party, and took advantage of our position to endeavor to establish a Mexican empire under the rule of Maximilian of Austria. Undoubtedly any stable government would have been an advantage to that distracted country, but it was probably ambition, not love of Mexico, which animated the whole scheme.

The project, however, failed. The United States refused to recognize Maximilian, and demanded that Napoleon should

¹ Villa Franca: near Verona, Italy. See J. R. Lowell's poem, "Villa Franca."

withdraw his troops. He accordingly ordered their departure. Then Maximilian's wife, the Empress Carlotta, sought an interview with the French sovereign, and in tears and on her knees begged him to keep his promise and support her husband with his troops two years longer, according to the terms of a secret treaty. The emperor refused, — he probably could not have done differently, — and the unfortunate woman soon after went mad. A year later (1867) Maximilian was shot, and thus ended Napoleon's much-boasted "Latin Empire in the West."

230. The Suez Canal; the Franco-Prussian War. — But if the emperor failed in one quarter of the globe, one of his subjects brilliantly succeeded in another. Lesseps,¹ a French diplomatist and civil engineer, accomplished one of the greatest engineering triumphs ever undertaken. After ten years' labor and the expenditure by a stock company of three hundred million francs (\$60,000,000) he completed (1869) the Suez ship canal, by which the waters of the Mediterranean and the Red seas are united.

The work had been pronounced impossible by many good judges, and even the most eminent English engineers were skeptical of its accomplishment; but in this case French capital and energy converted them. The canal has not only been a financial success, but has had a most important influence on European trade. Ships which formerly had to go round the Cape of Good Hope to reach India and China now save many thousands of miles by this short cut to the East, and tea, coffee, spices, and other products of oriental countries have been rendered not only more accessible, but vastly cheaper than before.

There had long been an ill-feeling smoldering between France and Germany, growing originally out of the old Napoleonic wars, but recently from an effort of Louis Napoleon to acquire

¹ Lesseps (lă-sěp').