

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

Born Napoleone di Buonaparte on the French island of Corsica on August 15, 1769, he changed his surname to Bonaparte in 1796 following his first military victories and eventually became simply Napoleon—no surname required. His family was minor nobility with no military tradition, but he read military history voraciously and after an early education in "gentleman subjects," he attended a military school in France. Graduating at age 16, he became a second lieutenant in the artillery. When Corsica declared independence from France in 1793 he severed all ties with the island; he was henceforth a Frenchman, through and through.

During the French Revolution (1789–1799), many army officers fled the country, as they were also nobility. This opened up opportunities for military advancement based on merit rather than birth status. The young Napoleon was handed such an opportunity during the 1793 siege of Toulon, a port city in southern France that had rebelled against the Parisians controlling the revolution. The city had invited in British ships and turned command over to their officers. When the commander of the French artillery was wounded in September, Napoleon was named as his replacement. He performed skillfully and played a vital role in the fall of the city on December 19, for which he was promoted to brigadier general.

He always believed luck played a role in success, and Dame Fortune smiled upon him again in October 1795. When a Royalist revolt against the regime broke out in Paris, Napoleon squelched it with a "whiff of grapeshot" from a battery, killing and wounding hundreds and clearing the streets. He was rewarded with command of the Army of Italy.

Before leaving for his new position he married Josephine de Beauharnais, whose husband had been guillotined during the Reign of Terror. A graceful, attractive woman six years his senior, she had social position that the Corsican hoped would open doors for him. The passionate letters he wrote to her while on campaign indicated he was truly taken with her, and after he declared himself emperor in 1804, she was crowned Empress Josephine; she served as ambassador and hostess and returned to the French court some of the ceremony it had known under the monarchy. She was unable to produce a male heir for Napoleon, however, and he had their marriage annulled in 1810. He then married Marie-Louise of Austria but provided Josephine with a generous settlement and the two remained in close contact.

Napoleon in Italy, 1796-97

France's revolution was initially viewed by other European nations as an internal matter, but in August 1791 Austria and Prussia, in the declaration of Pillnitz, warned that they were willing to use force to protect King Louis XVI of France. The following April they began soliciting allies for war against the republican government in Paris, which responded by declaring war on Austria. From 1792 on, France found itself embroiled in wars with most nations of Europe; thanks to a new policy of conscription, the republicans are able to raise several large armies, named for their areas of responsibility. Napoleon left Paris to take command of the Army of Italy just days after marrying Josephine.

During 1796-97 he defeated Austrian armies at Lodi, Castiglione, Arcola and Rivoli. At Lodi he personally led a bayonet charge across a bridge to attack the Austrian rear guard. Impressed by his courage, his soldiers affectionately nicknamed their five-foot-two brigadier general "the Little Corporal." The end of 1797 saw him in control of Italy and Austria, and the peace he negotiated expanded France's holdings in Europe, including giving the Austrian Netherlands (Belgium) and Lombardy to France. Napoleon became a national hero.

He next hoped to invade a traditional enemy, Great Britain, against whom France had fought the Hundred Years War (1337–1453), but he soon realized he lacked the strength for a successful cross-channel invasion. Instead, on July 1, 1798, he invaded Egypt to interfere with Britain's trade lines with India and North Africa. Napoleon won several victories on land against the Turks, who controlled Egypt at the time, but his fleet suffered a severe defeat off Alexandria at the hands of British admiral Horatio Nelson.

Leaving most of his army behind, Napoleon returned to France and joined in an uprising against the ruling Directory. Following the coup of November 9, 1799, he became first consul and was virtually the ruler of France. To solidify his power, he rewrote the French Constitution in 1802, making himself consul for life; two years later he again fiddled with the constitution to declare himself emperor.

One result of Napoleon's campaign in Egypt was the discovery by one of his soldiers of the Rosetta Stone, which unlocked the language of hieroglyphics, greatly aiding the study of ancient Egypt.

Napoleon's Years of Glory

As emperor, Napoleon used his power to organize his country's civil laws into a single civil code. He improved transportation through a program of bridge- and canal-building and reformed the education system. He established leading universities and the Bank of France.

In the meantime, he used a strict conscription system to raise a powerful army and again invaded Austria in 1800, winning a victory on the Marengo Plain in northern Italy; this time, the peace terms recognized the Rhine River as the eastern border of France. His belligerence led to war with Britain in 1803, and two years later Russia and Austria allied with the British against him. To fund his wars, he sold 828,000 square miles of French territory on the North American continent to the young United States of America, an event known in the US as the Louisiana Purchase.

Between 1805 and 1807 he conducted a brilliant campaign marked by rapid maneuvering and violent attacks. Victories over the Austrians at Ulm, an Austro-Russian force at Austerlitz and the Russians at Friedland led to the Treaties of Tilsit with Russia and Prussia (respectively). These treaties made France and Russia allies and essentially split the European continent between the two. Prussia's territory was reduced by nearly half.

The Continental System

Napoleon used his control of European ports to institute a blockade, excluding British trade from the continent, a situation known as the Continental System. He had suffered another naval defeat at the hands of Horatio Nelson, at Trafalgar; if he couldn't invade Britain, he would bankrupt what he called the "nation of shopkeepers." The mutual trade-war blockades between France and Britain created the conditions that led to the War of 1812 between Britain and the United States.

His desire for complete blockade led Napoleon to occupy Portugal in 1807 and Spain in 1808, but Spanish and Portuguese troops aided by the British fought a determined resistance. Known as the Peninsular War, it would tie down 300,000 French soldiers between 1807 and 1814. By October 1813 the British commander in the Peninsular War, Arthur Wellesley, Duke of Wellington, had crossed the Pyrenees and invaded France.

During the years following the Treaties of Tilsit, Napoleon implemented throughout his European holdings a legal system known as the Napoleonic Code that did much to standardize laws. It guaranteed freedom of religion, abolished serfdom and established free schools for all citizens.

Le Grande Armee Meets Disaster in Russia

Russia initially joined its ally France in the Continental System blockade, but the effect was damaging to Russia's own trade, and ports were reopened to neutral ships on December 31, 1810, straining the Franco-Russian partnership. On June 24, 1812, Napoleon led an army of 600,000—*le Grand Armee*, the largest in the history of Europe up to that time—in an invasion of Russia. Unable to defeat such a force, the Russians fell back and adopted a scorched earth policy, burning buildings, crops, orchards and anything else that could be of use to the French.

Napoleon finally engaged the Russians at Borodino in September, an inconclusive battle with high casualties on both sides. On September 15, the French army entered the Russian capital of Moscow, but it was a Pyrrhic

victory: the population was gone, and the Russians set fire to the town. For over a month, Napoleon waited for his erstwhile partner to capitulate, but a bitter winter and no means of feeding his troops forced him to abandon Moscow. Freezing weather, starvation, desertion, harassing attacks by Cossacks, and a bloody battle at the Berezina River on November 27 reduced *le Grand Armee* from 600,000 to less than 100,000. The emperor returned to Paris to strengthen his forces there, but the disaster in Russia and the continuing war in Spain and Portugal had emboldened his enemies.

In the spring of 1813, Britain, Prussia, Portugal, Spain, Russia and Sweden along with minor German states formed the Sixth Coalition of nations allied against France. The emperor gathered his veterans and conscripted new recruits. Initially, he claimed victories at Lutzen and Bautzen and forced a peace that bought him time to raise additional troops, but in August Austria officially joined the coalition, tipping the balance. At the three-day Battle of Leipzig in October, the largest battle of the Napoleonic Wars, the coalition dealt Napoleon a devastating defeat. Ultimately he was forced back behind the Rhine, and an invasion of France was imminent. Napoleon's field marshals forced him to abdicate on April 11, 1814, and he was banished to the island of Elba.

Napoleon's Hundred Days

The following March, he escaped and returned to France, where he was still widely regarded as a hero, and assumed his role as emperor, displacing King Louis XVIII. This began a period known as the Hundred Days of Napoleon or simply The Hundred Days (actually 111 days, March 20–July 8, 1815). While he was raising a new army, Austria, Britain, Prussia and Russia agreed to a new coalition to oppose him. Knowing he would soon be vastly outnumbered, Napoleon chose to strike quickly into Belgium where he hoped to inject his army between an Anglo-Dutch force under his old enemy in Spain, the Duke of Wellington, and a Prussian Army under Field Marshal Prince Gebhard von Blücher and defeat each force separately.

In this campaign, however, the French emperor would not have the assistance of his exceptional former chief of staff, Louis Alexandre Berthier, who chose not to rejoin his old commander and instead personally escorted King Louis XVIII to safety. Berthier had been among those who forced Napoleon's abdication in 1814, believing that the long period of war had to end for the good of France.

After clashes at Ligny and Quatre Bras, Napoleon attacked Wellington's Anglo-Dutch army near Mont St. Jean, south of the village of Waterloo, Belgium, on June 18, 1815. After hours of bloody fighting, Wellington's line was close to breaking, but Blücher arrived with 48,000 Prussians in the late afternoon. The battered, outnumbered French army retreated back into France.

Napoleon abdicated a second time and was carried into exile on a British ship to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic. He died there May 5, 1821, at the age of 51. Claims arose that he had been gradually poisoned with arsenic, but most likely he died of stomach cancer, which also killed his father and sister Pauline. His remains were not returned to France until 1840 when he was interred at Les Invalides in Paris.

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE – IN SHORT...

Napoleon was born on the island of Corsica in 1769. His family had received French nobility status when France made Corsica a province in that year, and Napoleon was sent to France in 1777 to study at the Royal Military School in Brienne. In 1784, Napoleon spent a year studying at the Ecole Militaire in Paris, graduating as a Second Lieutenant of artillery. Sent to Valence on a peacetime mission, Napoleon whiled away the hours there educating himself in history and geography.

During the tumultuous years of the French Revolution, Napoleon fought well for the Republic, helping to defeat the British at Toulon. For his services there, he was made a Brigadier General. After the Directory came to power, Napoleon married Josephine de Beauharnais and gained command of the French army in Italy, where, after defeating the Austrians in 1797, he negotiated the Treaty of Campo Formio. This victory boosted Napoleon to widespread popularity when he returned to France. Eager to get rid of this potential challenger, the Directory agreed to let Napoleon take an army on an Egyptian campaign to capture Egypt and hamper British shipping to India. Napoleon's campaign in Egypt did not go as planned, and when he heard that the Directory was losing power, he abandoned his army and rapidly returned to Paris to take advantage of the situation, becoming the first of three consuls in the new government proclaimed in 1799.

As First Consul, Napoleon began a program to consolidate his power. He ended the current rift between France and the Church by instituting the Concordat of 1801. France was then involved in several wars. In 1802, Napoleon signed the Peace of Amiens, a temporary peace with the British. In order to be able to concentrate solely on his European affairs, he sold France's Louisiana territory to the U.S. in 1803. And in 1804, he set the foundation for much of Europe's legal system by establishing the Napoleonic Code. In 1804, Napoleon did away with the Consulate and crowned himself Emperor in an extravagant coronation ceremony.

In 1805, Napoleon was planning an invasion of England when the Russian and Austrian armies began marching towards France. Napoleon's forces defeated them at Austerlitz, but not before the British fleet had destroyed Napoleon's navy at Trafalgar. At this time, Napoleon expanded his Empire by creating the Confederation of the Rhine in Germany and the Grand Duchy of Warsaw in Poland. By now, Napoleon controlled almost all of Western Europe with the exception of Spain. He decided to try and destroy the economy of his major enemy, Britain, by instituting the Continental System, under which all European ports would refuse to accept British shipments. He failed in this task, and in trying to force Spain to comply touched off the Peninsular War. Russia and Prussia, however, did cooperate with Napoleon for a few years under the Treaty of Tilsit (1807).

In 1810, Josephine, although the mother of two children by her previous husband, had not yet provided Napoleon with any heirs; distressed by this, he had his marriage to her annulled and married the 18-year-old Austrian archduchess Marie Louise. She gave birth to a son in 1811. Around this time, Czar Alexander I withdrew Russia from the Continental System. In 1812, Napoleon's Grand Army entered Russia in order to punish Alexander, but the ravages of the deadly Russian winter decimated his army. Meanwhile, affairs in France began to look unstable. Napoleon rushed back to Paris and raised a new army, only to be defeated by a coalition of European forces at Leipzig in 1814.

Napoleon was then exiled to the isle of Elba, where he plotted his return. With the great powers of Europe deep in negotiations over how to redivide the continent, Napoleon escaped from Elba, sneaked into France, and raised a new army in the period known as the Hundred Days. In June 1815, the armies of Wellington and Blucher defeated Napoleon at Waterloo. Napoleon was again exiled, this time to distant Saint Helena in the South Atlantic, where he died in 1821.

MILITARY CAREER OF NAPOLEON

VICTORIES

Siege of Toulon (1793)
13 Vendémiaire (1795)
Montenotte (1796)
Second Dego (1796)
Mondovi (1796)
Lodi (1796)
Borghetto (1796)
Lonato (1796)
Castiglione (1796)
Rovereto (1796)
Bassano (1796)
Bridge of Arcole (1796)
Rivoli (1797)
Mantua (1796–1797)
Valvasone (1797)
Tarvis (1797)
Chobrakit (1798)
Pyramids (1798)
El Arish (1799)
Jaffa (1799)
Mount Tabor (1799)
Abukir (1799)
Marengo (1800)
Ulm (1805)
Austerlitz (1805)
Jena-Auerstedt (1806)
Poland Uprising (1806)
Eylau (1807)
Friedland (1807)
Somosierra (1808)
Teugn-Hausen (1809)
Abensberg (1809)
Landshut (1809)
Eckmühl (1809)
Ratisbon (1809)
Wagram (1809)
Smolensk (1812)
Borodino (1812)
Berezina (1812)
Lützen (1813)
Bautzen (1813)
Dresden (1813)
Hanau (1813)
Brienne (1814)
Champaubert (1814)
Montmirail (1814)
Château-Thierry (1814)
Vauchamps (1814)
Mormans (1814)
Montereau (1814)
Craonne (1814)
Reims (1814)
Saint-Dizier (1814)
Ligny (1815)

DEFEATS

Second Bassano (1796)
Acre (1799)
Aspern-Essling (1809)
Krasnoi (1812)
Leipzig (1813)
Battle of La Rothière (1814)
Laon (1814)
Waterloo (1815)

INDECISIVE

Caldiero (1796)
Arcis-Sur-Aube (1814)

NAPOLEON – DOMESTIC POLICIES

HOW FAR DID NAPOLEON ESTABLISH A DICTATORSHIP IN FRANCE?

This question was answered referring to “*three steps*” 1799; 1802 and 1804:

CONSTITUTION OF THE CONSULATE 1799

SIX MILLION MALE VOTERS: Fairly wide suffrage – but they could only vote for men to be placed on lists of those fit for public service – a national list.

NATIONAL LIST: 6000 men were chosen to be on the national list. 400 of those would be appointed to the Legislature or the Tribunal.

THE LEGISLATURE: 300 men would be chosen for this body. They passed laws but did not discuss them. This body was full of Napoleon supporters.

THE TRIBUNATE: 100 men would be chosen for this body. The Tribunal could only discuss legislation – not pass any laws. It went against Napoleon only once – in 1802 about the Civil Code. In 1808 this body faded away...

THE SENATE: 60 Senators would sit on this board. They would be consulted about legislation and could defy the First Consul. Since they were given high social status, large estates and high salaries they would not turn against the will of the First Consul – Napoleon.

STATE COUNCIL: The 40 men that sat in the Conseil d'état were chosen by the First Consul – Napoleon. They would suggest legislation on the First Consul's instructions.

THREE CONSULS: Napoleon became First Consul (the two other Consuls would only be able to give advice).

FIRST CONSUL = NAPOLEON: He would control ministers; he would introduce legislation; he would decide foreign policy. State officials would answer to the First Consul (Napoleon) which included their appointment and dismissal.

CORRUPTION? The Consulate Constitution never worked very well. A plebiscite 1800 about the acceptance of the new constitution gave 3 million votes for and 1500 against. Morris claims that it was a corrupt referendum and most likely only 20% voters would approve the Consulate's constitution. The problems of putting together the lists made Napoleon abandon this system in 1802.

1802 SYSTEM: Instead of the national list the adult males now got to elect rich tax-payers to a department board. From these boards men were elected to the central government. This is how Napoleon got the bourgeois property-owners into his administration. There he made sure they got great interest on their investments as well as assurances of not losing their properties (often properties that had been owned by the Church or nobility).

NAPOLEON CONSUL FOR LIFE: In 1802 Napoleon was offered the position as Consul for life. A plebiscite showed an overwhelming support for this. Plots of assassinating Napoleon existed. When revealed the plotters were executed swiftly or were kidnapped and murdered.

1804 – EMPEROR: In 1804 Napoleon made himself Emperor. His wife Josephine became Empress and the title was made hereditary in Napoleons family. The monarchy was back! Sine Josephine failed to bear Napoleon a son he divorced here in 1809 and married Marie-Louise of Austria the year after. In 1811 a son was born – but he would never grow up to become an Emperor.

THE LEGISLATURE: This body fell silent and powerless doing as it was told.

THE TRIBUNATE: This body also fell silent and was dissolved in 1808.

THE SENATE: This body was controlled by Napoleon and passed the laws he saw necessary.

STATE COUNCIL: Just like the Senate – they were controlled by Napoleon and passed the laws he saw necessary.

PATRONAGE: Napoleon instituted a new honor system to reward those in state service and to ensure loyalty.

1802 – *Legion of Honor* (distinguished military service + a few civilians)

1804 – *Sénatoreries* – granted to Senators. Large salaries, palaces and huge lands

1804-08 – *Imperial nobility and Court positions*. Mostly rewarded to militaries 4/5. 18 Generals became Marshalls. The titles also carried along large estates and salaries.

After 1808 – New Imperial Nobility. 3600 people – Princes (Grand Dignatories); Counts Senators and Archbishops); Barons (Bishops and Mayors). Usually estates in conquered territories...

EDUCATION

OBEDIENCE AND SIMPLE EDUCATION FOR ORDINARY PEOPLE: Napoleon demanded obedience from the children of ordinary people. They did not need higher education – “*simple moral education*” was enough.

1802 – LYCÉES: In the Lycées approved teachers would teach the same curriculum to their students and select the best boys for military education. Since the schools were not free (except for the sons of officers) the Lycées were only for people who could afford it.

1806 – IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY: The Imperial University acted as a ministry of education overseeing all education. It supervised the teachers and examinations. Napoleons firm control enabled him to direct the political and moral opinions of the country – and add that to education.

PRIVATE CHURCH SCHOOLS: Several children from the property-owning class were sent to private church schools were the regimented state system of Napoleon didn’t affect the education.

NAPOLEONIC EDUCATION: Under the new system, elementary schools (*écoles populaires*) were to be the responsibility of the local municipalities. Napoleon had relatively little interest in this level of education and was not firmly committed to the mass education that would result from a state-wide elementary education system. As a result, the religious schools were to share a significant amount of the responsibility for elementary education. Secondary education, however, was the base education for the future leaders of the nation, as well as members of the bureaucracy and the military; hence, Napoleon’s greater interest. The state had a strong interest in the curriculum being presented, and control would be easier if they established a system of secondary schools under the direction of a central authority. Many of these secondary schools would be established by private initiative, including clerical, but all such schools were controlled by the state. Covering students roughly from age 10-16, they would provide a level of education designed to provide students for higher levels of education.

SECONDARY LEVEL – LYCÉE: The heart of the new system was the establishment of thirty lycées, which provided educational opportunities beyond the secondary schools and replaced the *écoles centrales*. Every appeal court district was to have a lycée, and they were to be completely supported, and controlled, by the state. Scholarships were provided, with about one-third going to sons of the military and government, and the rest for the best pupils from the secondary schools. The lycées had a six-year term of study, building on the work of the secondary schools. The curriculum included languages, modern literature, science, and all other studies necessary for a “liberal” education. Each lycée was to have at least eight teachers, as well as three masters (a headmaster, an academic dean, and a bursar). In a reflection of modern debate on the subject, the government provided a fixed salary for teachers, but also provided bonuses for successful teachers. They were also provided a pension. Teachers were, incidentally, chosen by Napoleon from a list of recommendations provided by inspectors and the Institute. The inspectors were given over-all responsibility for inspecting the schools on a regular basis.

It is clear that the new system of education introduced by Napoleon had more than one purpose. It was intended, of course, to provide an educated elite that could help run the country and the military. It was also designed to provide for an increased middle class; a middle class that would be successful and hence non-revolutionary. Moreover, there was a great emphasis on patriotism in the schools; an emphasis that was to increase during the years of the empire.

IMPERIAL UNIVERSITY: When Napoleon became Emperor in December of 1804, he became even more interested in centralized control of the educational system. He therefore established the Imperial University in 1808. The Imperial University was actually something of a compromise with those who wanted to eliminate private education altogether. This allowed private schools to exist but put them under strict public control and demanded various taxes from them, designed to reduce the educational outlay of the central government. The quality of instruction in private schools was controlled, however, in part by a requirement that teachers must have degrees. Teachers were placed under stricter controls, including dress, discipline, and salary.

SUMMARY: The system of education under the Imperial University was as follows. First was elementary education. This was, as before, the lowest priority of Napoleon. Following that was the secondary education of the middle class. As before, Napoleon placed the greatest emphasis on this level of education. The lycées were, as before, mainly boarding schools supported by the state and providing a six-year course heavy on

the Classics and mathematics. Along with them were the collèges which were municipal or communal secondary schools, a bit lower than the lycées. These schools stressed French, Latin, geography, history and mathematics. There were also some independent schools known as instituts, which were more or less the equivalent of the collèges. This system was not, of course, uniquely Napoleonic; it mirrored ideas of earlier systems as well as other systems in Europe. It is also no surprise to learn that Napoleon stressed various military aspects in his schools, including uniforms, formations, music, and discipline.

SOURCE: http://www.napoleon-series.org/research/society/c_education.html

ECONOMY: To 1806 Napoleon financed his armies without resorting to crippling taxation and without suffering from excessive debt and inflation. The background to the sound economy was:

- *A Central Treasury administered and supervised tax officials and prefects*
- *Expenditure and income were carefully monitored and recorded*
- *The Bank of France regulated the money supply*
- *Metal currency (silver franc) replaced paper money*
- *Indirect taxes and customs dues were increased to inject money into the Treasury (Tobacco, alcohol and salt taxes quadrupled)*

Support from the bourgeoisie (land taxes remained static – interest was paid on the National debt). Plunder from foreign conquests financed the armies, kept prices low and provided employment. This enabled Napoleon to balance the budget.

1806-1811 – ESCALATING ECONOMIC PROBLEMS: After 1806 the plunder was less plentiful, and France starts to face economic problems. The huge armies were expensive. By 1810 the debt was so big that France nearly faced financial ruin. Inflation, collapsing banks, bankrupt firms and rising unemployment. Taxes doubled and in 1811 France was hit by bad harvest which affected the bread price. The economic crises hit the bourgeoisie bad and they now deserted Napoleon...

GENERAL ECONOMY DURING THE NAPOLEONIC ERA: There was now real growth of the economy during the Napoleonic era. Compared with Great Britain we did not see any growth of the agricultural, industrial and transport sections. The birth rate was also low. The Russian campaign (1812) robbed France of about a third of young men in marriage age. Capital was in short and the technology was backward. Farming techniques remained old-fashioned. There was some increase in the agricultural output but that was due to more acreage.

There was really no industrial development. No big factories – mostly a pre-industrial small-scale cottage-based industry. Mechanization had a long way to go. Industrial wages declined and fell below rising prices and taxes. France also suffered from poor communications which meant that the gains from the Continental System could not be used in a proper way.

CONTINENTAL SYSTEM: It was impossible to enforce the Continental System and smuggling became very common. The French Navy was weak, and the system hit the Atlantic trading areas as well as the ship building industry (Britain ruled the sea). The positive effects were noticed inland and in the south. The trade with the German and Italian states as well as the East developed. It also gave the French industrialists a huge protected market. Conquered people had to buy French goods at high prices. Alsace and Belgium did well but in other areas the advantages were insignificant. The Continental System brought Napoleon down:

1. *The campaign against Spain was partly because of trying to enforce the Continental System*
2. *The campaign against Russia was also connected to an attempt to enforce the Continental System*

Was Great Britain affected by the Continental System? The economy of Britain was strong, but the Continental System did cause distress. Export declined, and Britain was short of gold to pay for imports.

RELIGION: During the French revolution we see a decline in the relation between France and the Catholic Church (Pope). Since the majority of the French population was Catholic Napoleon realized the necessity to contact and build up some relation with the Pope. In **1801** a **Concordat** was signed between Napoleon and Pope Pius VII. The Concordat said that:

- *The Pope was recognized as the Head of the Catholic Church*
- *The French state would pay and appoint the clergy and senior position (Bishops – Archbishops)*
- *The Catholic clergy would obey the state (oath)*
- *The Church would not get any land back (from the confiscation during the revolution)*

With these agreements Catholicism once again became the official religion. Napoleon had several motives for this – he wanted to make sure that the royalists and the Church would not team up against his rule and he

wanted to create his own dynasty and therefore wanted the support from the Pope for the new Royal family. Napoleon also understood that the church remained a powerful institution, so it was important that the French government would be able to control it. In **1802** he presented the ***Organic Articles*** which gave him the power to appoint the Bishops. He could then use them to encourage conscription, to forward government propaganda and decrees and most of all to back up his authority.

PROBLEMS: In 1806 some tension came between Napoleon and the Pope because France changed the Catholic catechism and also made Napoleon a saint (August 16 became Saint Napoleon's Day). The fact that Napoleon was tolerant towards Protestants and Jews caused more tension.

DID NAPOLEON RECEIVE SUPPORT FROM THE CLERGY? In the beginning Napoleon received support from the clergy – they officially stood behind the army and state. To avoid conscription was against the will of God and deserters were condemned and confession was denied them. Some clergy remained stubbornly royalist (for the Bourbon dynasty). In some years the Church started to gain ground. Education and private church schools became very popular. The clergy did object being civil servants and expressed critique against the state. Napoleons annexation of the Papal state (and arresting the Pope) in 1808-09 did not make their relation better...

CENTRALIZATION AND CONTROL

PREFECTS AND POLICE: Napoleon's control over France was based on his strong army, his police force and the Prefects. Each department (district) had a Prefect ("*Governor*") who was nominated by Napoleon. They ensured that taxes were collected, conscription carried out and reported on any opposition against Napoleon. This was done through the Ministries of the Interior and Police. The Prefects were also responsible for censorship and propaganda. The social background of the Prefects varied – from old nobility, middle class or the military. The principal issue was their loyalty towards Napoleon. **Joseph Fouché**, "*Minister of Police*" between 1799-1810, became very important for Napoleon. His police force would spy on individuals, search for deserters, supervise prisons, act as censors, and provide constant intelligence about the public. Fouché was required to send daily reports to Napoleon! So Napoleon had the Ministry of the Interior and Police with Fouché and the Prefects to control France. On top of this he also had his own spies. These networks of spies made sure that the enemies of Napoleon did not trouble the regime.

LAW: The legal system was reorganized under Napoleon. Special new courts were set up. Political courts dealt with opposition against the state and military courts dealt with terrorists. In 1810 the government increased its powers by reintroducing imprisonment without trial. Judges were usually appointed for life, but they were closely supervised. The ***Civil Code (Code Napoleon)*** unified the law system of France in 1804. The legal codes asserted male rights, particularly in marriage and property ("*a wife owes her obedience to her husband*"). Women's status suffered from the new law system. Napoleon continued to reform the laws. The work of codifying laws came to its conclusion when the ***Commercial, Criminal and Penal Codes*** were published. Hard labor and harsh punishments became common. The laws protected the new property-owners who in return continued to support Napoleon (until the collapse of the economy when he severely increased their taxes).

CENSORSHIP: The government kept a firm hold on papers, books, theatres, artists and information – everything was under state control. If the news published didn't please Napoleon and his Ministers, they rewrote them. 73 political journals that existed just a few years earlier (during the Directory) were cut down to nine! By 1809 each paper had its own censor. Booksellers, publishers and editors faced grim punishment if they tried to slip anything passed the censor. Theatres had to have a state license. Artists, architects and sculptors were employed to celebrate the achievements of Napoleon (like Jacques-Louis David). In this very centralized state Napoleon had huge personal power.

PROBLEMS: It was basically two problems in the police state that existed. The first one was desertions and avoidance of conscription (especially after the Russian campaign 1812-1813). The second one was gangs of vagabonds who terrorized rural areas during periods of economic depression.