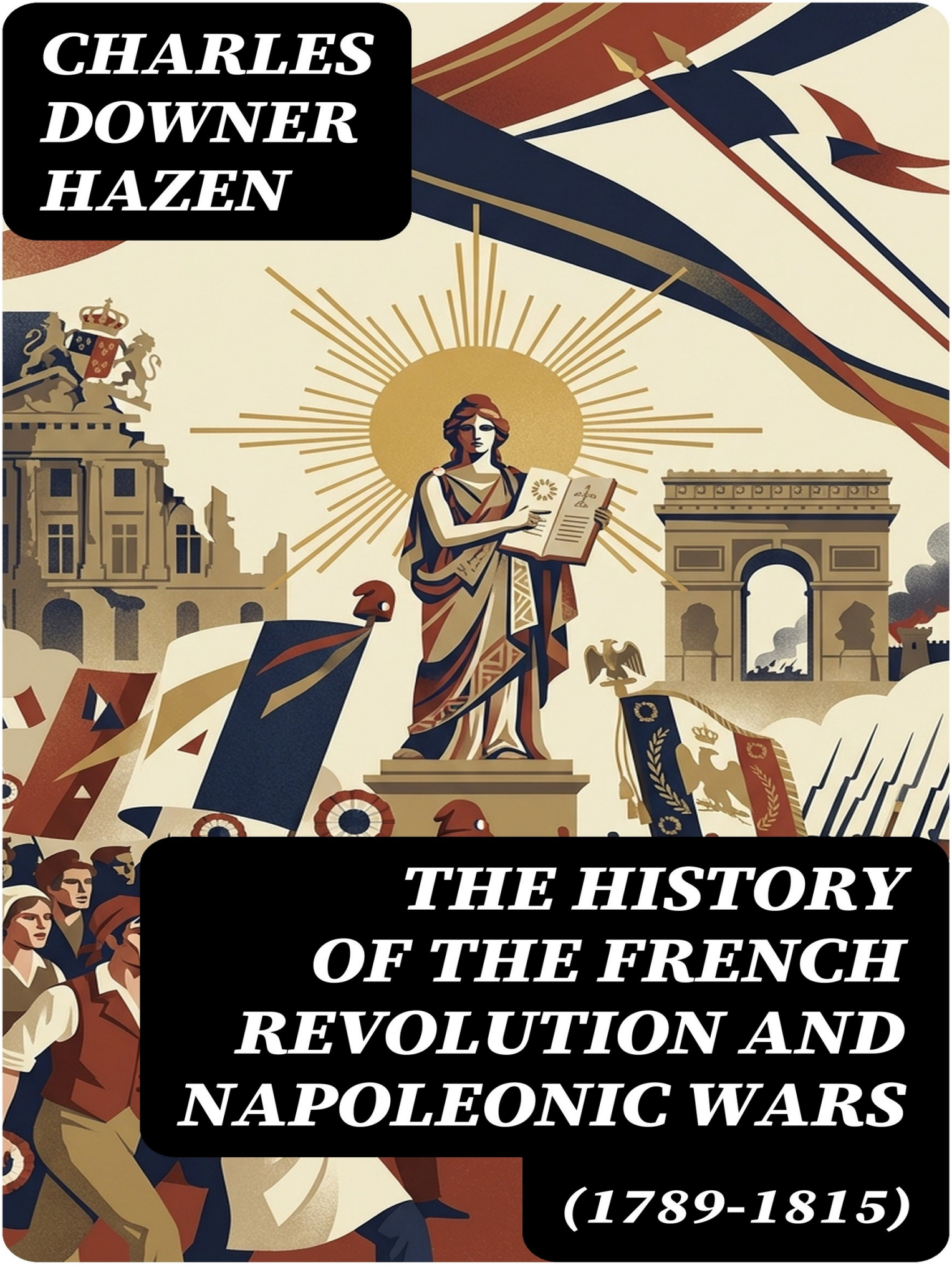
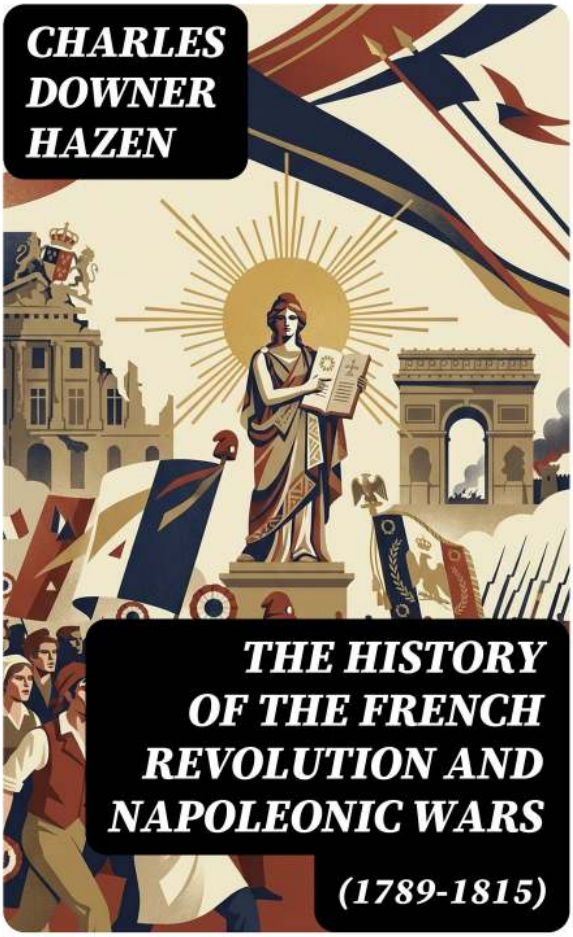
CHARLES DOWNER HAZEN



THE HISTORY OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION AND NAPOLEONIC WARS

(1789-1815)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The History of the French Revolution and Napoleonic Wars (1789-1815)

Enriched edition.

Introduction, Studies and Commentaries by Darren Fox

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Introduction

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In The French Revolution and Napoleonic Wars, Charles Downer Hazen follows the dramatic arc by which a cry for liberty, equality, and civic renewal convulsed an old regime, reconfigured Europe through unprecedented mass mobilization and ideological zeal, and, in a profound paradox, cleared the path from radical experiment to centralized order under military leadership, revealing how hopes for popular sovereignty collided with the urgencies of war, how social transformation and state power fed one another, and how the struggle to define citizenship, rights, and authority could simultaneously unleash emancipation and discipline, innovation and continuity, upheaval and consolidation, promise and peril.

Composed by American historian Charles Downer Hazen in the early twentieth century, this book is a work of narrative history and analytical synthesis that surveys the upheavals spanning roughly 1789 to 1815. Its setting extends from the streets and assemblies of revolutionary France to the continental theaters where alliances shifted and campaigns unfolded. Written for a broad audience of students and general readers, it presents a concise, structured account anchored in the scholarship available at the time. Without indulging in antiquarian detail, Hazen situates political, social, and military developments within a continuous story of European transformation with France at its center.

The premise is straightforward yet capacious: to trace how a domestic revolution became a continental conflict and how that conflict, in turn, reshaped the revolution’s purposes. Hazen’s voice is measured and instructive, his style lucid and orderly, favoring clear transitions and careful causal links over rhetorical flourish. Readers can expect a chronologically guided narrative that pauses for interpretive emphasis at pivotal moments, maintaining momentum while explaining context. The tone is judicious rather than polemical, aiming to show how ideas, institutions, leaders, and crowds interacted, and how pressures of governance and war altered both the means and ends of political change.

Among the book’s central themes are the roots of revolutionary ferment and the mechanics of radicalization. Hazen highlights how fiscal distress, social hierarchies, and evolving political language opened space for new claims about rights and sovereignty. He follows the movement from constitutional experimentation to mass participation, noting the push and pull between legal frameworks and street-level energy. War emerges as a catalyst that tests ideals under stress, accelerating administrative innovation and hardening factional lines. Throughout, the analysis balances structural forces—economic strain, institutional inertia, diplomatic rivalries—with human agency, showing how decisions at crucial junctures redirected the course of events.

A second recurring concern is state-building under duress. The narrative traces how new forms of mobilization, recruitment, and administration expanded the capacity of governments, even as debates over legitimacy and

citizenship intensified. Hazen treats Europe as an interactive system, attending to how neighboring powers responded to French initiatives and how conflict carried institutions and ideas across borders. He underscores the dynamic relationship between reform and command, between lawmaking and the logic of emergency, and between national aspiration and international order. Rather than isolating battles from policies, he weaves military pressures into the broader question of how modern states evolve in times of existential threat.

These themes remain pertinent for contemporary readers because the problems the book considers have not disappeared: how societies manage crisis, how ideals adapt when confronted by scarcity and danger, and how popular movements engage with bureaucratic power. Hazen's account clarifies the durable patterns by which wartime exigencies shape domestic politics, how narratives of unity can mobilize or restrict, and how reform can coexist with concentration of authority. In an age of rapid change, the book's attention to institutions, public opinion, and international entanglements offers a disciplined framework for thinking about political transformation without reducing it to hero-worship or fatalism.

Approached as both an introduction to a formative era and a reflection on the mechanics of historical change, The French Revolution and Napoleonic Wars rewards careful reading. Its clarity and balance make it useful to newcomers, while its thematic coherence invites more experienced readers to reconsider familiar events in a connected, comparative light. Hazen's synthesis endures as

a map through a turbulent landscape, showing how the pursuit of liberty encountered the demands of security and how conflict can accelerate, channel, or compromise reform. In presenting that tension without sensationalism, the book remains a steady guide to the origins of modern political life.

Synopsis

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Charles Downer Hazen presents a compact, analytical survey of the upheavals that reshaped Europe from the fall of the Old Regime in France to the close of the Napoleonic era. He opens by situating the French monarchy’s financial exhaustion, the entrenched privileges of corporate orders, and the intellectual ferment of the Enlightenment within a broader European context. The convocation of the Estates-General appears as a structural crisis, not a sudden accident, and the author traces how social expectations outgrew institutional forms. Without dramatization, he outlines the pressures that made compromise elusive and made questions of sovereignty, representation, and rights newly urgent.

Following the convening assembly’s transformation into a national legislature, Hazen recounts the initial phase of reform, when the revolutionaries dismantled feudal dues, proclaimed civic equality, and attempted to recast a constitutional monarchy. He examines how Parisian politics, provincial anxieties, and economic distress propelled accelerating change, while disputes over the church, property, and executive power hardened factions. Rather than foregrounding personalities, he emphasizes institutional redesign: departmental administration, citizen militias, and new legal principles. The narrative tracks how the search for a balanced constitution collided with distrust,

testing whether a regenerated monarchy could coexist with a popular conception of national sovereignty.

As the revolution widened, Hazen shows foreign war and domestic fracture feeding each other, compelling emergency measures and a more centralized, militant republic. He presents the escalating mobilization, the rise of surveillance and committees, and the ideological conflicts that defined competing visions of virtue, security, and representation. The book considers the costs of improvising government under siege without sensationalizing violence, keeping focus on policy aims and institutional outcomes. The result is a portrait of a state learning to harness mass participation for war, while struggling to reconcile expansive ideals with harsh necessities—tensions that would shape both governance and diplomacy.

With the crisis ebbing, the Thermidorian reaction ushers in the Directory, which Hazen portrays as a cautious, constitutional experiment constrained by war, fiscal weakness, and mistrust. Electoral maneuvers, coups, and administrative tinkering reveal a regime reliant on military success to legitimize civilian rule. In this setting, the author traces the emergence of successful generals as political actors, culminating in the ascent of Napoleon Bonaparte. Campaigns abroad brought territorial settlements and prestige, while at home executive authority consolidated. Hazen reads the period less as sudden rupture than as continuity of the revolutionary quest for order, legality, and effective administration.

Under the Consulate, Hazen highlights Napoleon’s consolidation of institutions that fused revolutionary

principles with authoritarian control. Codification of civil law, merit-based careers, centralized prefectures, educational reforms, and a religious settlement with Rome exemplify a program that promised stability and efficiency while narrowing the space for dissent. The narrative weighs administrative rationalization against curtailed liberties, noting the redefinition of citizenship around service and obedience as well as rights. By stressing structure over spectacle, the book maps how legal equality, property security, and state capacity advanced, even as political pluralism receded, setting the framework through which subsequent continental ambitions were pursued.

Turning to empire and war, Hazen examines the reordering of Europe through annexations, allied monarchies, and confederations, alongside a commercial strategy that sought to deny Britain continental markets. He tracks how exported reforms met local conditions—sometimes welcomed, often resisted—and how extended campaigning strained finances, loyalty, and logistics. Coalition diplomacy hardened, national sentiment intensified, and the balance between military victory and political settlement grew precarious. Without reducing events to a single cause, the account underscores the cumulative effect of overextension and counter-mobilization, preparing the ground for a decisive reversal that would end an experiment in continental hegemony and reccast European politics.

The closing chapters assess the transformation left in the revolution’s and empire’s wake: altered notions of sovereignty, the spread of legal uniformity, new

administrative norms, and an awakened language of national belonging. Hazen is attentive to paradoxes—emancipation coexisting with domination, reform conveyed by conquest—and to the durable institutions that survived political collapse. Rather than offering a simple verdict, the work invites reflection on how ideals translated into governance under pressure, and how power redefined those ideals. Its enduring resonance lies in clarifying the origins of modern statecraft and citizenship, and in tracing the long debate between liberty, order, and collective mobilization.

Historical Context

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Charles Downer Hazen’s subject opens in late eighteenth-century France under the Bourbon monarchy, where centralized royal authority coexisted with entrenched privileges. The Estates—clergy, nobility, and the Third Estate—framed representation, while provincial parlements contested ministerial reforms. Fiscal crisis intensified after costly participation in the American War of Independence, exposing structural tax inequities. Enlightenment writers questioned absolute monarchy, religious authority, and corporate privilege, shaping political language. Louis XVI’s decision to convene the Estates-General at Versailles in 1789 placed Paris, provincial towns, and village communities at the center of events, with institutions from guilds to the Catholic Church implicated in a society on the cusp of transformation.

Events in 1789 rapidly redefined authority. Delegates of the Third Estate proclaimed themselves the National Assembly, swore the Tennis Court Oath to craft a constitution, and faced the fall of the Bastille as Parisian crowds asserted civic power. Rural unrest fed the Great Fear, prompting the August decrees abolishing many feudal privileges. The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen articulated liberty and equality before the law. Municipal revolutions installed new councils and a citizen National Guard. The October days brought the royal family

from Versailles to Paris, anchoring politics in the capital and accelerating institutional reconstruction.

Reform soon met religious and geopolitical strain. The Civil Constitution of the Clergy (1790) reorganized the Church and split opinion with an oath requirement. A constitutional monarchy emerged in 1791, but the king's failed flight to Varennes undermined confidence. Factions divided—Feuillants favoring limited monarchy, Jacobins pushing further change. Abroad, the Declaration of Pillnitz signaled wary monarchies; at home, the Legislative Assembly declared war on Austria in April 1792. Military setbacks and the Brunswick Manifesto intensified fears, culminating in the August 10 insurrection and suspension of the monarchy. Popular societies and sections drove politics as France shifted toward republican government.

In 1792–1794, the National Convention proclaimed a republic and confronted internal revolt and foreign invasion. Louis XVI's trial and execution in January 1793 coincided with emergency governance by the Committee of Public Safety, supporting mass conscription through the levée en masse. The Revolutionary Tribunal and the Law of Suspects targeted perceived enemies; civil war in the Vendée and federalist resistance tested cohesion. Military reorganization improved performance on several fronts. The Thermidorian Reaction in July 1794 ended the most radical phase and recalibrated institutions. War, political clubs, and surveillance had expanded state capacity, leaving a complex legacy for subsequent regimes.

The Constitution of Year III established the Directory in 1795, with a bicameral legislature—the Councils of Five

Hundred and of Ancients—and a five-man executive. Persistent inflation, political conspiracies, and ongoing coalitions against France pushed leaders to rely on generals. Napoleon Bonaparte’s Italian campaign (1796–1797) defeated Austrian forces and secured the Treaty of Campo Formio. His Egyptian expedition (1798) sought strategic advantage but suffered a crippling naval setback at the Battle of the Nile. At home, the coup of 18 Fructidor (1797) curtailed royalist gains. The regime’s instability and military dependence set conditions for a new concentration of power.

The coup of 18 Brumaire (1799) inaugurated the Consulate, with Bonaparte as First Consul consolidating executive authority. Domestic measures stabilized France: the Bank of France (1800), prefects administering departments (1800), a reformed secondary-school system of lycées (1802), and the Legion of Honor (1802). The Concordat of 1801 reconciled Church and state, while the Civil Code of 1804 standardized private law, property, and family relations under centralized principles. Plebiscites endorsed constitutional changes, and in 1804 Bonaparte became Emperor of the French. Administrative centralization, legal codification, and controlled public opinion formed the institutional framework that Hazen foregrounds in explaining subsequent military power.

Napoleon’s wars reshaped Europe through successive coalitions. In 1805 French victories culminated at Austerlitz; the Holy Roman Empire dissolved in 1806. Prussia fell at Jena-Auerstedt, and the Continental System sought to isolate Britain. The Peninsular War from 1808 tied down

forces amid fierce resistance and guerrilla warfare. After the 1812 invasion of Russia ended disastrously, European powers regrouped and triumphed at Leipzig in 1813. Napoleon abdicated in 1814, briefly returned during the Hundred Days, and was defeated at Waterloo in 1815. The Congress of Vienna restored dynasties, redrew boundaries, and initiated the Concert of Europe to stabilize the postwar order.

Charles Downer Hazen, an American historian at Columbia University, wrote on the French Revolution and Napoleon in the early twentieth century for a broad Anglophone readership. His treatment integrates political institutions, diplomacy, and military campaigns, reflecting a scholarly tradition shaped by sources-driven narrative and comparative European history. He places revolutionary principles—citizenship, equality before the law, secular authority—alongside the administrative consolidation under Napoleon, weighing reform against coercion and war. Hazen’s era, marked by mass mobilization in World War I, sharpened attention to conscription, national resources, and balance-of-power politics. The work thus appraises enduring legal legacies while critically assessing radical excess and imperial authoritarianism.

The French Revolution and Napoleonic Wars

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Preface

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"No historian believes that history repeats itself. Yet, between different ages there are frequently-striking analogies and resemblances. It is problems that repeat themselves, not the conditions which determine their solution. One of these problems, recurrent in European annals, is that of the maintenance of a certain balance of power among the various nations as essential to their freedom, the maintenance of a situation to which they are accustomed and which they have found tolerable, a change in which would be prejudicial or dangerous to their peace and safety. Several times in modern history this balance has been threatened and Europe has purchased immunity from servitude by freely giving its life blood that life might remain and might be worth living. To an age like our own, caught in the grip of a world war, whose issues, however incalculable, will inevitably be profound, there is much instruction to be gained from the study of a similar crisis in the destinies of humanity a century ago. The most dramatic and most impressive chapter of modern history was written by the French Revolution and by Napoleon. And between that period and our own not only are there points of interesting and suggestive comparison but there is also a distinct line of causation connecting the two.

For the convenience of those who may wish to review this memorable and instructive period I have brought together in this volume the chapters dealing with it in my

Modern European History. In the opening twentieth century, as in the opening nineteenth, mankind has been driven to the ordeal by battle by the resolve to preserve the most cherished things of life. Now, as then, civilization hangs upon the arbitrament of the sword. It is not churches alone that owe their existence and their power to the blood of the martyrs. The most precious rights of nations and of individuals have not only been achieved, but have been maintained inviolate, by the unconquerable spirit of the brave.

"Great is the glory, for the strife is hard!"

C. D. H.
January 10, 1917.

The Old Regime in Europe

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Anyone who seeks to understand the stirring period in which we are now living becomes quickly aware that he must first know the history of the French Revolution, a movement that inaugurated a new era, not only for France but for the world. The years from 1789 to 1815, the years of the Revolution and of Napoleon, effected one of the greatest and most difficult transitions of which history bears record, and to gain any proper sense of its significance one must have some glimpse of the background, some conception of what Europe was like in 1789. That background can only be sketched here in a few broad strokes, far from adequate to a satisfactory appreciation, but at least indicating the point of departure.

What was Europe in 1789? One thing, at least, it was not: it was not a unity**[1q]**. There were states of every size and shape and with every form of government. The States of the Church were theocratic; capricious and cruel despotism prevailed in Turkey; absolute monarchy in Russia, Austria, France, Prussia; constitutional monarchy in England; while there were various kinds of so-called republics federal republics in Holland and Switzerland, a republic whose head was an elective king in Poland, aristocratic republics in Venice and Genoa and in the free cities of the Holy Roman Empire.

Of these states the one that was to be the most persistent enemy of France and of French ideas throughout

the period we are about to describe was England, a commercial and colonial empire of the first importance. This empire, of long, slow growth, had passed through many highly significant experiences during the eighteenth century. Indeed that century is one of the most momentous in English history, rendered forever memorable by three great series of events which in important respects transformed the national life of England and her international relations, giving them the character and tendency which have been theirs ever since. These three streams of tendency or lines of evolution out of which the modern power of Britain has emerged were: the acquisition of what are still the most valuable parts of her colonial empire, Canada and India; the establishment of the parliamentary system of government, that is, government of the nation by its representatives, not by its royal house, the undoubted supremacy of Parliament over the Crown; and the beginnings of what is called the Industrial Revolution, that is, of the modern factory system of production on a vast scale which during the course of the nineteenth century made England easily the chief industrial nation of the world.

The evolution of the parliamentary system of government had, of course, been long in progress but was immensely furthered by the advent of in 1714 a new royal dynasty, the House of Hanover**[2]**, the House of still at this hour the reigning family. The struggle between Crown and Parliament, which had been long proceeding and had become tense and violent in the seventeenth century in connection with the attempts of the Stuart kings to make the monarchy all-powerful and supreme, ended finally in the

eighteenth century with the victory of Parliament, and the monarch ceased to be, what he remained in the rest of Europe, the dominant element in the state.

In 1701 Parliament, by mere legislative act, altered the line of succession by passing over the direct, legitimate claimant because he was a Catholic, and by calling to the throne George, Elector of Hanover, because he was a Protestant. Thus the older branch of the royal family was set aside and a younger or collateral branch was put in its place. This was a plain defiance of the ordinary rules of descent which generally underlie the monarchical system everywhere. It showed that the will of Parliament was superior to the monarchical principle, that, in a way, the monarchy was elective. Still other important consequences followed from this act.

George I, at the time of his accession to the English throne in 1714 fifty-four years of age, was a German. He continued to be a German The early prince, more concerned with his electorate of Hanover than with his new kingdom. He did not understand a word of English and, as his ministers were similarly ignorant of German, he was compelled to resort to a dubious Latin when he wished to communicate with them. He was king from 1714 to 1727, and was followed by his son, George II, who ruled from 1727 to 1760 and who, though he knew English, spoke it badly and was far more interested in his petty German principality than in imperial Britain.

The first two Georges, whose chief interest in England was the money they could get out of it, therefore allowed their ministers to carry on the government and they did not

even attend the meetings of the ministers where questions of policy were decided. For forty-six years this royal abstention continued. The result was the establishment of a regime never seen before in any country. The royal power was no longer exercised by the king, but was exercised by his ministers, who, moreover, were members of Parliament. In other words, to use a phrase that has become famous, the king reigns but does not govern**[2q]**. Parliament really governs, through a committee of its members, the ministers.

The ministers must have the support of the majority party in Parliament, and during all this period they, as a matter of fact, relied upon the party of the Whigs**[3]**. It had been the Whigs who had carried through the revolution of 1688 and who were committed to the principle of the limitation of the royal power in favor of the sovereignty of Parliament. As George I and George II owed their throne to this party, and as the adherents of the other great party, the Tories, were long supposed to be supporters of the discarded Stuarts, England entered upon a period of Whig rule, which steadily undermined the authority of the monarch. The Hanoverian kings owed their position as kings to the Whigs. They paid for their right to reign by the abandonment of the powers that had hitherto inhered in the monarch.

The change that had come over their position did not escape the attention of the monarchs concerned. George II, compelled to accept ministers he detested, considered himself 'a prisoner upon the throne.' "Your ministers, Sire," said one of them to him, "are but the instruments of your

government." George smiled and replied, "In this country the ministers are king."

Besides the introduction of this unique form of government the other great achievement of the Whigs during this period was an extraordinary increase in the colonial possessions of England, the real launching of Britain upon her career as a world the British power, as a great imperial state. This sudden, tremendous expansion was a result of the Seven Years' War**[4]**, which raged from 1756 to 1763 in every part of the world, in Europe, in America, in Asia, and on the sea. Many nations were involved and the struggle was highly complicated, but two phases of it stand out particularly and in high relief, the struggle between England and France, and the struggle between Prussia on the one hand and Austria, France, and Russia on the other. The Seven Years' War remains a mighty landmark in the history of England and of Prussia, its two conspicuous beneficiaries.

England found in William Pitt, later Earl of Chatham, an incomparable leader, a great orator of a declamatory and theatrical type, an incorruptible statesman, a passionate patriot, a man instinct with energy, aglow with pride and confidence in the splendor of the destinies reserved for his country. Pitt infused his own energy, his irresistible driving power into every branch of the public service. Head of the ministry from 1757 to 1761, he aroused the national sentiment to such a pitch, he directed the national efforts with such contagious and imperious confidence, that he turned a war that had begun badly into the most glorious and successful that England had ever fought. On the sea, in

India, and in America, victory after victory over the French rewarded the nation's extraordinary efforts. Pitt boasted that he alone could save the country. Save it he surely did. He was the greatest of war ministers, imparting his indomitable resolution to multitudes of others. No one, it was said, ever entered his office without coming out a braver man. His triumph was complete when Wolfe defeated Montcalm upon the Plains of Abraham[5].

By the Peace of Paris, which closed this epochal struggle, England acquired from France disputed areas of Nova Scotia, all of Canada, and the region between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi Paris River, and also acquired Florida from Spain. From France, too, she snatched at the same time supremacy in India. Thus England had become a veritable world-empire under the inspiring leadership of the 'Great Commoner.' Her horizons, her interests, had grown vastly more spacious by this rapid increase in military renown, in power, in territory. She had mounted to higher influence in the world, and that, too, at the expense of her old historic enemy, just across the Channel.

But all this prestige and greatness were imperiled and gravely compromised by the reign that had just begun. George III had, in 1760, come to the throne which he was not to leave until claimed by death sixty years later. "The name of George III," writes one English historian, "cannot be penned without a pang, can hardly be penned without a curse, such mischief was he fated to do the country." Unlike his two predecessors, he was not a German, but was a son of England, had grown up in England and had been

17 A law passed by the Constituent Assembly reorganizing the Catholic Church in France—reducing dioceses, making bishops and priests elected and salaried by the state and requiring an oath—which split clergy into ‘juring’ (those who took the oath) and ‘non-juring’ groups and provoked widespread social conflict.

18 The flight to Varennes refers to the June 1791 attempt by King Louis XVI and his family to escape Paris and reach royalist forces; they were captured at Varennes, an event that greatly increased public distrust of the monarchy.

19 The Declaration of Pillnitz (issued in August 1791 by the rulers of Austria and Prussia) asserted concern for Louis XVI and threatened intervention if other powers cooperated; it was largely a conditional diplomatic warning that heightened tensions in France.

20 The September Massacres (September 2–6, 1792) were a series of extrajudicial killings of prisoners in Paris—carried out amid panic over an approaching enemy and organized in part by the Paris Commune—that resulted in the deaths of roughly 1,200 people.

21 The National Convention was the assembly that governed France from September 1792 to October 1795; it abolished the monarchy, declared the Republic, and drafted new constitutions while exercising both legislative and extraordinary executive powers during the Revolutionary wars.

22 The Girondists were a moderate republican faction drawn largely from provincial departments that opposed Parisian domination and emphasized legal process and decentralization, later suppressed by more radical elements.

23 "the Mountain" was the name given to the radical Jacobin faction whose deputies sat on the higher benches of the assembly and who pushed more extreme policies during the Convention.

24 The Tuileries was a royal palace in Paris (the Tuileries Palace) that served as a political center during the Revolution and was the location associated with several key events and with the Convention and its committees.

25 The Committee of Public Safety was a powerful executive committee created by the Convention (initially nine members) that coordinated the war effort and internal repression and later became the chief organ of the Terror under leaders such as Robespierre.

26 The Law of 22d Prairial (named in the French Revolutionary calendar) was a 1794 measure that sharply curtailed legal protections in Revolutionary Tribunal trials—eliminating counsel, allowing vague "moral" evidence, and expanding capital punishment—thereby accelerating executions.

27 The executive government of the French Republic from October 27, 1795, to November 19, 1799, made up of five

directors under the Constitution of 1795; it was politically unstable and was toppled by Napoleon's seizure of power in 1799.

28 The red cap (often a Phrygian or 'liberty' cap) worn as a symbol of revolutionary liberty during the French Revolution; the phrase here refers to the humiliating public act of placing such a cap on Louis XVI.

29 An insurrection in Paris in 1795 (the 13th Vendémiaire of Year IV in the French Revolutionary calendar, roughly October 5, 1795) in which royalist forces threatened the Convention and were suppressed by troops commanded by Napoleon.

30 A popular, affectionate nickname given to Napoleon Bonaparte by his soldiers during his early campaigns, implying familiarity and respect for his leadership and personal bravery.

31 "Sieves" refers to Emmanuel Joseph Sieyès (commonly Abbé Sieyès), a leading revolutionary political theorist and member of the Directory whose constitutional plan in 1799 influenced the creation of the Consulate.

32 The "Grand Elector" was a proposed constitutional office in the Year VIII draft—a ceremonial chief with a palace at Versailles and an annual income of six million francs—which Bonaparte rejected and which did not appear in the final Consulate arrangement.

33 The "Great Saint Bernard Pass" is a high Alpine crossing between present-day Switzerland and Italy that Napoleon famously traversed in May 1800, moving troops and artillery over snow and ice to reach and engage the Austrians in Italy.

34 A French-sponsored sister republic in northern Italy created after Napoleon's Italian campaigns (c.1797); in 1805 Napoleon transformed this republic into the Kingdom of Italy, installing himself as its monarch.

35 A date in the French Revolutionary (Republican) calendar referring to 19 Brumaire Year VIII, the coup d'état of November 9, 1799, in which Napoleon overthrew the Directory and became First Consul.

36 The Dutch state established under French influence in 1795 that replaced the old Dutch Republic; it was converted into a monarchy in 1806 when Napoleon imposed his brother Louis as king.

37 A policy devised by Napoleon to economically isolate Britain by forbidding trade between the British Isles and mainland Europe (instituted by measures such as the Berlin Decrees of 1806 and subsequent Milan decrees); it aimed to damage British commerce by closing European ports to British goods but was unevenly enforced and provoked wider conflict.