Disappointed in their dreams of true liberty, assailed on all sides by the forces of reaction, suffering from a severe inflation together with the inefficiency and corruption of new institutions and inexperienced administrators, the French people with few exceptions saw in Napoleon the man who could cure the ills that afflicted the Republic and usher in a new era of peace, order and prosperity. That the curative measures which Napoleon would take might lead to a despotism more absolute than that overthrown by the insurgents of 1789 was a matter of relative indifference to most.

The Napoleonic reforms of public education created institutions and methods still influential in the France of today. Both the Republic and the Empire carried out a revolution in educational practice by making the sciences a permanent part of the curriculum and by creating institutions which have influenced systems of education all over the world. (369)

By 1800 there was little doubt that the educational system of France was profoundly in need of reform. Although the law of 3 brumaire an IV (26 October 1795) had been quite specific and detailed as to the organization of the curriculum of the écoles centrales, the departmental administrators were either unwilling or unable to enforce the terms of this law. Instead of the students following the order of the courses as prescribed by law, they were allowed complete freedom in their choice of subjects and in their attendance.

Just as important as the educational anarchy which characterized the écoles centrales was the inability of the central and local governments to meet their financial obligations to the teachers in these schools. While the government of the Directory was in a constant state of financial embarrassment, administrative bungling and inefficiency also played an important part in this failure to pay public servants.

The Napoleonic reforms, however, were not restricted simply to eliminating these faults in the educational structure, but went far deeper than this, challenging the basis of the educational philosophy upon which the Écoles centrales had been built. To the Ideologues, the architects of the schools of the Directory, the aim of education was to create enlightened citizens, and their entire concept of public instruction was based on the "natural" liberty and equality of men. To the Napoleonic government, such aims were but the vaporings of metaphysicians who knew nothing about the realities of the world in which they lived. (370)

The hierarchical nature of Napoleonic France thus demanded a similar hierarchy of studies. For those who were to perform the menial tasks of society, the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic, together with the principles of religion and propaganda supporting the Napoleonic regime, were sufficient. The secondary schools were for those who would enter the various useful professions, and secondary education was, therefore, preparatory to entrance to the professional schools. This preparatory education, however, was conceived in a very narrow way. The first article of the arrêté of 19 frimaire an XI (10 December 1802) set out the basic
curriculum and revealed the goals of Napoleonic education: "In the lycées, Latin and mathematics will be the essential subjects taught" (Dupont-Ferrier 2: 238). The study of Latin letters (later modified to include history and French literature as well) insured the future administrator and civil servant of a familiarity with good style and with the minimum of culture necessary for the performance of public functions in this heroic age; the study of mathematics assured Napoleon adequate officer material for the pursuance of his military programs in Europe. The emphasis was on the humanities, for, of the seven years which the student spent at the lycée, only three at the most were devoted to mathematics. The other sciences found little or no place in this system. (371)

In Paris, at the Lycée Imperial, the student was forced to choose between "la carrière civile" and "la carrière militaire." If he chose the former, his scientific education ended with a course in plane geometry; if the latter, he received the full benefit of the courses in mathematics and ignored the humanities. . . . Finally, so that there could be no doubt as to the close link between the study of the sciences and the military requirements of the Empire, in 1812 the better students in mathematics were requisitioned by the Minister of War and sent straight from the classroom to the battlefield. (372-373)

The lycées were not the only educational institutions in Imperial France which offered elementary and intermediate courses in the sciences. The decree of 17 March 1808, which officially created the Université Impériale, also provided for the founding of separate faculties of letters, science, theology and medicine in various large cities throughout France and the Empire. The faculties of theology and medicine were designed to prepare students to exercise the professions of minister and doctor, and, by placing control of these professions in the hands of the state, to insure a uniform training as well as docility towards the imperial regime. (373)

DOCUMENT B

Industry and Labor under Napoleon
Author(s): Chester P. Higby and Caroline B. Willis
Published by: American Historical Association

HISTORIANS have long recognized that the Napoleonic period had an important influence on the institutions of France and Europe. The Code Napoleon is still in force in many European states and in other parts of the world. The Legion of Honor continues to reward Frenchmen for their achievements. The administrative system of Napoleon still governs the French people. His concordat of 1800 regulated the relations of church and state until 1905. He put vitality into the conscription law of 1798 and forced that institution on the other states of Europe. He employed and popularized the institution known as the plebiscite, which has been used since his time for many purposes.

One important institution of the Napoleonic period, however, seems to have received scant attention from all historians save a few lawyers who have specialized in labor law. It is the "conseil de prud'hommes," or committee of masters and men, composed of manufacturers and workers in various industries, elected by their peers, and charged with the task of terminating by conciliation or by judicial action industrial disputes between employers and their employees. (465)
On March 2, 1791, the French National Assembly abolished the guild system and the trade regulations of the ancien régime. This action opened for industry a new era. It gave industry freedom within the boundaries of France in place of the former strangling restrictions. Unrestricted liberty, however, led to grave abuses. The disappearance of the guild system had left industry in anarchy, and a need was felt for some organization. (466)

In the light of this history it would seem that Napoleon must be credited by historians with the creation of another institution of first-class importance. The growth of the conseil de prud'hommes in his own time would seem to justify such a claim. Their survival through six subsequent political regimes in France and their spread to at least seven other states of Europe prove conclusively their vitality, their usefulness, and their fairness. (480)

**DOCUMENT C**

**Napoleon and His Code**

Author(s): Charles Sumner Lobingier


Published by: The Harvard Law Review Association

Napoleon's military achievements have largely vanished; they were spectacular and highly successful from a temporary standpoint, but as he himself predicted, they have become "lost in the vortex of revolutions" and yielded no permanent results except to military science. His diplomacy brought little to France that remains. His statesmanship and administration benefited that country and their results continue there. But his greatest achievement, that which endures to-day, the one feature of Napoleon's career which now influences the world beyond France and which is growing in recognition as the years pass, was his work as a lawgiver and a codifier. (114-115)

The progressive extension of the Code Napoleon's influence throughout the world will appear from the following table showing the date of promulgation of the codes of those numerous countries which have made the French code their model: (128)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>1804</td>
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<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>1808</td>
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<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1811</td>
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<td>Hayti</td>
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<td>Greece</td>
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<td>Holland</td>
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<td>Bolivia</td>
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<td>Peru</td>
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<td>Chili</td>
<td>1855</td>
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<td>Italy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lower Canada (Quebec)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
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<td>Uruguay</td>
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<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>1869</td>
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<td>Mexico</td>
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<td>Nicaragua</td>
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<td>Guatemala</td>
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<td>Honduras</td>
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<td>Spain</td>
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<tr>
<td>Salvador</td>
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<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>1896</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Continuing a tradition begun by the Romans in Gaul, successive governments in France had assiduously cultivated the art of the civil engineer and provided the country with the best highway system in Europe. Napoleon, in particular, made or remade several thousand kilometers of first-class roads; these, however, as well as their predecessors, served military purposes primarily. (11)

Unquestionably, the most important of the educational reforms of the revolutionary period in advancing the application of science to technology and the spread of scientific technology to the rest of Europe was the creation of the Ecole Polytechnique. . . . In the beginning the students, although they received a small stipend from the state, were subject to no discipline other than that of the lecture hall, library, laboratory, and, of course, examination; but Napoleon in his reorganization placed them in barracks, in uniform, and under strict military discipline. In spite of this constricting influence the school continued to produce engineers and scientists of the highest caliber. (48-49)

The structure of French banking in 1815 was simple, almost symmetrical. At the center of the edifice stood the Bank of France, founded by Napoleon as an aid to commerce and as the pillar of state finance. Its principal functions throughout the century consisted of issuing banknotes, rediscounting short-term, high-grade commercial paper, and making advances to the government. (107)
Because it bestowed membership across classes—not just to the wellborn—the Legion can be seen as an attempt to appropriate the motivational spirit of Honor without entirely betraying the egalitarian work of the Revolution. By the creation of the Legion of Honor, Napoleon sought to add “strength and activity to that spring of honor which so powerfully moves the French nation” (Report of Counsellor of State Roederer, 1802 in Vachée, *Napoleon at Work*, 190). At least he wished to appeal to the French love of Honor in lieu of other affections, such as that for liberty. In Napoleon’s own words, “It is with baubles that men are led,” (Report of Counsellor of State Roederer, 1802 in Vachée, *Napoleon at Work*, 191) at least if they are Frenchmen. (169-170)

**DOCUMENT F**

**Napoleon Bonaparte and the Legacy of the French Revolution.**
Source: Lyons, Martyn.

The new state which emerged from the Revolution and was shaped by Napoleon, was a secular state, without trace of the divine sanction which had been one of the ideological props of the old régime monarchy. It was a state based on a conscripted army and staffed by a professional bureaucracy. Administration was “rationalised”, in the sense that corruption and favouritism were officially outlawed. The affairs of all citizens were dealt with in principle on a basis of equality and according to fixed regulations, instead of being at the mercy of a monarch’s whim. Above all, the modern state was a well-informed state, which used its own machinery to collect data on the lives and activities of its subjects. As it knew them better, it policed them more closely and it taxed them more efficiently. (295)

**DOCUMENT G**

**Napoleon and the Awakening of Europe.**
Source: Markham, Felix Maurice Hippisley
Published by: Collier Books, New York, 1965.

The general character of the Code reflects the ideas of the middle class, who had benefited from the Revolution. It emphasized heavily the rights of individual property, and, above all, it reassured the owners of national lands, by confirming the revolutionary land-settlement. (56)

When Napoleon came into power, the religious question opened by the Revolution was still unsolved and cause of grave internal weakness. The Civil Constitution of the Clergy, passed by the Constituent Assembly in 1791, had been condemned by the Pope as uncanonical, because it subjected the bishops and clergy to popular election. A schism resulted in the French Church between the Constitutional Church, which accepted the oath to the Constitution, and the non-juring bishops and clergy. (56)

His experience of government in Italy and Egypt had soon taught him the political importance of religion. In his dealings with the Papacy in 1797 he had refused to follow the Jacobin anti-clerical policy of the Directory; in Egypt, he had studiously respected the religion of Islam. In
defending the policy of the Concordat, he maintained that “society is impossible without inequality, inequality intolerable without a code of morality, and a code of morality unacceptable without religion.” “In religion, I do not see the mystery of the Incarnation, but the mystery of the social order.” (57)

Napoleon saw the immediate advantages of a religious settlement. The reports of his Prefects and his police confirmed his impression that, whatever the attitude of the bourgeoisie and the intelligentsia, the peasants were still obstinately attached to their churches and their priests. Even in intellectual circles, religious skepticism was no longer the undisputed, fashionable doctrine. (57)

The Concordat with the Pope would drive a wedge between royalism and Catholicism, . . . and assure the buyers of Church lands. A settlement based on the schismatic, constitutional Church, or on Protestantism, would bring none of these advantages. Only a comprehensive agreement with the Pope would suffice. (57)
for administrative and liberal careers. (33)

The law of 10 May 1806, founding the University of France defined it as “a body charged exclusively with public teaching and education in the whole Empire,” having as its function “to direct political and moral opinions.” Napoleon flattered himself on (34) assuring its material independence with an endowment of 400,000 francs of annual income, to be supplemented by the payments of parents. (35)

Among these establishments the most useful in the eyes of Napoleon Bonaparte was the Polytechnic, founded in 1794. Its function and objectives were defined in a reform that coincided with the beginning of the Consulate, and which provided for competitive admissions called schools of application, which in turn led to higher employment in the public military and civil services. Thanks to a small subsidy from the State the Polytechnic was open to the sons of poor families, and in its early (35) years almost half the students were sons of peasants and artisans. (36)

Yet is would be false to think that Napoleon and his chief administrators had absolutely no interest in the problems of credit, or that they could have ignored them. First of all, the debt inherited from preceding régimes required intervention by the State precisely because it was decided to treat the problem from the point of view of public confidence, which is to say political stability. Secondly, and traditionally, the problem of credit was not merely a matter of “stretching” inadequate fiscal resources, but arose because the State, to meet immediate needs, required funds in anticipation of revenues that could normally be expected. To these technical difficulties – perhaps more than technical, since they reflected in part certain structures in the economy, and the social position and mental attitudes of persons who served the State – the Consulate and Empire brought new solutions, designed to improve the efficiency of the fiscal machine and make it less dependent on private interests. (44)

Bonaparte announced the creation of a Sinking Fund as early as 24 Brumaire of the Year VIII, thus associating the coup d’état with the restoration of public credit. . . . In one (44) of its functions the Sinking Fund resembled a pre-Revolutionary account set up to guarantee the performance of the receivers-general of the revenue. It was in the Sinking Fund that the security bonds of these officials were now deposited, equal in amount to a tenth of the real property tax assessed in each department; the Fund intervened in cases where a receiver-general was unable to meet his obligations. (45)

Moreover the Sinking Fund, instead of filling the role so clearly announced by its name, was employed by the government to maintain the interest rate at 5 percent, though massive purchase of government obligations when their price weakened. . . . Questions of prestige and authority were involved, of course, by also the interest rate. To hold interest down, the price of securities had to be kept relatively high, to prevent mobile capital from speculating on higher interest, to the detriment of commercial and manufacturing enterprises in need of loans and discounts. (45)

A new rigor was introduced into the assessments and collection of taxes. Power in these areas was taken away from local governments. The preparation of rolls of direct taxpayers was entrusted to directors and inspectors at the department level and to controllers at the arrondissement level. The receipt of taxes was assigned to appointed collectors, who were paid in proportion to amounts collected, were thus eager to maximize the returns, and were consequently detested. The inflow was centralized by local receivers in the arrondissements, then by the receivers-general in the departments, all required to post security bonds and submit
to verification by a corps of inspectors-general in the Treasury.

The same rigor was brought into the parallel and distinct network of expenditure. While the revenue side of the budget was in the hands of the Minister of Finance, the control of expenditures was assigned to paymasters in the Treasury, who made payments only on sight of orders delivered by the various administrations, and after verifying them for conformity to budgetary limits and anticipations.

While Napoleon seems to have been unconcerned with complaints about the multiplication and increasing burden of indirect taxes, he was more sensitive to the opinion of property owners when he put the real estate tax on an indisputable basis, a land register initiated in 1807, and completed down to the smallest (50) parcels of land in some ten thousand local governments by the end of the Empire. (51)

Yet the Napoleonic period incontestably coincided with a combination of new economic conditions, and with a decisive modernization of some branches of industry, so that if we wished absolutely to fix a point of departure for the process of industrialization in France it would certainly be in the early years of the nineteenth century, not before 1789, and no more clearly after 1815. (172)

Cotton spinning and weaving thus received a strong impulsion from the artificial situation created by the Emperor's tariff policy. Mechanized spinning plants multiplied in the next few years, and the weaving of cotton cloth in the countryside gained at the expense of the older textiles such as linens and hemp. (176)

The soap makers of Marseille depended traditionally on Spanish natural (181) sodas derived from the burning of barillas, plants that grew in marshy coastal zones. On two occasions, in 1794 and again with the blockade and the war in Spain, they found themselves deprived of indispensable detergents by the interruption of trade relations. In 1809 Napoleon decided to take advantage of the situation by requiring the replacement of natural by artificial soda, to be produced from the marine salts that were fairly abundant on the French coasts. The changeover was encouraged by a tax exemption on salt used in the manufacture, in return for a kind of fee. In the next year the importation of any sodas, either natural or artificial, was absolutely prohibited. A spectacular rise in the chemical industry resulted in the region of the salt marshes, where the profit from salt had long been an appreciable source of income for business-minded landowners. By 1810 the department of the Bouches-du-Rhône had fourteen artificial soda works. (182)
recognized by his father. He is subject to the *patria potestas* and is entitled to bear his father’s name; he requires the same parental consent for marriage or adoption as does the legitimate child; both parties are subject to the reciprocal obligation to support (*l’obligation alimentaire*); and finally the *enfant naturel reconnu* has the rights of an heir. But under the Code none of these consequences arose unless the father had voluntarily acknowledged his paternity. (227)

The status of the married woman was defined by the Code on lines which, for 1804, were comparatively liberal. Husband and wife were free to define their property-relations by their marriage contract as they chose, provided the husband's legally regulated right of administration was not impaired. In the absence of any contract, the wife retained her separate property, subject always to the husband's administration. (228)

The nineteenth century was pre-eminently an age of nation-making. (233) In Europe it saw the creation or the unification of Germany, Italy, Belgium, Roumania, Bulgaria and Greece; on the American continent it saw the birth of fifteen new nations; while in the East it saw Japan, Siam, Turkey and Egypt stir in their slumber, or rise up fully alert, to grasp the secret of European pre-eminence. Of these twenty-five nations almost all sought to mark their accession to political maturity, or to proclaim their adhesion to the European circle, by a general revision and codification of their laws; and in the vast majority of cases the model followed was the Code Napoleon. (234)