The Congress of Vienna and the Concert of Europe

TIME LINE

1814	The first Treaty of Paris establishes a lenient peace for France
1814-1815	The Congress of Vienna meets
1815	The Hundred Days end with Napoleon's defeat at Waterloo
	The Treaty of Vienna establishes a European territorial settlement
	The second Treaty of Paris imposes harsher terms on France
	Russia, Prussia, and Austria sign the Holy Alliance
	Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia sign the Quadruple Alliance
1818	The great powers meet in the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle
1820-1821	The great powers meet in the Congresses of Troppau and Laibach
	The Greeks begin a revolt against Turkish rule
1822	The great powers meet in the Congress of Verona
1823	The United States issues the Monroe Doctrine
1829-1830	Greece gains independence from the Ottoman Empire
1830	Belgium secures independence from the Netherlands

After entering Paris in March 1814, the allies restored the legitimate Bourbon dynasty to the French throne, and Louis XVIII (r. 1814-1824) became king. In the first Treaty of Paris (May 1814),the allies offered France relatively lenient peace terms. However, following Napoleon's return to power during the Hundred Days in 1815 and his final defeat at Waterloo, the allies imposed harsher terms on France in the second Treaty of Paris (November 1815).

The other details of the peace settlement were determined by an international congress. The statesmen who met in this Congress of Vienna in 1814-1815 sought to reestablish a conservative order in Europe following the years of upheaval and war brought about by the

The First Treaty of Paris (May 1814)

Under the terms of the first Treaty of Paris, France lost all of its conquests of the revolutionary and Napoleonic periods but was permitted to retain its frontiers of 1792. France regained almost all of its colonies and was not required to pay an indemnity.

The Congress of Vienna

The Congress of Vienna began its deliberations in September 1814, and its sessions continued until June 1815.

Although a number of small states were represented, the four great powers that had joined to defeat France: Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia-expected to make the major decisions. In their deliberations, the representatives of the great powers were influenced by several considerations.

1. The allied statesmen did not so much want to punish France as to insure that the French could not again embark on wars of aggression.
2. In addition, the statesmen sought to restore a balance of power, so that no one country could attempt to dominate Europe. France had a proper place in that balance; therefore, France should not be weakened excessively.
3. The principle of compensation was related to the balance of power. If one major state made gains, then the other major states should be compensated.
4. The principle of legitimacy involved the desire of the great powers to restore rulers and frontiers as they had existed prior to the wars of the French Revolution and Napoleon, insofar as that was possible and desirable.
5. Finally, the victorious allies expected to be rewarded for their efforts in defeating Napoleon and penalized countries that had cooperated with Napoleon.

The Major Statesmen at Vienna

Prince Klemens von Metternich (1773-1859), who served as Austria's foreign minister from 1809 to 1848, represented the interests of Emperor Francis I (r. 1806-1835) and acted as host for the Congress of Vienna. In recognition of his influence on the decisions of the congress and his active role in European affairs after 1815, the 1815 to 1848 period is called the Age of

Metternich.

Metternich was firmly committed to the principles of conservatism. He regarded the new ideas of liberalism and nationalism as a threat to the survival of the Austrian Empire. He especially feared the spread of nationalism among the empire's subject nationalities. Metternich hoped the major powers would cooperate to maintain the conservative order, and he advocated intervention in any country where that order was threatened by the forces of change.

Viscount Castlereagh (1769-1822), the British foreign secretary from 1812 to 1822, generally shared Metternich's conservative views and strongly supported efforts to restore the balance of power.

Tsar Alexander I of Russia (r. 1801-1825) was in general agreement with his colleagues, although he also pushed for substantial territorial acquisitions, especially in Poland.

Prince Karl von Hardenberg (1750-1822) represented his king, Frederick William III (r. 1797-1840) of Prussia. He shared his colleagues' belief that the great powers should collaborate to maintain European peace and stability.

Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand (1754-1838), King Louis XVIII's foreign minister, found himself in the difficult position of representing the interests of his defeated country.

The Principle of Legitimacy

As a servant of the Bourbon king of France, Talleyrand was an ardent advocate of the principle of legitimacy. Not only was the legitimate Bourbon ruler restored to the French throne, but Talleyrand's influence led to the decision to restore Bourbons to the thrones of Spain and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, as well. In addition, the Congress of Vienna restored legitimate princely rulers in several other Italian states, including Sardinia-Piedmont, Tuscany, Modena, and the Papal States.

In Germany, however, the principle of legitimacy was ignored. The statesmen at Vienna had little desire to recreate the old Holy

Roman Empire or to restore the more than 300 states it had comprised. Instead, the Congress of Vienna created 39 German states, loosely joined in a new German Confederation.

The Conflict Over Poland and Saxony

Tsar Alexander I pressed his demand that Russia receive all of Poland. Prussia agreed to cede its Polish territory to the Russians on condition that it receive the German kingdom of Saxony as compensation.

Austria and Great Britain objected. Austria did not want to surrender its Polish territory and opposed both a further extension of Russian power into Europe and an increase of the power of Prussia, a potential rival of Austria's in German affairs. Like the Austrians, the British opposed an increase of Russian power, believing that an Eastern Europe dominated by Russia was as much a threat to the balance of power as was a Western Europe dominated by France.

The division among the victors gave Talleyrand the opportunity he sought to become an equal in the negotiations. He supported Austria and Great Britain, placing Metternich and Castlereagh in his debt.

Faced with British, Austrian, and French opposition, Russia and Prussia backed down, agreeing to accept less than they had initially demanded. Alexander I got a Russian-controlled kingdom of Poland, although it was smaller than he had wished, while Prussia acquired about two-fifths of Saxony.

The Territorial Settlement

Napoleon's return to power during the Hundred Days temporarily interrupted the deliberations of the Congress of Vienna, but the Treaty of Vienna was signed on June 9, 181 5, nine days before Napoleon's final defeat at Waterloo.

Russia

In addition to acquiring more Polish territory, Russia retained Finland, which it had taken from Sweden in 1809. As compensation, Sweden retained Norway, which it had seized from

Denmark, Napoleon's ally.

Prussia

In addition to acquiring two-fifths of Saxony, which had supported Napoleon, Prussia gained Swedish Pomerania and territory in the Rhineland in western Germany. Possession of the Rhineland brought Prussian power to the border of France to serve as a check on possible future French aggression.

The Netherlands

The Netherlands acquired the Austrian Netherlands (Belgium). The enlarged Kingdom of the Netherlands, bordering on France, would also serve as a check against future French aggression. For the same reason, the northern Italian state of Sardinia-Piedmont was strengthened by the acquisition of the republic of Genoa.

Austria

In compensation for its loss of Belgium, Austria acquired the northern Italian provinces of Lombardy and Venetia, which strengthened Austrian control over Italian affairs. Relatives of the Austrian emperor ruled the states of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany, while an Austrian archduchess was married to the Bourbon king of the Two Sicilies.

In addition to dominating Italy, Austria, the largest of the German states, dominated the German Confederation. Metternich was thus able to impose his repressive policies on the German states, just as he did in Italy.

Great Britain

The British, whose, interests lay primarily outside of Europe, acquired a number of valuable colonial possessions. From the Dutch, they gained the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa and the large island of Ceylon off the southeastern coast of India. In the West Indies, the British acquired several former French colonies, including Trinidad and Tobago. They also gained several other strategically located islands, including Helgoland in the North Sea and Malta in the Mediterranean.

The Second Treaty of Paris (November 1815)

Following Napoleon's final defeat at Waterloo, the allies imposed the second Treaty of Paris on France. Its terms were more severe than those of the first Treaty of Paris, but because of Talleyrand's influence, they were less harsh than they might have been. France was reduced to the borders of 1790. The French were required to pay an indemnity of 700 million francs to the allies and to accept allied military occupation of seventeen French forts for five years.

The Holy Alliance and the Quadruple Alliance

In September 1815, the rulers of Russia, Prussia, and Austria signed the Holy Alliance, proposed by Tsar Alexander I. The three rulers pledged to observe Christian principles in both domestic and international affairs. While most of Europe's rulers ultimately signed the Holy Alliance, in practice it had little significance.

The Quadruple Alliance, signed by Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia in November 1815, was of greater importance. The four powers agreed to maintain the alliance that had defeated Napoleon and to meet periodically to discuss issues of mutual concern. This laid the basis for the Concert of Europe, the effort of the great powers to resolve international issues by consultation and agreement.

The Concert of Europe

The great powers hoped that the Concert of Europe would lead to the preservation of the balance of power and of the conservative order established at Vienna.

The Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle

In 1818, meeting in the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, the members of the Quadruple Alliance decided that France, which had paid its indemnity, should be freed of occupation. France rejoined the ranks of the great powers, and the Quadruple Alliance now became the Quintuple Alliance. Tsar Alexander I proposed that the great powers support existing governments and frontiers in Europe. Viscount Castlereagh, the British foreign secretary, rejected the proposal, marking the first break in the accord among the

major powers.

The Congresses of Troppau and Laibach

In early 1820, a revolution broke out in Spain, where the army forced King Ferdinand VII (r. 1808-1833) to agree to rule in accordance with the liberal constitution of 1812, which he had previously ignored. In July 1820, a revolution also broke out in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, where the army compelled King Ferdinand I (r. 18161825) to accept a constitution.

These revolutions were high on the agendas of the Congresses of Troppau and Laibach in 1820-1821. In the Protocol of Troppau, Russia, Russia, and Austria asserted their right to intervene in other countries to oppose revolutions. Once again, the British objected to this interventionist policy.

The breach between the British and the three conservative powers widened at the Congress of Laibach, which authorized Austria to suppress the revolution in the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, which it did in 1821.

The Congress of Verona

In 1822, the last of the congresses, the Congress of Verona, authorized France to intervene in Spain. With French support, King Ferdinand VII reestablished his absolute power.

George Canning (1770-1827), who became British foreign secretary in 1822, continued Britain's opposition to the policy of intervention. This opposition resulted, in effect, in Britain's withdrawal from the Quintuple Alliance.

British Opposition to Intervention and the Monroe Doctrine

British opposition to intervention made it impossible for the conservative powers of Europe to suppress the revolts in Spanish America, because they could not act effectively without the support of Britain's naval power. The British opposed intervention both because of principle and because they did not want any interference with their profitable trade with Latin America. Canning proposed

that Great Britain and the United States join in a declaration against any European intervention in the Western Hemisphere.

The Americans, however, preferred to act independently. In the Monroe Doctrine, issued by President James Monroe (1758-1831) in December 1823, the United States announced its opposition to intervention and any further colonization by the European powers in the Western Hemisphere. The British endorsed the Monroe Doctrine, and both the United States and Great Britain began to grant formal diplomatic recognition to the new Latin American republics.

Greek Independence

Revolution against Turkish rule broke out in Greece in 1821, and often brutal fighting continued for several years. By 1825, the Turks had almost crushed the revolt.

In Western Europe, sympathy for the Greeks mounted, in large part because of a sentimental regard for the contribution of the ancient Greeks to the development of Western civilization.

The Treaty of London (1827)

Great Britain, France, and Russia agreed in the Treaty of London of 1827 to demand that the Ottoman Empire recognize Greek independence and to use force, if necessary, to end the fighting. An allied fleet defeated a Turkish and Egyptian force at Navarino in October 1827.

The Treaties of Adrianople and London

In 1828, Russia declared war on Turkey, and Russian forces moved into the Turkish-controlled Danubian provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia (modern Rumania). Under the terms of the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), the Danubian provinces gained autonomy, as did Serbia, which the Turks had also ruled. Russia acquired territory at the mouth of the Danube River and in the Caucasus on the eastern coast of the Black Sea. The Turks agreed to permit Russia, France, and Great Britain to determine the future of Greece. In the Treaty of London (1830), the three powers

recognized Greek independence. In 1832, Otto I (r. 1832-1862), the son of the king of Bavaria, was chosen as king of Greece.

Belgian Independence

In late August 1830, a revolt against Dutch rule broke out in Belgium. In November, a national congress declared Belgium's independence, and a liberal constitution was adopted in 1831. A German prince, Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, became Leopold I (r. 1831-1865), the first king of the Belgians. In 1839, the Netherlands formally recognized the independence of Belgium. Under the terms of the Convention of 1839, the major powers of Europe agreed to guarantee Belgian neutrality.

The conservative order established at Vienna in 1814-1815 prevailed throughout Central and Eastern Europe without serious threat until the outbreak of the revolutions of 1848. The balance of power established at Vienna remained fundamentally undisturbed until the unification of Germany in 1871, and no major war involved all of the major powers until the outbreak of World War I in 1914.

In Italy and Spain, the conservative powers succeeded in suppressing revolutions. However, Greece and Belgium, as well as the Latin American colonies of Spain and Portugal, made good their claims to independence. And in Great Britain and France, the conservative regimes that ruled in the years immediately following 1815 were able to forestall only temporarily the trend toward liberalization.

Reform and Revolution in Great Britain and France

TIME LINE

1814-1830	The Bourbon Restoration in France
1814-1824	Reign of King Louis XVIII of France
1819	The Peterloo Massacre takes place in Manchester
1820-1830	Reign of King George IV of Great Britain
1824-1830	Reign of King Charles X of France
1829	King Charles X appoints the Prince of Polignac as premier
1830	The French July Revolution overthrows King Charles X
1830-1848	The July Monarchy of King Louis Philippe in France
1830-1837	Reign of King William IV of Great Britain
1832	The British Parliament passes the Reform Bill of
1837-1901	Reign of Queen Victoria of Great Britain
1839	The People's Charter is presented to Parliament for the first time
1846	The British Parliament repeals the Corn Laws
1848	The French February Revolution results in the overthrow of King Louis Philippe

Great Britain had emerged from the upheavals of the seventeenth century as a stronghold of constitutional monarchy and political liberty. Now, in the early nineteenth century, conservative rule gradually gave way to a movement for reform. The most important reform of these years was the Reform Bill of 1832, which redistributed seats in the House of Commons and granted the right to vote to most adult middleclass males. Nevertheless, the British ruling classes rejected the demands of the Chartist movement for full political democracy. In the area of trade policy, the British moved toward the adoption of free trade.

In France, the restored Bourbon kings, Louis ***XVIII*** *and Charles* ***X,*** *gradually became more arbitrary in their exercise of power. The July Revolution of 1830 resulted in the overthrow of the Bourbons and established the rule of the citizen king, Louis Philippe. Although the July Monarchy of Louis Philippe was based on liberal principles, the*

king's government became increasingly more authoritarian in practice. Opposition to the king gradually intensified, culminating in the February Revolution of 1848.

Great Britain

Conservative Rule and Repression of Civil Unrest

For several years after 1815, the British ruling classes lived in fear of revolution. The country experienced a postwar economic depression, and mounting unemployment resulted in widespread hardship and unrest.

Lord Liverpool (1770-1828), a Tory, served as prime minister from 1812 to 1827, heading a reactionary cabinet that initially opposed demands for reform and sought to repress expressions of discontent.

The "Peterloo Massacre"

In August 1819, troops fired on a large crowd that had gathered at St. Peter's Fields in Manchester to hear speeches on parliamentary reform and the repeal of the Corn Laws. Eleven people were killed. The affair became known as the "Peterloo Massacre," in ironic contrast with the British victory over Napoleon at Waterloo in 1815.

The Six Acts

Following the Peterloo Massacre, Parliament adopted the Six Acts in December 1819. This repressive legislation restricted the freedoms of speech and assembly and other civil liberties, increased taxes on newspapers and fines for seditious libel, expanded the right of the police to search private homes, and provided for the speedy trial and harsh punishment of offenders against public order.

The Cato Street Conspiracy

In January 1820, following the death of King George III, the prince regent succeeded to the throne as George IV (r. 1820-1830). The following month, the government uncovered a plot to assassinate the entire cabinet. The leaders of the Cato Street Conspiracy, as it was known, were arrested and tried, and four were executed.

Tory Reform in the 1820s

Although Lord Liverpool remained prime minister until 1827, a younger group of Tory leaders gradually began to push for a program of moderate reform.

Criminal Codes

Robert Peel (1788-1850), who served as home secretary from 1822 to 1827, won parliamentary approval for a reform of the criminal codes, substantially reducing the number of capital crimes. Peel also reorganized the London police, who came to be known as bobbies in his honor.

Trade

William Huskisson (1770-1830), the president of the Board of Trade from 1823 to 1827, began the process of moving away from mercantilist regulation toward free trade by reducing tariffs on imports.

Religion

Religious restrictions were also removed. In 1828, Parliament repealed the Test Act, which had been enacted in the late seventeenth century. The Test Act barred Nonconformists from public office (see Chapter 7). In 1829, Parliament passed Catholic Emancipation, extending to Roman Catholics the right to vote and hold public office. Political restrictions against Jews remained in effect for several more years.

The Reform Bill of 1832

In the early nineteenth century, the British Parliament was far from democratic and not representative of the population. The House of Lords consisted of the hereditary nobility and the bishops of the Church of England. In addition, from time to time the king invoked his right to create new peers (noblemen), who acquired the right to sit in the House of Lords. The House of Lords could block the adoption of legislation passed by the House of Commons.

The House of Commons consisted mainly of prosperous country gentlemen (the gentry) and wealthy business and professional men. Only a small percentage of the adult male

population met the property qualifications for voters. Many members of the House of Commons represented "rotten boroughs" (towns with very small populations whose voters could readily be bribed or otherwise influenced) or "**pock**et boroughs" (towns whose representatives in the House of Commons were selected by noble landowners). The new industrial towns were either completely without representation or seriously underrepresented.

Whig Support of Reform

From 1828 to 1830, the Duke of Wellington (1769-1852) served as prime minister. While the victor of Waterloo was a great national hero, he was a reactionary Tory and had no sympathy for reform. In 1830, however, the Tories lost the general election to the Whigs.

In 1831, the new Whig prime minister, Earl Grey (1764-1845), won the approval of the House of Commons for a parliamentary reform bill, but the Lords rejected it. When the Commons passed a second reform bill the same year, the Lords rejected it once again. Grey now appealed to the new king, William IV (r. 1830-1837), who promised to create enough new Whig peers to assure the Lords' passage of a reform bill.

The threat sufficed. In 1832, the House of Lords approved the third reform bill passed by the House of Commons.

Provisions of the Reform Bill of I832

The Reform Bill of 1832 deprived 56 rotten and pocket boroughs of their III seats in the House of Commons, while 32 other small boroughs each lost one of their two members. The 143 available seats were then distributed to boroughs that had been either underrepresented or without any representation at all.

In addition to this redistribution of seats in the House of Commons, the Reform Bill of 1832 extended the right to vote to middle-class men. Property qualifications continued to bar most workers from voting. Nevertheless, the Reform Bill of 1832 represented the beginning of a decisive shift in political power from the landed aristocracy to the middle class.

Other Reforms

Abolition of Slavery

In 1833, the Parliament abolished slavery throughout the British Empire. This represented a victory for the abolitionists led by William Wilberforce (1759-1833).

Limitations on Work by Children and Women

A Factory Act adopted in 1833 placed restrictions on child labor in the textile industry. Children under the age of nine could not be employed in textile mills, while those between the ages of nine and thirteen could not work for more than nine hours a day. Work by children between the ages of thirteen and eighteen was limited to twelve hours a day. The Factory Act provided for a system of inspectors to make certain that the law was being observed. Later legislation placed further restrictions on work by women and children.

Municipal Councils

The Municipal Corporations Act of 1835 established a system of elected councils to govern most cities and towns.

Political Trends

During these years, British politics was experiencing change, as the two major political factions, the Tories and the Whigs, gradually evolved into modern parties, known as the Conservatives and Liberals, respectively.

In 1837, when King William IV died, he was succeeded by his niece, the eighteen-year-old Victoria (r. 1837-1901), whose reign proved to be the longest in English history. In 1840, Victoria married Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha (1819-1861), a German prince. His untimely death in 1861 left her disconsolate.

The Repeal of the Corn Laws

The campaign for the repeal of the Corn Laws provided powerful evidence of the increased political power of the British middle class.

The Anti-Corn Law League, which was established in 1839, campaigned for the repeal of the Corn Laws (the tariff on wheat

and other grains) and more broadly, for the introduction of free trade. The Corn Laws, which had been adopted in 1815, provided the great landowners with a protected market for their crops. The leaders of the Anti-Corn Law League included the prominent industrialists Richard Cobden (1804-1865) and John Bright (1811-1889).

The Anti-Corn Law League argued that reducing the price of food would improve the workers' standard of living, while reducing the cost of raw materials would increase the profits of industry. In addition, low food prices would make it easier for the industrialists to pay their workers lower wages.

Irish Famine

During the winter of 1845-1846, a severe famine struck Ireland following a failure of the potato crop. Starvation and diseases such as typhus and cholera took the lives of some 700,000 people. Hundreds of thousands of survivors emigrated, with many finding new homes in the United States.

Establishment of Free Trade

The Irish famine demonstrated the need for lower food prices, and in 1846 Parliament voted to repeal the Corn Laws. Repeal was a victory for Britain's urban dwellers, who for the first time comprised a majority of the population. In the following years, the British eliminated the remaining tariffs, establishing a free trade policy.

The Chartist Movement

Following the adoption of the Reform Bill of **1832,** agitation developed for further parliamentary reform. In **1838,** a group of working-class leaders drew up the People's Charter, which contained six demands:

1. Universal manhood suffrage.
2. The secret ballot in place of voting in public meetings.
3. The abolition of property requirements for members of the House of Commons.
4. The payment of salaries to members of the House of

Commons.

5. The creation of equal electoral districts. (Members of the House of Commons should represent approximately the same number of people.)
6. Annual elections for the House of Commons.

The Chartists won support among many intellectual reformers, as well as from urban workers. In 1839, the Chartists presented to Parliament a petition setting forth their demands. However, the British middle classes were not yet prepared to share political power with the masses, and Parliament ignored the petition. Although Parliament also ignored Chartist petitions presented in 1842 and 1848, all the demands of the Chartists were ultimately enacted, except for annual elections for the House of Commons.

France

The Bourbon Restoration

From **1814** to **1830,** France was ruled by the two kings of the restored Bourbon dynasty: Louis XVIII and Charles X. Both monarchs were younger brothers of King Louis XVI, who had been executed in 1793. (The supporters of the Bourbons regarded the young son of Louis XVI, who died in prison in 1795, as Louis XVII, although he never reigned.)

King Louis XVIII (r. 1814-1824)

Louis XVIII acknowledged the fact that the Old Regime could not be restored and believed it was essential to pursue a moderate course. As king, he sought to balance the interests of the old aristocracy, which had returned to France hoping for a restoration of their traditional position and privileges, with those of the liberal bourgeoisie, who had profited from the reforms of the revolutionary and Napoleonic eras.

The Charter of 1814

The French constitution, the Charter of 1814, provided for a two-house parliament. The king appointed the members of the Chamber of Peers, while the Chamber of Deputies was elected by

property-qualified voters. The charter also contained guarantees of civil liberties, including freedom of religion, although Roman Catholicism was recognized as the religion of the state. The Napoleonic Code remained in effect, and the revolutionary redistribution of land confiscated from the church and the nobility was confirmed.

The Ultra-Royalists

The reactionary Ultra-Royalists, who represented the cause of the returned *emigré* nobility, did not accept this moderate settlement. The Ultras, as they were known, were led by the king's brother, the Count of Artois. Winning the 1820 elections for the Chamber of Deputies, the Ultras reduced voting rights and placed restrictions on civil liberties, including freedom of the press.

King Charles X (r. 1824-1830)

In 1824, the Count of Artois succeeded his brother, becoming King Charles X. The new king's actions quickly angered the bourgeoisie. In 1825, he reduced the interest on government bonds, held mainly by the bourgeoisie, from 5 to 3 percent in order to get money to compensate the aristocracy for the land they had lost during the revolution. In 1827, he disbanded the National Guard, whose members were drawn chiefly from the bourgeoisie.

When liberals and moderate royalists gained control of the Chamber of Deputies in 1827, Charles X sought for a time to govern in association with them. In 1829, however, he abandoned this policy and named the reactionary Prince of Polignac (1780-1847) as premier.

This enraged the liberals, who won a majority in the Chamber of Deputies in the May 1830 elections. Charles X and Polignac responded by enacting the Four Ordinances without parliamentary approval. These laws imposed further limitations on freedom of the press, dissolved the Chamber of Deputies, scheduled new elections, and restricted the electorate further in order to weaken the opposition.

The July Revolution

On July 27-29,1830, the artisans and tradespeople of Paris, spurred on by the bourgeoisie, rose up in revolt against Charles X and Polignac. The king abdicated and sought refuge in Great Britain.

Some of the revolutionaries favored the establishment of a republic, but the liberals in the Chamber of Deputies, led by Talleyrand (1754-1838), Adolphe Thiers (1797-1877), and François Guizot (1787-1874), supported the creation of a constitutional monarchy. They proclaimed Louis Philippe, the Duke of Orleans, as king.

The July Monarchy: King Louis Philippe (r. 1830-1848)

Reforms

Louis Philippe was known as "king of the French," rather than king of France, and the red, white, and blue revolutionary tricolor replaced the white and gold flag of the Bourbons. While Roman Catholicism was recognized as the religion of the majority of the French people, it was no longer the state religion. A revised version of the Charter of 1814 increased the electorate, but the property qualification for voters remained high.

Louis Philippe and his ministers believed that their primary duty was to support private property and its owners, promote prosperity, and maintain peace. During most of the 1830s, the most prominent figure in the government was Adolphe Thiers.

Economic Policies

France maintained high tariffs in order to protect industrialists from the competition of imported manufactured goods, especially from Great Britain, and to protect French farmers from the competition of imported grain. The government showed little concern for the needs of the urban poor, however.

End of the July Monarchy

From 1840 to 1848, François Guizot dominated the government. More conservative than Thiers, Guizot led the government in an increasingly more arbitrary direction. Opposition

to the July Monarchy mounted and became more serious in the wake of a poor grain harvest in 1846 and an industrial depression that began in 1847. The political crisis reached a head in the February Revolution of 1848,which resulted in the overthrow of Louis Philippe and the proclamation of the Second Republic.

During the early nineteenth century, the British succeeded in averting possible revolution by carrying out a program of gradual reform. The most important of the reform measures, the Reform Bill of 1832, marked a decisive step in the shift of political power from the landed aristocracy to the middle class. This shift made possible the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846 and the subsequent adoption of free trade. While Parliament ignored the demands of the Chartists for full political democracy, the impetus for reform continued, and by the early years of the twentieth century, the British had created a truly democratic political system.

In France, the events of the early nineteenth century revealed the difficulty the French experienced in trying to establish a workable system of government that could balance the interests of the bourgeoisie, whose importance had increased during the revolutionary and Napoleonic era, with those of the returned aristocracy. Moving in an increasingly more arbitrary direction in the years from 1814 to 1830, the restored Bourbon monarchy was overthrown. While the July Monarchy of Louis Philippe supported the interests of the bourgeoisie, it also gradually lost support and fell from power in the February Revolution of 1848.