

## Remote Learning Packet

*NB: Please keep all work produced this week. Details regarding how to turn in this work will be forthcoming.*

**April 13-17, 2020**

**Course:** 10 Humane Letters

**Teacher(s):** Mr. Garner ben.garner@greatheartsirving.org

### Weekly Plan:

Monday, April 13

- Read *Crime and Punishment*, Part Three, chapter 2
- Answer chapter 2 reading questions

Tuesday, April 14

- Read sections “The Haitian Revolution” and “Napoleon’s Empire” in *Western Heritage*
- Answer history reading questions

Wednesday, April 15

- Read *Crime and Punishment*, Part Three, chapters 3-4
- Answer chapters 3-4 reading questions

Thursday, April 16

- Read *Crime and Punishment*, Part Three, chapter 5
- Answer chapter 5 reading questions

Friday, April 17

- Write reflections on *Crime and Punishment* passages

### Statement of Academic Honesty

I affirm that the work completed from the packet is mine and that I completed it independently.

I affirm that, to the best of my knowledge, my child completed this work independently

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Student Signature

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Parent Signature







### ▼ The Haitian Revolution (1791–1804)

Between 1791 and 1804, the French colony of Haiti achieved independence. This event was of key importance for two reasons. First, it was sparked by policies of



Toussaint L'Ouverture (1746–1803) began the revolt that led to Haitian independence in 1804. Library of Congress

the French Revolution overflowing into its New World Empire. Second, the Haitian Revolution demonstrated that slaves of African origins could lead a revolt against white masters and mulatto freemen. The example of the Haitian Revolution for years thereafter terrified slaveholders throughout the Americas.

The relationship between slaves and masters on Haiti had been filled with violence throughout the eighteenth century. The French colonial masters had frequently used racial divisions between black slaves and mulatto freemen to their own political advantage. Once the French Revolution had broken out in France, the French National Assembly in 1791 decreed that free property-owning mulattos on Haiti should enjoy the same rights as white plantation owners. The Colonial Assembly in Haiti resisted the orders from France.

In 1791, a full-fledged slave rebellion shook Haiti. The coordination that preceded the rebellion required that slaves place a tremendous amount of faith in one another: any conversation that could have been interpreted as advocating rebellion would have led to death if reported or overheard. François-Dominique Toussaint L'Ouverture (1743?–1803), himself a former slave, quickly emerged as its leader. The rebellion involved enormous violence and loss of life on both sides. Although the slave rebellion collapsed, mulattos and free black people in Haiti, who hoped to gain the rights the French National Assembly had promised, then took up arms against the white colonial masters. French officials sent by the revolutionary government in Paris

 **View the Closer Look**  
“The Haitian Revolution: Guerrilla Warfare” on  
[MyHistoryLab.com](#)

soon backed them. Slaves now came to the aid of an invading French force and, in early 1793, the French abolished slavery in Haiti.


By this time both Spain and Great Britain were attempting to intervene in Haitian events to expand their own influence in the Caribbean. Both were opposed to the end of slavery and both coveted Haiti's rich sugar-producing lands. Toussaint L'Ouverture and his force of ex-slaves again supported the French against the Spanish and the British. By 1800, his army had achieved dominance throughout the island of Hispaniola. He imposed an authoritarian constitution on Haiti and made himself Governor-General for life, but he preserved formal ties with France.

The French government under Napoleon distrusted L'Ouverture and feared that his example would undermine French authority elsewhere in the Caribbean and North America. In 1802, Napoleon sent an army to Haiti and eventually captured L'Ouverture, who was sent back to France where he died in prison in 1803. Other Haitian military leaders of slave origin, the most important of whom was Jean-Jacques Dessalines (1758–1806), continued to resist. When Napoleon found himself again at war with Britain in 1803, he decided to abandon his American

empire, selling Louisiana to the United States and withdrawing his forces from Haiti. The Haitian revolution had an anticolonial aspect, but it was most important as the first successful slave rebellion in modern history. France formally recognized Haitian independence in 1804.

## ▼ Napoleon's Empire (1804–1814)

Between his coronation as emperor and his final defeat at Waterloo (1815), Napoleon conquered most of Europe. France's victories changed the map of the Continent. The wars put an end to the Old Regime and its feudal trappings throughout Western Europe and forced those European states that remained independent to reorganize themselves to resist Napoleon's armies.

 **View the Map** Map  
Discovery: Napoleon's  
Empire” on  
[MyHistoryLab.com](#)

Everywhere, Napoleon's advance unleashed the powerful force of nationalism, discussed more fully in Chapter 20. His weapon was the militarily mobilized French nation, one of the achievements of the revolution. Napoleon could put 700,000 men under arms at one time, risk 100,000 troops in a single battle, endure heavy losses, and fight again. He could conscript citizen soldiers in unprecedented numbers, thanks to their loyalty to the nation and to him. No single enemy could match such resources. Even coalitions were unsuccessful, until Napoleon's own mistakes led to his defeat.

## Conquering an Empire

The Peace of Amiens (1802) between France and Great Britain was merely a truce. Napoleon's unlimited ambitions shattered any hope that it might last. He sent an army to restore the rebellious colony of Haiti to French rule. This move aroused British fears that he was planning a new French empire in America because Spain had restored Louisiana to France in 1801. More serious were his interventions in the Dutch Republic, the Italian peninsula, and Switzerland and his reorganization of the German states. The Treaty of Campo Formio had required a redistribution of territories along the Rhine River, and the petty princes of the region engaged in a scramble to enlarge their holdings. Among the results were the reduction of Austrian influence and the emergence of fewer, but larger, German states in the West, all dependent on Napoleon.

**British Naval Supremacy** Alarmed by these developments, the British issued an ultimatum. When Napoleon ignored it, Britain declared war in May 1803. William Pitt the Younger returned to office as prime minister in 1804 and began to construct the Third Coalition. By




By the time this painting was completed in 1807, Nelson was already a hero in Britain. Here he is depicted on his deathbed aboard his ship the *Victory*, during the British defeat of French and Spanish fleets at the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805. The lighting that illuminates Nelson's suffering face evokes religious paintings and suggests martyrdom. Arthur William Devis, "The Death of Nelson." Oil on canvas. The Granger Collection, NYC—All rights reserved

August 1805, he had persuaded Russia and Austria to move once more against France. A great naval victory soon raised the fortunes of the allies. On October 21, 1805, the British admiral Lord Nelson destroyed the combined French and Spanish fleets at the Battle of Trafalgar off the Spanish coast. Nelson died in the battle, but the British lost no ships. Although it would take ten more years before Napoleon's final defeat, Trafalgar ended all French hope of invading Britain and ensured that Britain would be able to maintain its opposition to France for the duration of the war. Britain had endeavored to establish supremacy on the high seas for centuries; now the navy dominated global commercial shipping and seemed undefeatable in military confrontation as well. The Battle of Trafalgar not only foreshadowed Napoleon's ultimate defeat by exposing French vulnerability to British strength, but also seemed the proof of a longstanding British belief that, in the words of one historian, "concentrating resources upon the navy would render Britain 'the guardian of liberty' throughout Europe."<sup>1</sup> Britain's dominance of the seas would not be seriously challenged until World War I.

**Napoleonic Victories in Central Europe** On land the story was different. Even before Trafalgar, Napoleon had marched to the Danube River to attack his continental enemies. In mid-October he forced an Austrian army to

surrender at Ulm and occupied Vienna. On December 2, 1805, in perhaps his greatest victory, Napoleon defeated the combined Austrian and Russian forces at Austerlitz. The Treaty of Pressburg that followed won major concessions from Austria. The Austrians withdrew from Italy and left Napoleon in control of everything north of Rome. He was recognized as king of Italy.

 **Read the Document**  
"Charles Parquin,  
'Napoleon's Army'" on  
[MyHistoryLab.com](http://MyHistoryLab.com)

Napoleon also made extensive political changes in the German states. In July 1806, he organized the Confederation of the Rhine, which included most of the western German princes. Their withdrawal from the Holy Roman Empire led the current Holy Roman Emperor, the Habsburg Francis II, to dissolve that ancient political body and henceforth to call himself Emperor Francis I of Austria.

Prussia, which had remained neutral up to this point, now foolishly went to war against France. Napoleon's forces quickly crushed the famous Prussian army at Jena and Auerstädt on October 14, 1806. Two weeks later, Napoleon was in Berlin. There, on November 21, he issued the Berlin Decrees, forbidding his allies from importing British goods. Napoleon, too, recognized the connection between Britain's commercial and military strength. On June 13, 1807, Napoleon defeated the Russians at Friedland and occupied East Prussia. Having occupied or co-opted the west German states, humbled and humiliated Austria, and defeated Prussia, the French emperor was master of all Germany.

<sup>1</sup>David Armitage, *The Ideological Origins of the British Empire* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 2000), p. 185.

In this 1806 caricature by the famous English artist James Gillray, Napoleon is shown as a baker who creates new kings as easily as gingerbread cookies. His new allies in the Rhine Confederation, including the rulers of Württemberg, Bavaria, and Saxony, are placed in the "New French Oven for Imperial Gingerbread." "Tiddy-Doll, the Great French Gingerbread Maker, Drawing Out a New Batch of Kings. His Man, Hopping Talley, Mixing Up the Dough," pub. by Hannah Humphrey, 23rd January 1806 (aquatint), Gillray, James (1757–1815). Leeds Museums and Galleries (City Art Gallery) U.K./The Bridgeman Art Library International



TIDDY-DOLL, the great French Gingerbread-Baker, drawing out a new Batch of Kings. — his Man Hopping Talley, mixing up the Dough.

**Treaty of Tilsit** Unable to fight another battle and unwilling to retreat into Russia, Tsar Alexander I (r. 1801–1825) was ready to make peace. He and Napoleon met on a raft in the Niemen River while the two armies and the nervous king of Prussia watched from the bank. On July 7, 1807, they signed the Treaty of Tilsit, which confirmed France's gains. Prussia lost half its territory. Only the support of Alexander saved it from extinction. Prussia openly and Russia secretly became allies of Napoleon.

Napoleon established his family as the collective sovereigns of Europe. The great French Empire was ruled directly by the head of the clan, Napoleon. On its borders lay satellite states ruled by members of his family. His stepson ruled Italy for him, and three of his brothers and his brother-in-law were made kings of other conquered states. The French emperor expected his relatives to take orders without question. When they failed to do so, he rebuked and even punished them. The imposition of Napoleonic rule provoked political opposition that needed only encouragement and assistance to flare up into serious resistance.

## The Continental System

After the Treaty of Tilsit, such assistance could come only from Britain, and Napoleon knew he must defeat the British before he could feel safe. Unable to compete with the British navy, he continued the economic warfare the Berlin Decrees had begun. He planned to cut off all British trade with the European continent and thus to cripple British commercial and financial power. He

hoped to cause domestic unrest and drive Britain from the war. The Milan Decree of 1807 went further and attempted to stop neutral nations from trading with Britain. (See Map 19–1.) Britain responded with its own set of decrees, the Orders of Council, which in turn forbid British subjects, allies, or even neutral countries from trading with France.

Despite initial drops in exports, domestic unrest, and tension between Britain and neutral countries that resented the ban, the British economy survived. British control of the seas assured access to the growing markets of North and South America and of the eastern Mediterranean. At the same time, the Continental System badly hurt the European economies. Napoleon rejected advice to turn his empire into a free-trade area. Such a policy would have been both popular and helpful. Instead, his tariff policies favored France, increased the resentment of foreign merchants, and made them less willing to enforce the system and more ready to engage in smuggling. It was, in part, to prevent smuggling that Napoleon invaded Spain in 1808. The resulting peninsular campaign in Spain and Portugal helped bring on his ruin.













