BATTLE
A VISUAL JOURNEY THROUGH 5,000 YEARS OF COMBAT

FOREWORD BY DAN SNOW

R.G.Grant
BATTLE
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FOREWORD

It has become fashionable to designate the importance of battles in human affairs. Many no longer see the great clashes of history as being decisive. Yet the ultimate survival of every civilization has depended on its ability to wage war and, importantly, win battles. If the Greeks had lost at Salamis our universities might now be teaching ancient Persian as a means to understanding the foundation of our civilization. If Charles Martel and his army at Potiers had been defeated by the Moors the cathedrals of Europe could well have been mosques. If a warrior named Muhammad had died of his wounds during fighting between two small Arabian cities the world would have been a very different place. Battles, as Winston Churchill said, are the “punctuation marks” of history. Carthage, Cordova, and Zhao were once powerful and successful states but they failed the sudden test of battle and were consigned to history while nations such as Britain, France, China, and the United States were literally created by war; their borders, languages, and systems of government were forged, then tested by conflict.

Yet today only a handful of us in the developed world are directly touched by the horror of warfare. We think of it as an aberration, a danger that our leaders should have avoided. What this book so vividly illustrates is that throughout history war has been the norm. Periods of peace are in fact exceptional, always fragile and seldom lasting longer than a generation. When groups of humans come into contact, conflicts arise. These can be resolved peacefully or violently. As Mao Zedong said, “politics is war without bloodshed, while war is politics with bloodshed.”

Warfare is older than civilization; in fact it is older than the human race itself as clues from our hominid ancestors show. Violence is as central to human nature as rearing our young. Archaeology has shown that warfare was endemic even in the very first tribal groupings. Later societies have been little different. The Spartans ensured that they lived in a perpetual state of conflict by declaring war on their class of slave labourers, the helots, every year. At Aztec naming rituals it was said that a boy “belonged to the battlefield.” For millennia, every society on earth has been marked by war, from the Maoris to the Meso-American, from the highlanders of Scotland to the horsemen of the Asian steppe.

Much of this has gone unrecorded. This book aims to take the battles, warriors, and technologies for which we do have a record and draw them together to provide a coherent overview. In doing so it charts one of the most important factors in the development of the human race over the five millennia of recorded history.

The huge chronological and geographical spread of this book reveals illuminating similarities between battles in entirely different periods. Outstanding generals have qualities that are timeless. The effect of Genghis Khan’s columns of fast-moving horsemen was remarkably similar to that of the German panzers that carved through France in the spring of 1940. Age-old tactics for enveloping enemy forces were as effective in the Roman world as they were in World War II, as this book’s battle plans show. Time and again successful armies have gained a decisive edge by embracing new technology. Leafing through the pages you will be amazed at the ingenuity and creativity that war induces.

The Chinese developed the first gunpowder explosives, while Hussite wagon forts and iron-plated Korean turtle ships were seemingly impregnable.

But military history is not simply the story of weapons, commanders, and maps. No history of warfare can ignore the experience of the men, women, and children who fought and died in these conflicts. This book reinforces the human impact of war with testimony from the front line, some of it thousands of years old. It reminds us that war is above all human, with all the frailties and contradictions that implies: full of courage, fear, savagery, and compassion. Above all, war is chaotic, changeable, and subject to chance, with factors such as lost or garbled orders, blind luck, and instinct often proving decisive.

In the following pages you will see the face of war as it is, neither romanticized nor glamourized, the leaders shown “warts and all”, and the voice of the common soldier audible throughout. War is one of the motive forces of history. Without a knowledge of war, it is impossible to understand how the modern world came to be. This book makes us realize why even the most advanced societies must occasionally fight. We should be thankful that today’s world sees war as an exception, but it does not follow that war is always pointless. As Aristotle observed, “We make war that we may live in peace.”
THE ORIGINS OF WARFARE

WARFARE HAS BEEN CENTRAL TO the development of civilization. From earliest times, civilized states have flourished or fallen through their performance on the battlefield. The history of warfare begins with conflicts between different groups within limited areas of settled civilization – Persians against Greeks, for example, or Carthaginians against Romans – and between these settled civilizations and their “barbarian” neighbours, nomadic or otherwise.

The nature and extent of primitive warfare – in old words, warfare in pre-state societies – are a fundamental question about human nature: were humans once pacifist, living in harmony with each other, or is warfare and all the horrors that accompany it “natural”? Those who take an optimistic view of human nature argue that, even when hunter-gatherers or simple agricultural societies entered into conflict, these were fought not in a sophisticated manner designed to minimize casualties. Individuals engaged in ritual displays of aggression in the face of the enemy, after which there might be single combat between warriors or an exchange of missiles – arrows, spears, or stones – at a distance. Both sides would then go home with little harm done. More pessimistic historians and anthropologists, while accepting the existence of such ritualised encounters, paint a far darker picture: they point to evidence that “primitive” societies engaged in constant raiding against their neighbours – a state of permanent warfare. What is more, these raids could conclude with the virtual extermination of the losing side, massacre or enslavement of the defeated being the rule rather than the exception. The Maori of New Zealand provide a historical example of primitive warfare. Living in fortified settlements, Maori groups fought one another every summer, often on a point of honour or to avenge an insult. Maori warfare included ritualised displays such as war dances and individual combat between warriors, but also involved ambushes and raids that could lead to death. The victors burned the villages and crops of the defeated and enslaved the survivors. They also feared on their dead enemies and delighted in making fishhooks out of their bones.

“CIVILIZED” WARFARE

The history of “civilized” warfare, if such a term can be allowed, begins with the development of complex societies, made possible by the production of agricultural surpluses, mostly through irrigated farming. Such societies emerged over time in Mesopotamia, the Nile valley, the eastern Mediterranean, the Indus valley, China, and parts of the Americas. Because of the scale of their resources and their organizational ability, these states were capable of deploying large-scale armies that allowed kings or emperors to extend their dominion over subject peoples and to fight other empires in struggles for supremacy.

TECHNOLOGY OF WARFARE

Technology developed alongside the growth of armies. An introduction to warfare from the third millennium BCE, followed by iron from around 1200 BCE, created more effective weapons, replacing stone and bronze in the production of spearsheads, axes, and arrowheads, as well as providing metal armour. To defend settlements and provide bases for military operations, armies began to build fortifications, as well as methods for attacking them in sieges. The most spectacular early battlefield technology, dating from around 3700 BCE, was the war chariot, made possible by the domestication of the horse. The riding of horses as cavalry – probably inspired by the nomadic peoples of the central Asian steppes – did not become a major factor in armies until later, around the 8th century BCE, in Mesopotamia. Warfare also spread to the sea, with the development of oared warships. The first true warships came into existence around 1000 BCE, when the Greeks began to build galleys with wooden rams at the bows, capable of sinking enemy craft.

ORGANIZING ARMIES

By the 1st millennium BCE all the major elements of warfare as we would practised up to the gunpowder age were already in position. There were footsoldiers armed with weapons for slashing and stabbing, as well as missile weaponry such as bows, javelins, and sling stones. There were cavalry, who also used bows or lances. And there was a variety of siege machineries, including giant catapults, first used by Greeks in Sicily in the 6th century BCE. The great question was how to organize and motivate armies to use these technologies. The Assyrians were the first to create a force of regularly paid and fights supplied by a properly organized system of supply. But this model of the professional army, replicated with impressive effect by the Roman empire, from the 1st century BCE, did not have a monopoly of success. In the 5th century BCE, for example, the Greek city-states showed that part-time citizen-soldiers could be formidable fighters, too. And nomadic hordes such as the Huns, fighting as bands of mounted archers, frequently proved devastatingly effective against even the best armies of settled civilizations. The one constant factor revealed at this early stage in the history of warfare was that discipline and leadership could give the edge to any fighting force.

CAVALRY WARFARE

This manuscript’s engravings relief depict Alexander the Great in battle against the Persians. Alexander’s cavalry was the striking force behind many of his victories.

SUMERIAN ARMY, c. 4000 BCE

EGYPTIAN KING NARUMER, c. 3100 BCE

GREEK SOLDIERS, 3RD CENTURY BCE

ROMAN EMPIRE, 1ST CENTURY CE

ROMAN EMPIRE, CONSTANTINOPLE (300-500 CE)

CIVILIZATION ACROSS: THE 3RD CENTURY BCE

ROMAN ARMOUR, 1ST CENTURY CE

ROMAN EMPIRE, CONSTANTINOPLE (300-500 CE)

CHINESE TANKS AND ARMIES: SOUTHERN CHINA, 3ND CENTURY BCE
**The Birth of the Army**

The first recorded accounts of warfare, between the city-states of Mesopotamia in the 2nd millennium BCE, depict warfare on a relatively small scale, fought by armies of a few thousand men. The only vehicles used in these conflicts were chariots drawn by horses. The growth of larger empires during the 2nd and 1st millennium BCE inevitably gave rise to bigger armies and heavier battle engagements.

**The Rise of the Chariot**

Horses were introduced into warfare sometime in the 2nd millennium BCE and gave rise to a major technological innovation: the lightweight, two-wheeled horse-drawn chariot. Used mostly as a platform for an archer, the chariot dominated warfare for about a thousand years. The cost of breeding and stabling the horses, building and maintaining the chariots, and training the chariot crews was very high, but the Egyptians, the Hittites, and the Assyrians were able to field chariot forces in their thousands. The Egyptian New Kingdom (1550–1069 BCE) demonstrated how much power a state could wield with the military resources of the time, carrying out campaigns as far south as Nubia (present-day Sudan) and as far north as Syria.

**Conquests of Sargon of Agade**

Sargon of Agade was the first military administrator in ancient history to campaign by computer. According to legend, Sargon discovered a “biddy in a basket” turned to a golden boy and founded the city of Agade, the exact site of which remains unknown. From there, he conquered the powerful city of Mari and all the other states, from Ur in Sumeria to Elam in Assyria, creating an empire covering roughly the area of modern-day Iraq. His city-state was probably expanded further, perhaps to the Mediterranean and Australia. One inscription tells us that he had 34,000 men, another suggests that he had standing army, recording that “4,000 soldiers on horse below him” and “2,000 soldiers” on horse behind him each day. Sargon’s infantry probably used bow, arrows, and composite bows.

**Victory Monument**

A stele from the Viciae Stage of Sargon of Agade, erected in tablets of Sargon’s victory. He became a master of the war game. He is the first figure of ancient history. He shows off his victory, his war, and his power. We know that he was a master of the art of war, but he also had the honored place in the history of war. This army could cope with huge numbers, once to use all of Sargon’s skill to destroy the walls of the city it captured. Sargon’s army was 224,000 strong. His horse survived 125 years. Later Mesopotamians regarded him as the founder of the region’s military expansion by military conquest, as exemplified by the Assyrians, Babylonians, and Persians.

**Hammurabi**

Hammurabi came to the throne of the small city-state of Babylon in 1728 BCE. He was initially part of an alliance led by the Elamite powerful kings of Assyria, and it is thought that his empire rose to power as a result of this alliance. He was a military genius and a master of diplomacy. His army was divided into four parts: infantry, chariots, cavalry, and siege equipment. Hammurabi’s army was divided into four parts: infantry, chariots, cavalry, and siege equipment. In 1728 BCE, he gathered a large army and invaded the Persian Gulf. He then fought the war, which he considered the final victory.
**NEW KINGDOM EGYPT**

**Kadesh**

Pharaoh Thutmose III (ruled 1479–1425 BCE) led his army out of Egypt to suppress the alliance of princes of Megiddo and Khadez in Palestine. The army took 10 days to march to Gaza, drinking from wells that had been dug along the desert road. After halting in rest and securing the ground ahead, Thutmose took a huge gamble. Instead of proceeding around the mountains that lie to the north, he sent his men through the narrow Anaua Pass, thus exposing them to easy attack if caught. But the gamble paid off, and the army managed to surprise the king of Khadez, who had expected Thutmose to come towards the long-range front around the mountains. Thutmose, leading his forces in a circuit of 3,000 cubits of land and gold, took the forces of Khadez, who fled towards the safety of the fortress of Megiddo. The town’s gate was firmly closed, but three troops had advanced upon the escaping soldiers over the walls, not made of cloth. The Egyptian chariots, however, plundered from the battlefield, and then began a stage of the fortress. These small chariots surrounded the fortress a second time, spending a second day watching the gates.

**COMBAT MEDALS**

Cold metal in the shape of ogive was an obvious weapon to Egyptian soldiers in war for “fighting the enemy.”

**Kadesh**

The siege of Kadesh is narrated in the Bible, according to the Ancient Egyptians, to the point of a battle between Khadez and Gudkilo that takes place when Pharaoh describes his defeat of the Ammonites, the war of King Ahab.

**EGYPTIAN WEAPONRY**

One of the most effective weapons in the arms of Ancient Egypt was the composite bow. Consisting of a set of strings held by horns glued to the stern and stowed on the back of a bow, it was used to fire powerful bolts that could shoot as an arrow at a distance of 500 feet. In Egypt’s New Kingdom period (1550–1069 BCE), the composite bows were mostly bronze, although some were also silver. Still others also employed a set of arrow, dance, and staff, most of which were made of wood. Distinctive epigraphic styles (as called because they resembled the Greek letter) were much used in the late Middle Kingdom period (2052–1701 BCE).

**MENYUCAINE ARMOUR**

The body of men was covered with a thick layer of gold, silver, and bronze. On the back, the men wore a helmet, shoulder, and breech, and a short sword. The helmet was covered with gold, silver, and bronze, and consisted of two parts: the helmet and the shield. The Egyptian charioteers were also equipped with a bow and arrow, and they carried a sword or a spear. The chariots were drawn by two or four horses, and were equipped with a shield and a sword. The wheel of the chariot was made of wood, and was covered with bronze. The chariots were also equipped with a yoke, a whip, and a latch to keep the horses in place. The chariots were also equipped with a sail, a kind of canvas or leather cover, to protect the charioteer from the sun. The chariots were drawn by two or four horses, and were equipped with a shield and a sword. The wheel of the chariot was made of wood, and was covered with bronze. The chariots were also equipped with a yoke, a whip, and a latch to keep the horses in place. The chariots were also equipped with a sail, a kind of canvas or leather cover, to protect the charioteer from the sun.

**NEW KINGDOM EGYPT**

**Sea Peoples’ Raids**

The Sea Peoples were a group of seafaring peoples who lived in the eastern Mediterranean during the Late Bronze Age. They were known for their raids and for their use of iron weapons, which were far more effective than those of their predecessors, who used bronze weapons. The Sea Peoples were also known for their use of warships, which were used for both defense and offense. The Sea Peoples were a highly mobile and adaptable group, and they were able to adapt to the changing conditions of the Mediterranean. They were also known for their use of a unique form of writing, which allowed them to record their history and their military campaigns. The Sea Peoples were a highly mobile and adaptable group, and they were able to adapt to the changing conditions of the Mediterranean. They were also known for their use of a unique form of writing, which allowed them to record their history and their military campaigns. The Sea Peoples were a group of seafaring peoples who lived in the eastern Mediterranean during the Late Bronze Age. They were known for their raids and for their use of iron weapons, which were far more effective than those of their predecessors, who used bronze weapons. The Sea Peoples were also known for their use of warships, which were used for both defense and offense. The Sea Peoples were a highly mobile and adaptable group, and they were able to adapt to the changing conditions of the Mediterranean. They were also known for their use of a unique form of writing, which allowed them to record their history and their military campaigns. The Sea Peoples were a highly mobile and adaptable group, and they were able to adapt to the changing conditions of the Mediterranean. They were also known for their use of a unique form of writing, which allowed them to record their history and their military campaigns. The Sea Peoples were a group of seafaring peoples who lived in the eastern Mediterranean during the Late Bronze Age. They were known for their raids and for their use of iron weapons, which were far more effective than those of their predecessors, who used bronze weapons. The Sea Peoples were also known for their use of warships, which were used for both defense and offense. The Sea Peoples were a highly mobile and adaptable group, and they were able to adapt to the changing conditions of the Mediterranean. They were also known for their use of a unique form of writing, which allowed them to record their history and their military campaigns. The Sea Peoples were a highly mobile and adaptable group, and they were able to adapt to the changing conditions of the Mediterranean. They were also known for their use of a unique form of writing, which allowed them to record their history and their military campaigns. The Sea Peoples were a group of seafaring peoples who lived in the eastern Mediterranean during the Late Bronze Age. They were known for their raids and for their use of iron weapons, which were far more effective than those of their predecessors, who used bronze weapons. The Sea Peoples were also known for their use of warships, which were used for both defense and offense. The Sea Peoples were a highly mobile and adaptable group, and they were able to adapt to the changing conditions of the Mediterranean. They were also known for their use of a unique form of writing, which allowed them to record their history and their military campaigns. The Sea Peoples were a highly mobile and adaptable group, and they were able to adapt to the changing conditions of the Mediterranean. They were also known for their use of a unique form of writing, which allowed them to record their history and their military campaigns.
THE MYTH OF MESOPOTAMIA

FOR MOST OF THE PERIOD from the 9th to the 5th century BCE, successive single states were dominant in the Near East – first Assyria, then Babylonia, and finally Persia. These powerful empires used large, well-organized armies to extend and enforce their rule. Weapons were now mostly of iron, while cavalry and siege engines joined the mix of the empire’s forces.

THE ASSYRIANS

Between the 9th and the mid-7th century BCE, Assyria carried the practice of warfare to a new level of efficiency. Its army was an instrument of terror, using terror, massacre, and mass deportation to wreck vengeance on any people that resisted Assyrian rule. At its peak under King Tiglath-Pileser III (reigned 745-727 BCE), Assyria had a large army hierarchically organized into units led by professional generals. Tiglath-Pileser’s army was ethnically mixed, with foreign mercenaries and prisoners of war constituting major elements in the ranks. These soldiers were paid regularly and supplied with weapons and bases, including fortified central armories.

ASYRIAN CHARIOT

An Assyrian icon depicts a warrior riding a two-horse chariot, showing the time and energy that went into the development of the chariot. The Assyrians used chariots extensively, and their armies were organized around chariots.

PERSIAN KING

The iconography of Darius the Great (521-486 BCE) portrayed him as a symbol of the Persian Empire.

HORSEMAN

The Assyrians used heavily armored horses, introducing heavy, four-wheeled vehicles, but by the end of the 6th century BCE, the heavy cavalry was overtaking mass infantry. Persian horsemen such as the Persian king (Darius the Great) were equipped with heavy armor and weapons. The advent of cavalry brought a new flexibility of maneuver to the battlefield.

SCYTHIAN GOLD

The 2.5-kilometer-long Scythian gold bar in Bashkortostan is one of the largest gold bars ever found, demonstrating the wealth of the Scythians.

THE PERSIANS

The Achaeamenids, who now had the former names of the Sasanian kings of the Persian Empire, also made cavalry a central element of their armies. Like the Assyrians, they assembled multi-ethnic forces, composed of conquistadors and mercenaries from across their empire. Different peoples provided different specialties – Greeks served as mercenaries in infantry, Phoenicians as sailors, Medes and Scythians as horsemen. Next training welded these forces into disciplined armies that, when needed, could move swiftly along long-distance roads to defend or extend the empire.

ASSETRIAN CONQUESTS

Qarqar

By the 9th century BCE, Assyria was the most powerful state in western Asia, using military might to dominate and expand its large empire. But in 853, 12 states in the eastern Mediterranean region, led by Hittites of Damascus and including King Ashur of Israel, formed an alliance to stave off Assyrian convergence. The Assyrian king Shalmaneser III led a huge force against this alliance, which would result in a battle on a scale greater than any previously known. He advanced across the Tigris and Euphrates into Syria, brushing aside resistance along the way. After taking the city of Qarqar, he met the forces of the Syrian king and the Chosreens. The Assyrian army was a mix of chariots, cavalry, and mercenaries. The Assyrian experts’ belief that horses fought in pairs, side by side, with one man holding the reins of both horses while the other held their harness, was not true.

Siege of Lachish

In 701 BCE, Assyria’s King Sennacherib led an army into Palestine to punish subject peoples who – probably with the support of Egypt or Babylon – had rebelled against Assyrian rule. One of these smaller states was Lachish, a coastal city of the Jezreel valley. The city of Lachish is specially well known.

SIEGE WARFARE

The most formidable aspect of the Assyrian army was its ability to defend itself. Instead of setting up thick, hard-to-penetrate walls, the Assyrians preferred to take cities by assault. Engineers were skilled at making cement, of walls and buildings ramps, up which they pushed siege engines consisting of rams with a tower manned by archers. When a besieged city fell, the Assyrians either killed or enslaved the inhabitants.

SIEGEL WARRIORS ON THE WALLS OF A BOTTLE FRAGMENT

The siege warfare is depicted on the walls of a bottle fragment, showing the Assyrian soldiers attacking the city.

RAMMING ENGINE

The city of Lachish was attacked by a massive siege engine mounting the city and future to an archer, which arranged to fire a ball.

BECAUSE IT WAS DEPicted on reliefs with which... Semancharis subsequently demolished its palace in Nineveh. Arriving in those chariots, they were drivers, offering their men toward the city. The great towers, however, were to cut down and the siege engine. The Assyrians emplaced their chariots against the city, with, instead of waiting for a ram or a tower and other engines prepared to assault the city. From the towers, a wall of fire enveloped the city, the archers shot at defenders on the ramparts, using their powerful composite bows.

The arrows provided cover for engineers to advance toward the walls. From this, the Nineveh reliefs depict that engines backed at the base of the wall and tried mining under the foundations. But these mines were not successful, and so the Assyrians built a ramp up to the point of the wall. When the Assyrians had to peel a siege engine up the slope and attack the top of the wall. The siege engine was a wooden tower mounted on four wheels. Archers manned the top of the tower, while the siege engine ramped up slowly. The whole structure was covered with draped leather hides to protect it from flaming arrows – an important advantage given its size. Both sides supported the siege engine down the slope so that the ramp could leave the wall while the archers shot their arrows into the fortified town.

“I captured 46 towns ... by consolidating ramps to bring up battering rams, by infantry attacks, mines, breaches, and siege engines.”

Sennacherib in the Old Testament (Kings, 18)

The siege of Jerusalem in 586 BCE was one of the most significant events in the history of the Assyrian Empire. It marked the end of the Kingdom of Judah and the beginning of the First Babylonian Exile. The sack of Jerusalem was a significant event in the history of the Assyrian Empire, and it had a profound impact on the region of the Near East.
In 612 BC, Naboruah, the Assyrian king, succeeded his father Ashur-nasir-pal, who had died in battle to liberate Babylon. The victory made him the first Assyrian king of Babylon, and he ruled over the city for 35 years, until his death in 578 BC.

Naboruah's conquest of Babylon was significant because it marked the end of the Babylonian Empire and the beginning of the Assyrian Empire. It also brought an end to the city's long period of prosperity and allowed Assyria to control the trade routes that ran through Babylon.

Under Naboruah, Babylon was a thriving city, with a population of over 200,000 people. It was a center of culture, learning, and trade, with a bustling marketplace and a vibrant society.

In 539 BC, Cyrus the Great, king of Persia, invaded Babylon and captured the city with relative ease. The fall of Babylon marked the end of the Babylonian Empire and the beginning of the Persian Empire.

Cyrus's conquest of Babylon was significant because it marked the end of the Babylonian Empire and the beginning of the Persian Empire.

A CHRISTIAN PERSPECTIVE

The mighty Babylon was a symbol of the end of Babylon's power. It was a time of great change and upheaval, as the city's culture and society were transformed by the influx of Persian influence.

Cyrus's conquest of Babylon marked the end of the Babylonian Empire and the beginning of the Persian Empire. It was a time of great change and upheaval, as the city's culture and society were transformed by the influx of Persian influence.

Cyrus's conquest of Babylon marked the end of the Babylonian Empire and the beginning of the Persian Empire. It was a time of great change and upheaval, as the city's culture and society were transformed by the influx of Persian influence.
GREEK TRIUMPHS

THE CITY-STATES THAT FLOURISHED in Greece from around the 7th century BCE were small and apparently weak entities compared to the mighty empires of the Assyrians and the Persians. But their citizen armies, fighting shoulder to shoulder as spear-bearing infantry, proved more than a match for the subject soldiers of Persia. In the 4th century the Macedonian Greeks created an empire that stretched from the Mediterranean to India.

FORTIFIED HEIGHTS

The populace at Athens, like those in other Greek cities, was a useful force to be defended when an enemy came to raid the city.

CITY-STATE WARFARE

The city-states of ancient Greece based their armed forces upon the obligation of free citizens to fight when required, usually as hoplites (heavily-armed footsoldiers). Since the city-states were quarreling and fought one another repeatedly, citizens were frequently called upon to fulfill this military requirement. The citizen armies were not large and could not campaign for long - most hoplites were farmers who needed to be at home at key points in the year - but their battles were ruthless and bloody, fought at close quarters with spears.

GREEK ARMOUR

The Greeks adopted hoplite armour in the 6th century BCE. The full panoply consisted of a helmet, a cuirass for the upper body, and greaves for the knees and shins. Along with the spear, sword, and, above all, shield, this armour was considered the distinguishing equipment of the hoplite. Not all city-state soldiers wore it. The hoplite was expected to provide his own armour and many could afford only a helmet, or possibly a helmet and greaves. A full set of hoplite armour was thus a status symbol and provided an opportunity for a conspicuous display of wealth.

THE ADVENT OF MACEDONIAN POWER

The citizen army of hoplites fighting in phalanxes represented the ancient Greek ideal of warfare. In reality, however, armies were a mixture of citizen, non-citizen, and mercenaries. Poorer men generally fought as skirmishers, handling phalae with stones and arrows, while the better-off were trained javelin-throwers, who proved capable in occasions of inflicting defeat even on the hardy Spartan hoplites. The Greeks eventually lost their independence to their northern neighbours, the Macedonians (also Greek in culture), who had perfected their own form of warfare: a mixed force of professional infantry fighting in a phalanx, skirmishers on foot and on horseback, and an elite cavalry accompanying their chief.

SPARTA AND ATHENS

The two most powerful city-states were Sparta and Athens. Sparta excelled at the more formidable art of combat in ancient Greece by training its citizen elite for war from the age of seven. The Spartans prized hardihood and fitness above all else, and group exercises were performed each day. In adulthood, male citizens were assigned to a mess where they were obliged to eat communally, and each belonged to a band of 40 soldiers who were sworn to obey their commanders. These bands were the basic units of the Spartan army, which alone among the city-states had a clear hierarchy of command. The army of Athens, on the other hand, was made up of citizens who had no particular training but shared the belief that a citizen’s first duty was to fight. If Sparta excelled on land, the Athenian warships dominated at sea.

MACEDONIAN CONQUEST

Under Philip of Macedonia and Alexander the Great the Greek phalanx was reinvented and cavalry armed with lances became a crucial force on the battlefield. Hoplites were organized in a tighter formation of greater depth than before, and each carried a two-handed 6-foot (200-230 cm) long spear, the sarissa. After Alexander’s inspired generalship, the cavalry, infantry phalanx, and light skirmishers were combined to maximum effect, achieving conquest on an unprecedented scale by seizing the Persian empire and Asia as far as northern India. The impact of this encounter with Asia was already visible before Alexander’s death, with Persian taking important positions in the Macedonian forces. The Asian influence continued in the successor states to Alexander’s empire - in Persia, Egypt, and Greece - which would in turn eventually prove vulnerable to the rising power of Rome.

PHALANX

Ancient Greek infantry fought in a phalanx, a close formation typically 8-9 ranks deep. Each hoplite had a shield (the hopon) on his left side and in his right hand a threatening spear around 2m (6-9 ft) long. Where opposing phalanxes confronted one another, their advanced until shield butt met against shield and they pushed with all their weight, while those in the front ranks, wielding spears overhead, stabbed at the enemy.

PHALANX CLASH

A Greek hoplite (right) outwits a saw chain, probably manned by Persians, in the ancient war painting.
GREEK-PERSIAN WARS

AT THE BEGINNING OF THE 5th century BCE, Greeks in Anatolia revolted against the rule of the expanding Persian empire. Despite support from two Greek cities, Athens and Eretria, the Persian emperor Darius the Great crushed the uprising. He then decided to punish the Greek cities that had aided the rebels. The first Persian invasion was repulsed at Marathon in 490 BCE. After 10 years later Darius’s successor, Xerxes, made a more determined effort at conquest. The Greeks rose to the challenge once more, holding up the Persians at Thermopylae and defeating them at Salamis and Plataea. An Athenian-led alliance continued to fight the Persians in the Mediterranean until 448 BCE, but Greece was not invaded again.

The Persians... when they saw the Greeks coming on at speed made ready to receive them, although it seemed to them that the Athenians were few and bent upon their own destruction, for they saw a mere handful of men coming on at a run without... helmeters

The Persian emperor Xerxes succeeded his father Darius in 465 BCE. Determined to expand his empire and avenge the defeat at Marathon, he set in motion meticulous preparations for the conquest of Greece. Faced with this new threat, most Greek cities chose to join in and accept Persian suzerainty. But Athens and the cities of the Peloponnesus, including Sparta, remained defiant. In 480 BCE, Xerxes prepared a vast army and navy, which included trained foot soldiers, cavalry, and ships. BATTLE SITE: Thermopylae

Battlefield

In 480 BCE, Thermopylae was a narrow pass between two mountains, and for this very reason its size was a strategic advantage for the Persians. The Greek forces were located on a narrow ridge, and the Persians were forced to attack in a single file. The Greeks successfully held off the Persians, and the battle ended in a stalemate. The Greeks then retreated to the coast and prepared for the next battle.

BATTLE SITE: Plataea

In 479 BCE, the Persians, commanded by Mardonius, once more marched south into Greece. Athens and the other Greek city-states also assembled a combined force and faced the Persians in front of Plataea. After a night’s battle, the Greeks decided on a right-wing withdrawal to Plataea. This move was strategically advantageous, as the Persian forces were also exhausted and could not pursue them. The Greeks were able to defeat the Persians, securing their independence and ensuring the survival of Greek culture.
The Peloponnesian War, between 431 and 404 BC, was started by Sparta in an attempt to reduce Athenian power. In search of a decisive result, Athens was forced to challenge Sparta's control of Ionian land in turn, Sparta had to contest Athenian control of the sea. When

PERSIAN WAR

A war that threatened much of Greece and the area east of Anatolia into the Peloponnesian War of the late 5th century BC.

**SEIGE OF SYRACUSE**

- **Location**: Syracuse, now part of Sicily
- **Duration**: 116 days
- **Date**: 415 BC

In 415 BC, the Spartans were in an expedition under the politician and general Leonidas in the Greek city of Syracuse. A Sicilian city of the Spartans. The Sicilians had 100 ships and 500 men and, after landing, led a large force to the city. At the time, there was no siege engine capable of breaking down city fortifications, so the Athenians did what they could to destroy the city and encircle it to keep the city from falling.

**SWORD AND SPEAR**

The Greek swords were double-sided, sometimes shaped with a broad blade and a narrower one around 7 in (18 cm). They were generally used for hand-to-hand combat and were also used as a defensive weapon.

**RAM ATTACK**

The Greek ships and the Athenian fleet at Salamis in 480 BC. The Athenians were victorious, and the Spartan fleet was destroyed. This event marked the end of the Persian Wars.

**HORMIDAS**

A city in the southern part of Greece, around 75 miles (120 km) northwest of Athens. It was not captured by Athens in the Peloponnesian War.

**BELOPOLIS**

The Greek city of Beopoli, located on the west coast of Greece. It was not captured by Athens in the Peloponnesian War.

**PILAESTRAE**

A city in the western part of Greece, around 25 miles (40 km) northwest of Athens. It was not captured by Athens in the Peloponnesian War.

**THESSALIAN WAR**

- **Location**: Thebes, Greece
- **Date**: 431-404 BC
- **Duration**: 30 years

The Theban leader Epaminondas, known as the Strategos, led the Thebans to victory in the Battle of Leuctra. The victory at Leuctra restored a period of Thespian dominance in Greece, guaranteed by the military presence of Epaminondas, Sparta and Athens allied to challenge Thebes, but it was only in 428 BC that strong other states joined the alliance of the seven. The Spartans defeated the Thebans, forcing them to leave the alliance. The Spartans went on to crush the Peloponnesian Wars. When a direct advance on Athens was blocked by the Peloponnesian Wars, the Thebans threatened to disrupt the city of Mantinea, one of Sparta's allies. The arrival of an Athenian force

**PERICLES**

- **Location**: Athens, Greece
- **Date**: 443 BC

Pericles was a leader in Athens during the Peloponnesian Wars. He led a successful campaign against Sparta in 421 BC. After falling from grace, he died during the siege of 409 BC.
THE CONQUESTS OF ALEXANDER

Gaugamela (Arbela)

After his victory at Issus (see pg28-29), Alexander spent a year subduing the cities of Syria and establishing his authority over Mesopotamia, the omens of which suggested that the Persian empire was about to fall. The victor of Issus, Darius, had decided to come up against his rival. The arrival of his forces was a sign that Alexander's forces would have to retreat if they were to avoid defeat. The battle was fought in the plain of Gaugamela, an area that had been known for its fertile soil and abundant resources. The outcome of this battle was crucial for the future of the Persian Empire.

ALEXANDER’S PROGRESS

Within 10 years, Alexander had conquered an empire that included much of the Near East, North Africa, and Egypt.

MAPS OF PHILIP II OF MACEDON

Chaeronea

In the spring of 338 BC, Alexander was on the march, having defeated the Persians at the battle of Issus. His next objective was to conquer the city of Chaeronea, which had been a refuge for the Persian forces. The battle was fought on a narrow, wooded hillside, and Alexander's forces were able to use their superior numbers and mobility to gain the upper hand. By the end of the day, Chaeronea was in Alexander's hands, and he had secured a significant victory.

PHILIP II OF MACEDON

When Philip assumed the throne in 359 BC, Macedon was a backwater state on the periphery of Greece. The energetic rule of Philip transformed the Macedonians into a great power, through diplomacy and military innovation. Philip was both a warlord (for he was at war) and a diplomat (for he was at peace). His success in both areas was due to his understanding of the power of the Macedonians, and his ability to use his forces to maximum effect. Macedonia was a region of natural resources, and Philip knew how to exploit them. His forces were well trained and well equipped, and he was able to use them to good effect.

MAPS OF MACEDONIAN ADVANCE

Hydaspes

In 326 BC, Alexander conquered the kingdom of the Hydaspes, a region that had been home to the Scythians for many years. Alexander's forces were able to defeat the Scythians, and he was able to gain control of the region. This was a significant victory, for it marked the end of Alexander's military campaigns. The Hydaspes region was a remote, isolated area, and it was difficult to control. But Alexander was able to use his forces to good effect, and he was able to establish his authority over the region.

ELPHANTS AT WAR

By the time Alexander encountered war elephants at Gaugamela, they had been in use in Indian armies for about 700 years. Apart from being a military asset, elephants were also used for their strength and size. Alexander's war elephants were well armed and had the ability to cause heavy damage. They were a formidable force, and they played a key role in Alexander's victory at Gaugamela.

GEOGRAPHICAL VIEWS

Memorial View

A memorial view looks out over the scene of Alexander's victory at Gaugamela. The view is striking, and it is clear that Alexander's forces were able to gain the upper hand. The view is a reminder of the importance of Alexander's military campaigns, and it is a testament to the power of his forces.
against the Persian line and turned. This forced the Persians to abandon their siege and flee. Alexander then pursued them, captured their elephants, and inflicted heavy losses on the Persian army. Alexander's victories in the war against the Persians established him as a powerful leader and secured his position as king of Macedon. The war also led to the spread of Greek culture across the region,影响着后来的历史发展。
AFTER HIS DEATH IN 323 B.C.E., Alexander’s empire was divided between his generals. Ptolemy took Egypt, Seleucus gained Syria and Iraq, and Antigonus controlled Anatolia. These powers fought numerous battles throughout the 3rd century, and while their armies were large, their style of warfare remained static—a repetition of Alexander’s tactics without his genius. When they faced the growing might of Rome in the 2nd century, the Ptolemies, Seleucids, and Antigonus had no answer to its innovative strategies and ruthless suppression.

ANTHROPOS Versus Seleucids

Ipus

Seleucus

Seleucus II of Syria and Antiochus I of Syria, using strategies similar to those of their predecessors, continued to fight against Rome and its allies. Seleucus II, son of Antiochus I, attempted to conquer the Greek colonies in Asia Minor but was defeated by Rome in the Battle of Ipsus in 301 B.C.E.

Seleucids Versus Ptolemies

Raphia

The battle of Raphia, one of the largest between the successor states of Alexander’s empire, involved Seleucus II, Seleucus’ brother-in-law Antiochus I, and Ptolemy IV of Egypt. Antiochus was the aggressor, challenging Ptolemy for control of Coele Syria—roughly the area of modern-day Lebanon, Israel, Syria, and Jordan. Although Antiochus successfully invaded Coele Syria in 306 B.C.E., he failed to follow up with decisive action against Egypt. His delay allowed Ptolemy to strengthen his forces, winning a decisive victory at Raphia. Antiochus was defeated, and his forces were smashed by those of Ptolemy in number and quality. Each side had a substantial force of elephants, although the Egyptian African contingents were smaller than the Seleucid Indian ones. Pharaoh’s elephants were superior in quality, and they were able to hold their own against the Seleucid forces. The battle ended with a draw, as neither side was able to gain a clear advantage.

“With his tusks firmly locked [the elephants] show off with all their might, each trying to force the other’s trunk down; and since he has made him turn and has him in the flank, he goes him with his tusks as a bull does with his horns.”

Ptolemy VII Philometor

In 283 B.C.E., Ptolemy VII Philometor appealed to Rome for help against the expansion of Seleucus II in Asia Minor. In 281 B.C.E., Ptolemy led his army south through Thessaly, suspecting that Seleucus II was planning to invade Egypt. The battle was fought near the town of Raphia, and Seleucus II was defeated. Ptolemy emerged victorious, securing his position in Egypt.

TRIREME

In the Greek and Hellenistic period, galleys were classified by the number of banks of oars. The Hellenistic trireme had three banks of rowers. The triremes were the most powerful warships of their time, and their success was due to their ability to turn and maneuver quickly. The Greeks were so proud of their triremes that they often depicted them on coins and other works of art.

“Trireme (not at upper left)

THREE OCEANS

Cynocephalae

Magna

The Cynocephalae of Magnesia

On 13 December 179 B.C.E., the Roman forces under Sylla defeated the forces of Attalus II of Pergamon at Magnesia on the Maeander. The battle was fought near the town of Magnesia, and it was a decisive victory for the Romans. Sylla’s forces outnumbered Attalus’ and were able to take advantage of the terrain, winning a decisive victory.

MARDUK VERSUS THE GREEKS

Pydna

Pydna was a key battle in the Macedonian Wars. The city of Pydna was the capital of the Thessalian League, and it was located on a narrow isthmus. The battle was fought on 10 August 168 B.C.E., and it was a decisive victory for the Romans. The Romans were able to defeat the Macedonians by using their superior tactics and more advanced weaponry. The battle of Pydna marked the end of the Macedonian Empire and the beginning of the Roman domination of the region.
CELTIC BRONZE AND IRON WEAPONS

THE CELTS SPREAD THROUGHOUT western Europe in the 1st millennium BCE; they were the Gauls who stormed Rome in 390 BCE and the Britons that Caesar fought in 53 BCE. Their warfare was noisy and flamboyant, with warriors crying out challenges to single combat while the whole army shouted war cries and dashed weapons on shields, to the accompaniment of hornblowers and trumpeters. It took the icy efficiency of the Roman legions to defeat the Celts' wild rage for battle.

WEAPONS OF WAR

The Celts used chariots long after most other peoples had abandoned them. Julius Caesar describes Celts as "driving all over the field, hurling javelins" and then "jumping down from the chariots to fight on foot". Celtic metalworking skills were highly developed and the quality of their swords, both in bronze and in iron, was often outstanding. Swords were costly, however, and not available to all Celtic soldiers; many warriors had to make do with a spear for stabbing or thrusting, or a sling shot.

AXEHEADS

The axe's reach dates back to the 3rd millennium BCE, when bronze axes replaced stone ones. The axe was a widespread and efficient weapon, and the axehead was a versatile tool and weapon.

GUNDESTRUP CAULDRON

A detail from a silver vessel, believed to be of Celtic origin, found in a peat bog at Gundestrup in Denmark. It shows various scenes with shields and spears, and battle trumpets.

SPEARs

Spears, class-throwing javelins, were the standard weapon of Celts warriors, from the Bronze Age through to the Iron Age.

BATTLE DRESS

Celts often used their appearance to unsettle an enemy. They were of large stature, wore their hair in extravagant styles, and, in the words of the Roman historian Polybius, some threw off their clothes before battle and "swoon in front of the whole army naked, with nothing but their arms". This use of nudity for shock effect was an exception, however; depending upon their shields for protection, Celts' habitual war dress was a cloak, tunic, and trousers, along with decorative gold armbraces and bracelets.

BRONZE HELMET

Like the bronze shield (right), this Celtic helmet was found in the Thames. It is uncertain whether this type of helmet was used in battle; it may have been ceremonial.

DAGGER AND SHEATH

This iron dagger, preserved from its wood and bronze sheath, is from the 1st century BCE Britain. It probably belonged to a tribal chief.
THE CONQUESTS OF THE LEGIONS


THE EARLY REPUBLIC

ALTHOUGH ROMÉS EARLY HISTORY IS CHAOTIC IN LEGEND, IT APPEARS THAT THE ROMANS FIRST FUGHT THEIR NEIGHBOURS IN WAR BANDS LED BY WARRIOR ARISTOCRATS. DURING THE 6TH CENTURY BCE ROMÉS EVOLVED A CITIZEN ARMY POSSIBLY THROUGH THE INFLUENCE OF THE ETRUSCANS. BUT IT WAS NOT UNTIL THE 4TH CENTURY BCE THAT SUCH A FORCE CONCERNED WITH THE PROTECTION OF ITS OWN PEOPLE, THE TUTELARY OF ITS OWN CITIZENS.

LEAGUERS OF THE LÉGION

THE BRONZE HELMET

The Romans developed many different helmets. This "Cohors type" helmet is from the 1st century BCE.

A PROFESSIONAL ARMY

THE CITIZEN SOLDIER OF THE IMPERIAL LEGIONS WERE RIGOROUSLY TRAINED AND SUBJECT TO STRONG DISCIPLINE, INCLUDING THE PUNISHMENT OF DESECRATION (THE KILLING OF EVERY TENT MAN BY HIS COLLEAGUES) FOR LEGIONS THAT DESERTED THEMSELVES. YET THE SYSTEM HAD DRAWBACKS. Raising a new army each time war broke out was inefficient, while military service disrupted Roman economy. By the 1st century BCE, the Roman legions had evolved into a professional army of career soldiers, recruited from the poor and equipped by the state. The legions became permanent formations, consisting almost exclusively of heavy infantry. Career legions were developed stronger allegiance to their legions and their commanders than to the Roman state—a key factor in precipitating the civil wars of general against general that enraged Rome in the 1st century BCE. But the continuity of a professional army also allowed the development of military skills, guaranteeing further Roman conquest as the republic became an empire.

SUPPLY LINE

Rome's military success in the first Punic War, leading from Carthage, allowed rapid movement of supplies and equipment.

DEATH BLOW

The absence of some senior officer and the shifting of the Roman rule in the western provinces.

BRONZE SCULPTURE OF A ROMAN SOLDIER

THE ROMAN ARMED FORCED INFLUENCED BY ETRUSCAN ART AND ARMOUR.
EARLY ROME

The Temple of Castor and Pollux in the Roman Forum is said to have been built in 509 BC, marking the founding of the Roman Republic.

The Punic Wars

The Punic Wars were a series of three conflicts between Rome and Carthage, the latter of which was defeated and its city of Carthage destroyed.

The expansion of Roman power

The expansion of Roman power into northern Italy paved a path to the control of the cities established there. One of these, the Roman city of Senons (modern-day Sannio) gained Roman citizenship in 288 BCE.

The Battle of Cannae

The Battle of Cannae was a decisive battle in the Second Punic War, fought in 216 BC between Rome and Carthage. The Roman victory was a turning point in the war, marking the end of Carthage as a major power.

The Roman Republic

The Roman Republic was a period of ancient history in Roman civilization, lasting from the overthrow of the Roman monarchy to the establishment of the Roman Empire.

The Roman Empire

The Roman Empire was a period of ancient history in Roman civilization, lasting from the reign of Augustus to the fall of the Western Roman Empire in 476 AD.

The fall of the Roman Empire

The fall of the Roman Empire was a significant event in world history, marking the end of the Roman Empire and the beginning of the Middle Ages.

The Germanic invasions

The Germanic invasions were a series of invasions of the Roman Empire by Germanic tribes, which led to the fall of the Western Roman Empire in 476 AD.

The fall of the Western Roman Empire

The fall of the Western Roman Empire was a significant event in world history, marking the end of the Roman Empire and the beginning of the Middle Ages.

The Visigothic Kingdom

The Visigothic Kingdom was a kingdom of the Visigoths in Europe that existed from the early 5th to the mid-7th century AD.

The fall of Rome

The fall of Rome was a significant event in world history, marking the end of the Roman Empire and the beginning of the Middle Ages.

The fall of Constantinople

The fall of Constantinople was an event in the history of the Byzantine Empire, which occurred on April 29, 1453.

The fall of the Byzantine Empire

The fall of the Byzantine Empire was a significant event in world history, marking the end of the Byzantine Empire and the beginning of the Ottoman Empire.

The Ottoman Empire

The Ottoman Empire was a powerful state in the Middle East and Europe, which existed from the 13th to the 20th century.

The fall of the Ottoman Empire

The fall of the Ottoman Empire was a significant event in world history, marking the end of the Ottoman Empire and the beginning of a new era in Middle Eastern politics.

The fall of the British Empire

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THE PUNIC WARS

THE EXPANSION OF ROME in the 3rd century BC brought it into conflict with Carthage, the dominant power in the central Mediterranean. In the First Punic War (264-241 BC) Rome and Carthage fought for control of Sicily, in a series of naval battles. Defeated at Mylae, Carthage sought revenge in the Second Punic War (218-201 BC). The Carthaginian general Hannibal came close to destroying Rome, but once more the Romans ultimately triumphed. Finally, in the Third Punic War (149-146 BC) Rome completed the destruction of Carthage.

THE CONQUESTS OF THE LEGIONS

THE PUNIC WARS

Ecnomus

**First Punic War**

**Second Punic War**

**Lake Trasimene**

**Second Punic War**

**Lake Trasimene**

**Hannibal’s Army**

Hannibal was the son of Hannibal Barca, a Carthaginian military leader, who fought in the First Punic War. Hannibal inherited his father’s obsession with revenge against Rome and prepared to invade Italy. He used his considerable resources and influence to launch a military expedition, with a large army of elephants and horses, to conquer Italy.

**Hannibal’s Army**

The army that Hannibal led into Italy in 218 BC had few Carthaginians in its ranks. Since Carthage had too small a population to form a citizen army, it relied on allies or tributaries to provide most of its forces. Various Spanish tribes supplied the core of the army.

**Lake Trasimene**

In the spring of 217 BC Hannibal surrounded the Romans again. By matching his forces against the Roman one, Hannibal managed to separate them. He then positioned his army on the Roman right and, after maneuvering his army, he attacked the Romans from behind.

**The Romans, before they could discover their foe,**

*From the History of Rome, 1.263-123*

**Hannibal’s Army**

Along with Libyans and Numidians from North Africa. In addition, large numbers of Celts (Gaedel) enrolled as the operation went on. Rather than ofstanding three times, Hannibal explained their different fighting styles - Numidians fought better as javelin throwers, for example, while Spanish and Phœnician horsemen were formidable wielders of sling shots. Hannibal had these enemies into three troops in a formation for the march and response to his command.

**Lakendak Slaughter**

*Many of Hannibal’s men were driven into Lake Trasimene, which quickly filled with water. At the end the stream was so great that *Lakendak* Slaughter - ‘blood river’.*
Cannae

Location

After the disaster at Lake Trasimene, the Romans elected Quintus Fabius Maximus to deceiver the war (Fabius’ policy was to avoid pitched battles, instead shadowing and harassing Hannibal’s army, although these tactics were also the Roman way of making war. In July 216 BC, when Hannibal captured a Roman supply depot at Cannae in southern Italy, a massive Roman army set out to destroy his forces. Under the command of Gaius Laelius, Aemilus Paullus and Gaius Terentius Varro, the Roman force consisted of 16 legions: eight Roman and eight Italian. After some initial skirmishes on both sides, Hannibal’s troops moved towards Cannae on August 2, after which Hannibal defeated the Romans in front of the city but then declined to fight. The following day, on Venus’ orders, the Romans forced the river and drew up to fight on the south bank—a relatively narrow battlefield between the river and some hills, in which the Carthaginians would find it hard to use their cavalry. Without hesitating, Hannibal set his own army across the river, choosing a route with a screen of skirmishers. The Roman infantry legions were massed in a deep right formation at the centre of the left line, with Roman cavalry flanking them on the river side and allied hoplites on their left. Hannibal’s line consisted of lightly armed Celtic and Spanish infantry at the core, flanked by African infantry at the edge of the line. Hannibal’s armoured cavalry charged into the Roman hoplites. With no mud to maneuver, most

Thus it came about, as Hannibal had planned, that the Romans were caught between two hostile lines of Libyans—thanks to its impetuous pursuit of the Celts. Still they fought, though a longer in line, yet singly, or in maniples...—Phylus, The History, c.208–512 BC

Siege of Syracuse

Events after Cannae show the importance of siege in ancient warfare. Hannibal failed to capture any fortified cities, yet alone Rome itself, because he had no siege equipment. Some cities did, however, submit to the Carthaginians. Among these was the Greek city of Syracuse, the largest city of Magna Graecia, which rebelled against Rome in 212 BC. During the war, it was under the rule of Hieron I. The Carthaginian general Marcus Claudius Marcellus consequently led an army to the city by sea and land. The elderly émigré Archimedes was one of the Carthaginian Syracusians’ defence. He organized a siege to protect the city. The generals of both sides experimented with different siegecraft, with Hannibal’s troops using artillery, including Roman siege engines, and the Carthaginians devices of their own, including outsize, scaling ladders mounted on carts. Roman soldiers sold prisoners attached to a ship’s mast to lower the wall against the city walls, but Archimedes’ defensive devices managed to smite them. The siege dragged on for many months. The Romans were unable to raze the blockade sufficiently to keep all supplies out, but Archimedes attempted to solve the problem in 212 BC, while the inhabitants participated in a festival to the god Antonius, the Romans managed to get over the walls and into the city. It seems that Archimedes was killed during the assault of Syracuse. The outer city, Archimedes was killed three days later. In the intervening eight months, however, before a Syracusan traitor opened the gates of the city to the besiegers, who took the city, the Carthaginians in pursuit of the Carthaginians who fled亚洲 was destroyed.

DEATH OF ARCHIMEDES

The Greek mathematician Archimedes (c.287 –212 BC) died at the age of 75 during the assault of Syracuse. The outer city, Archimedes was killed three days later. In the intervening eight months, however, before a Syracusan traitor opened the gates of the city, the besieging forces entered. Later the Romans discovered a mass grave, the bodies of thousands of soldiers killed in a battle that started a turning point in the war.

Zama

Up to 283 BC Hannibal successfully maneuvered an army in southern Italy, but elsewhere the war was turning in Rome’s favor. The Roman general Scipio Africanus conquered Carthaginian Spain, and in 206 BC the Roman general Scipio Africanus conquered Carthaginian Spain, and in 206 BC. This victory forced Hannibal into instituting in Sicily the war against Hannibal, and Hannibal was forced to bring them to battle, but the maneuvering of his infantry was instead successful, and Hannibal’s army was now stronger. Hannibal’s men were Italian, most of them. Hannibal left to Africa across the river and assembled a large army around the state of Hannibal’s Italian allies. At Rome, Scipio was waiting in his Carthaginian baggage train to capture Rome, but Hannibal was forced to bring them to battle, but the maneuvering of his infantry was instead successful, and Hannibal’s army was now stronger. Hannibal’s men were Italian, most of them. 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IMPERIAL ROME

A SERIES OF CIVIL WARS in the 1st century CE brought down the Roman republic and led to the founding of the empire. Under the first emperors, Augustus, and his successors, military attention shifted to the frontiers of the empire. In the east, Rome sought to extend and defend its territory against successive rulers of Persia, while in the west it fought the barbarian, or Germanic, tribes.

AN OUTSTANDING ARMY

The legions of the early Roman empire were an outstanding force, formidable in battle and in all aspects of siege warfare and engineering — building roads, bridges, and fortifications. From the 1st to the 4th century CE there were always about 30 legions, each consisting of 10,000–15,000 men. These troops were augmented by large numbers of auxiliaries, mostly recruited from conquered peoples within the empire. Yet, despite their advantages, including the support of field artillery in the form of catapults and ballistae, the legions were occasionally beaten, especially by enemies who relied on missile weapon and trained to engage in close combat.

HADRIAN'S EMPIRE AND WALL

In 122 CE Hadrian ordered the building of a wall to discourage raids from the North into the Roman Empire. The wall stretched 73 miles (117 km) across Britain.

THE LEGIONS' DECLINE

From the late 2nd century CE, the Roman empire once more slipped into a era of civil wars that toppled the strength of its armies. In the 3rd century, barbarian raids and migrations also began to overrun the empire’s borders. The Roman army responded by building up its cavalry, which probably more than doubled in number between the 2nd and 6th centuries. It also extended the recruitment of auxiliaries to include entire barbarian war bands under their own commanders. For infantry, throwing spears and longer swords replaced the classic pila (throwing spear), and pilums (short, two-edged swords), while soldiers wore chain mail and iron helmets. During the 5th century the Roman classic legion ceased to exist, integrating into the Byzantine army in the east, with its tradition of massed cavalry and supplied in the west by the war bands of peoples such as the Franks, Lombards, and Saxons.

LEGION INSIGNIA

Imperial arms were part of their identity. This plate shows the emblems of the Tenth Legion, which took part in suppressing the box revolt in Britain (60–61 CE).

CONQUERING FORCE

The single or double columns in Rome show that Roman military operations from the Rhine of Gaul to the Danube are great.

IMPERIAL ROMAN ARMOUR

This weaponry and armour comprised a legionary's equipment in the second half of the 1st century CE. The iron helmet replaced earlier bronze headgear, but by this time leather coats were probably only worn for special ceremonies or as a sign of rank. The throwing spear (pila) and the short two-edged sword (gladius) were the Roman infantry's basic weapons for at least 500 years (200 BCE to 300 CE).

SLAVE WAR

In 73 CE, about 80,000 gladiators escaped from their prison in Capua, southern Italy. Under the leadership of Spartacus, this small band attracted a growing army of veterans, mostly slaves who had run away from their masters. Spartacus formed this group into an effective guerrilla army.

GLADIATORIAL COMBAT

Gladiators in action in a Roman amphitheatre. Most gladiators were prisoners, including captives taken in war.

INVASION OF THE TEUTONES

Aquae Sextiae

In the last decade of the 2nd century CE, Germanic tribes threatened the Roman empire in Gaul. After the Roman legions defeated a Germanic army at Aquae Sextiae, the commander, Gnaeus Marius, decided to send a strong force to reinforce the Roman legions in Gallia. Facing the Teutones and Audienienses at Aquae Sextiae, he drew up his battleline at the top of a slope while sending 3,000 men to hide in woods. When the enemy were almost upon them, the Roman legions charged down the hill with their plumed and ragged, battering their shields and shouting with their swords. The barbarians were pushed back to the foot of the hill, at which point the 3,000 concealed troops emerged to attack them from the sea. The barbarians were slaughtered.

Carthage

A disaster for the Roman empire in the east. In 242 BCE Marcus Livius Drusus led an army into Syria to attack the Parthians, rulers of Parthia, but the Carthaginian expedition consisted entirely of cavalry mounted on horses, but also armed lancers. When Carthage met the Parthian forces under Surens, their leader, he advanced with his legionaries in a nifty packed square. Parthian horsemen charged around the square, showing a hail of arrows into the troops, the fire of their composite bows proved sufficient to pierce armor. When the Romans attempted to engage them they rode off at speed, then turned back to encourage their troops. Carthage's son Publius was killed leading a charge against the lancers and the Parthian punished his head on a spear. Carthage itself was one of many Rome fought to force only to be killed while remaining.
"All Gaul is divided into three parts..."

WITNESS TO WAR

GALIC WAR

Gallia

Julius Caesar was the first general to leave a detailed account of his own campaigns. He was not only a military commander but a statesman who achieved supreme political authority over the whole Roman world, and, in the history of the Gallic Wars, a text of almost unparalleled significance. Caesar's work has remained an unrivalled literary epiphany, yet beneath his artificially polished prose, it is hard now to discern that its content was as much self-serving propaganda as unvarnished truth.

As a nation the Gauls are extremely superstitious; and so persons suffering from serious diseases, as well as those who are exposed to the perils of battle, offer, or vow to offer, human sacrifices, for the performance of which they employ Druids. They believe that the only way of saving a man's life is to propitiate the gods' wrath by rendering another life in its place. Some tribes have colossal images made of wickerwork, the limbs of which they fill with living men; they are then set on fire and the victims burned to death.

Although Caesar provides a great deal of important evidence about the Celtic tribes' social and political organization, much of it is quite generalized. His narrative dwells in some detail on Gallic customs that a Roman audience would find barbarous and threatening. Caesar no doubt played on inherited folk-memory of the Gaulish sack of Rome in 396 BCE (see p.36). So deeply fixed were these that each year guard dogs were crucified on the Capitol in recurring vengeance for their ancestors' failure to alert the people of Rome to the presence of the marauding Celtic host. That Julius Caesar had in effect exceeded his authority when he crossed into Gaul in 58 BCE by making the emperor a patron of the proletary Celt in retrospective justification of his invasion.

Caesar clearly regarded Vercingetorix, the Celtic chieftain, as a worthy foe against whom to test the mettle of his legionaries. This was no mere inflation of the martial prowess of his opponent, and that this victory would reflect favourably Caesar's own achievements; the Roman general would have been well aware that it was his own determination to conquer the whole of Gaul that had united the tribes behind a single war-standard.

To baffle the extraordinary bravery of our troops the Gauls resorted to all kinds of devices... They made our terraces fall in by undermining, at which they were expert because they have extensive iron mines in their country and are thoroughly familiar with every kind of underground working. They made frequent sorties by day and night, either to set fire to the terrace or to attack our soldiers at work...

"Caesar put on speed to get there in time for the fight. The enemy knew that he was coming by the scarlet cloak that he always wore in action... The Romans dropped their spears and fought with their swords. Suddenly the Gauls saw the cavalry in their rear and fresh cohorts coming up in front. They broke and fled, but found their retreat cut off by the cavalry."

"[Caesar] fought pitched battles at various times with three million men, of whom he destroyed one million in the actual fighting and took another million prisoners."

Plutarch, Life of Caesar, chap. 15

TROPHY OF THE ALPS

This monument in the Alps commemorates a victory by Augustus. Caesar's feat, won in alliance with the Alpes.

Julius Caesar: The Gallic War, 1.1

Julius Caesar: The Gallic War, 6.10

Julius Caesar: The Gallic War, 7.4-7.5, 7.14
Vercingetorix ended when he found the Gauls army camped on high ground outside the town of Alesia in the summer of 52 BC, so he began to key his men to work building a line of fortifications to enclose both the town and camp, consisting of 23 forts, linked by ditches and a river surrounded by a palisade, with towers at intervals of 2,000 feet. Before this astonishing siege line was complete, Vercingetorix’s cavalry managed to break out, although they suffered heavy losses. Caesar suspected that the cavalry had been sent to organize a rear guard, and he had another ring of fortifications built facing onwards. As food ran out in besieged Alesia, the Gauls sent their women, children, and old people out of the town. Caesar, however, refused to let them escape and had them all slowly shot to death in the same manner as those who rebelled the year before. The siege lasted three months when, as Caesar had anticipated, a large Gallic relief force arrived. The force made three assaults on the siege line, each time exited by a sortie from Alesia. The last sortie cost close to success when Vercingetorix’s men chanted Roman songs from a section of wall with a hail of javelins, arrows, and sling bullets. But Caesar threw reinforcements into the threatened sector before leading a mixed force of infantry and cavalry to cut the Gauls off. The Gallic relief force dispersed in disorder, Vercingetorix, with all hope lost, rode down to the Roman camp. He surrendered by throwing his sword at Caesar’s feet. Each Roman soldier received a Gaul’s head to sell as a souvenir.

In 49 BC, Caesar sailed across the Rhone River into Italy, in defiance of Pompey and the Senate (see below). Civil war seemed inevitable. Pompey fled from Italy, allowing Caesar to occupy Rome, where he was declared dictator. But Pompey had control of the Roman navy and superior land forces. In January 49, Caesar sailed seven legions across the Adriatic, chasing Pompey’s vessels, eroding Pompey’s morale, and landing near his opponents’ base at Dyrrachium. Although greatly outnumbered, Caesar’s legionaries had siege to Pompey’s army, which was positioned around a natural harbor. After a competition in fortification building, in which Caesar tried to wall Pompey in and Pompey’s engineers sought to block these attempts, fighting broke out in which Caesar’s forces came off worse. The dictator retreated to northern Greece.

In the confused power struggle that followed, Antony took control. He planned a surprise attack across the Adriatic to take the camp commanded by Caesar. Antony’s operation was wholly successful — he captured all but two. Caesar died by drowning himself in the Tiber River. Antony decided to risk a pitched battle. It was a disastrous decision. (nly) Octavian kept Brutus occupied from the front. Antony once more led his men through the enemy to encircle the republic’s left. Brutus escaped from the field that followed, but soon followed Caesar’s example and fell by his own hand. The alliance between Octavian and Antony continued through a decade after this victory.

Vercingetorix

A shield of the Cretan Vercingetorix united warriors from central and western Gaul into a disciplined army that matched the Romans in willpower. Exploiting his forces’ superior knowledge of terrain, he captured Caesar’s legionaries, used ambush and sudden backstrokes tactics. His disguised surrender at Alesia was revealed by humiliation by the Roman, who led him in chains through Rome in celebration of Caesar’s triumph and, after three years imprisonment, executed him.
**ROMAN SEIGE TACTICS**

The tactics or siege war in Roman times revolved around the use of battering rams and catapults. The common罗马 siege weapons were the battering ram, the ballista, and the onager. The battering ram was a large, heavy weapon used to break down wooden or earthen walls. The ballista and onager were large catapults used to hurl heavy stones or arrows at the enemy's defenses. The Roman legionaries were trained to use these siege weapons effectively, and their use was often decisive in sieges.

**DACIAN CAMPAIGNS**

The Dacians were a people who lived in the region of Dacia, which is now present-day Romania. In the 1st century AD, the Roman emperor Trajan invaded Dacia, and the Dacians were defeated in a series of battles.

- **Teutoburg Forest**
  - Location: Near Osnabrück, northern Germany
  - Near Remagen, Rhineland-Palatinate

  In the last two decades of the 1st century BC, the frontier of the Roman Empire in northern Europe extended eastward from the Rhine River to the boundary of Roman Gaul. As the Elbe River entered the Germanic tribes, the conquest of the Celtic Germanic tribes was far from complete, however, and there were several raids in the first decade of the new century. In the summer of 19 AD, the Roman general Publius Quintilius Varus was conducting operations in central Germany, out of the Weser River, with an army of three

- **Mountaintop Fortress**
  - The ruins of the city of Mandal, which in 78 AD included distinct hill fortresses and several important military installations.

- **Agincourt Scottish Campaign**
  - Mons Graupius

  Gracianus adopted the Roman governor of Britain, led a force of legions and local auxiliaries to Scotland to prevent an uprising by Caledonian tribes. When he met the Caledonian army, led by Calgacus, Agricola left his auxiliaries to fight, keeping his Roman troops safely in reserve. The key role was played by cavalry, which dispersed the Caledonians' charge and then attacked their flankers from the rear. The Caledonians were hacked down as they fell to the field.

- **Revolts of the Iceni**

  The Dacians were a people who lived in the region of Dacia, which is now present-day Romania. In the last decades of the 1st century BC, led by Decebalus, they carried out raids across the Danube into Roman territory. These raids ended with a peace treaty favorable to the Roman emperor, and the emperor Trajan's invasion of Dacia in 101 was a punitive expedition, intended to reconquer Roman

- **TRAJAN'S DACIAN CAMPAIGNS**

  The Dacians were a people who lived in the region of Dacia, which is now present-day Romania. In the last decades of the 1st century BC, led by Decebalus, they carried out raids across the Danube into Roman territory. These raids ended with a peace treaty favorable to the Roman emperor, and the emperor Trajan's invasion of Dacia in 101 was a punitive expedition, intended to reconquer Roman

**TEUTOBURG FOREST**

Unlike the Teutoburg forest of 2,000 years ago not a single woodcutter, with summer past, in whose Roman cavalry camps were well attended. Without German scouts to guide them to water, the Romans entangled the summer, nearby Teutoburg forest. Arminius' warriors harried the Roman column incessantly over a period of days, taking a steady toll with his men and units. Finally the weakened army was completely surrounded. Most of the Roman soldiers and their families were killed, and Varus committed suicide. According to the Roman historian Tacitus, Roman soldiers coming upon the site of the massacre four years later found "shattered bones, broken weapons and the blood of men, while the depth of men was strewed with the ruins of camps and houses."

**ROMAN MAXE**

The wood, from The Teutoburg forest, hark back to a food crisis by Roman soldiers in tournaments.
THE SHIFT TO THE EAST
LATE IN THE 3RD CENTURY CE THE EMPEROR CLAUDIUS GORDIANUS (RULED 244–249) RESIGNED IN FEAR OF REBELLION OR INVASION DURING THE ROMAN EMPIRE. HE DIVIDED THE EMPIRE BETWEEN HIS SON CAESAR SEVERUS ALEXANDER AND HIS SON CAESAR SEVERUS HIGIATUS. THE NEW DIVISION MEANT THE END OF THE CONCEPT OF A SINGLE EMPEROR OVER A SINGLE EMPIRE. THE EMPIRE WAS DIVIDED INTO TWO SEPARATE EMPIRES.

THE CAMPAIGNS OF CONSTANTINE
Milvian Bridge

In the early 4th century, the empire was divided into eastern and western halves, with the west based in Rome. The eastern empire was based in Constantinople. The western empire was divided into a Roman West and a Germanic West, with the Romans retreating to the west of the Rhine and the Goths settling in the eastern empire.

THE CAMPAIGNS OF THEODORES
Frigidus

The empire was further divided into two halves, with the western empire facing constant threats from the Visigoths, Vandals, and other barbarian tribes. The eastern empire, on the other hand, was relatively safe and was able to focus on internal affairs.

THE CAMPAIGNS OF ATILLA THE HUN
Known to those who feared him as the “Scourge of God,” Attila became a feared figure in the eastern empire, which was already fraught with internal conflicts. His victory at the Battle of Tolbiac led to the collapse of the eastern empire, as it was unable to recover from the shock.

The Eastern Empire continued to exist, but it was never the same again. The empire was weakened by constant invasions and internal conflicts, and it eventually fell to the Eastern Turks in 1197.
ASIAN EMPIRES

IN THE 1ST CENTURY CE, while the Roman Empire underwent a period of consolidation, China’s Han empire (206 BCE–220 CE) was at its height of power, possessing arguably the most formidable army in the world. The Han general Pan Chao (32 CE–102 CE), for instance, led forces deep into central Asia. Empires in China and India were similar to Rome in that both struggled to protect their borders against “barbarian” invaders, and, in China, political rivalries were never far from the surface.

EVOLVING ARMIES

As in the Middle East, warfare in China was at first dominated by chariot-ridden aristocracy. Chariots appeared under the Shang dynasty (c. 1500–1050 BCE) and proliferated under their successors, the Zhou. In the 6th century BCE, centralized power collapsed in China, leading to the Spring and Autumn Period, characterized by small battles between local lords. Gradually, the consolidation of larger kingdoms led to the Warring States Period (475–221 BCE). This was a time of military innovations that saw the world’s first crossbows. Cavalry began to replace chariots in the 4th century BCE, a move credited to King Wu of Zhao, who persuaded aristocrats to abandon their long bows and adopt the more mobile and efficient sword. In 221 BCE, Qin Shi Huang united China through a series of spectacular military campaigns. The dynasty he founded, the Qin, was swiftly succeeded by the Han.

TERRACOTTA WARRIOR

This renowned soldier is one of thousands of life-sized clay figures located in the tomb of Emperor Qin Shi Huang, who ruled China between 221 and 210 BCE.

CHINESE WEAPONS

The crossbow, introduced about 430 BCE, was the archetypal Chinese muscle weapon, but other types of cross bows were also used. For close combat, soldiers relied on spears and swords. Instead of shields, they depended on leather, mail, or quilted armour. There is dispute over whether new weapons supplemented or replaced the older in China, but both were in use in the Han empire.

ASOKA

Asoka was one of the last Mauryan emperors of northern India. For much of his life, he was noted for his bravery and ruthlessness — qualities admired among the Mauryan warrior aristocracy. In order to win the throne, he is said to have had all his brothers murdered, including the rightful heir, Samudra. It was only after the insurrections that resulted from his move south (c. 280 BCE) that Asoka apparently converted to Buddhism, and adopted a creed of non-violence. It is not clear how he maintained his empire without resorting to force.

GREAT WALL

In the 300 BCE, Chinese army began building fortifications in hope of stopping waves. Under the Qin, the Han Dynasty from the Huns, but the Qin’s fortifications became a reminder of how the Han fell (c. 200 BCE — 189 BCE), establishing several smaller but still formidable empires and developed their own use earlier. Most strikingly using elephants in battle. Yet India was always prone to attack by nomadic invaders from the north, including the Scythians and Parthians and the mysterious White Huns, who swept away the Gupta empire in the 6th century CE.
CHINESE WARFARE

During nearly 1,000 years between the battle of Chengju (632 BCE) and the battle of the Fei River (383 CE), the Chinese experienced almost constant war. Wars ranged from power struggles between rival kingdoms to resistance to "barbarian" invasion by steppe nomads. In addition, at times when China was at its strongest, wars were fought to project power far beyond its borders. Among the consequences of these experiences were sophisticated developments in military theory and practice.

**SPRING AND AUTUMN PERIOD**

Chengju

Chengju was a classic battle from the era of "barbarian war" in China. It occurred during the country's Spring and Autumn Period (770-476 BCE), when the state of Chu, which dominated an area stretching south of the Yellow river region, was so far north as the Yellow river fought a three-cornered war between the states of Jin to the north and Wu to the south. The main chariot ornament of this 5th century BC battle is a decorated chariot. Chu was eventually the victor in this battle.

**WARRIORS STATES PERIOD**

Guai Ling

The battle of the Warring States Period (475-221 BCE) involved the rival states of Chu and Qin. It began when Wei's forces harassed the Chou capital, which forced Wei to declare war. The Chou ruler asked Guan Sheng to help. On the advice of the general, Guan Sheng told Wei to send an army to Han and Qin to limit Wei's forces. Wei ignored this advice and sent an army to attack Han. Qin attacked Wei and defeated the Wei army. This battle was a turning point in Chinese military history.

**Xiongnu Invasion**

Xiongnu invasion

After the collapse of Qin's rule in 202 BCE, the Han dynasty was founded by the emperor Han Gaozu, whose attempt at central authority was undermined by constant conflict with the Xiongnu, an enemy of the Han. Gaozu led an army against the Xiongnu, but his forces were no match for the Xiongnu's mounted archers. Surrounded by the enemy in a forest, Guan Sheng was forced to make a retreat in the forest, which included the sacrifice of his son. This battle marked the beginning of the Han's conflict with the Xiongnu.

**WARRIORS STATES PERIOD**

Changing

The Warring States Period was an era of continual conflict in China with various feudal kingdoms vying with one another. By the 4th century BC, there were seven leading kingdoms: Chu, Qin, Wu, Yan, Qi, Wei, and Han. They experienced constant war and struggled to establish dominance over the other states. The state of Qin was considered the most powerful and largest.

**RED CLIFFS**

Fei River

The battle of Fei River was fought between the states of Wei and Shu in 208 CE. The battle was fought over control of the Yangtze River valley. The Wei forces were commanded by Cao Cao, while the Shu forces were led by Zhuge Liang. Zhuge Liang used his knowledge of the terrain to trap the Wei forces and inflict a decisive victory.

**HAN DYNASTY WAR**

Some key events during the Han dynasty included:

- **301 CE**: The battle of Red Cliffs, which saw the defeat of the Jin forces by the Wei forces. The battle marked the end of the Three Kingdoms period and the start of the Jin dynasty.
- **316 CE**: The fall of the Western Jin dynasty, symbolizing the end of the Jin dynasty and the start of the Northern and Southern Dynasties period.
- **581 CE**: The overthrow of the Southern and Northern Dynasties period by the Sui dynasty, which initiated a period of unification and centralized rule.

**ARMS AND ARMOUR**

Chinese society had a long tradition of armament. The use of bronze weapons and armor was common from the Shang dynasty (c. 1600-1046 BC) to the late Han dynasty. The Northern Wei Dynasty (386-534) saw the development of more advanced armor. The Jin dynasty (1115-1234) used iron armor, which was more effective than bronze armor.

**BRONZE WORD**

The bronze word "fei" refers to a type of Chinese armor that was used by the northern barbarians. The term "fei" is derived from the word for "iron" and "armor." The word "fei" can also be translated as "armored horse," a term used to describe the armored horse that was used in military conflicts.

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This article provides a brief overview of the major events and conflicts in Chinese warfare from the Spring and Autumn Period to the Han dynasty. It highlights the technological advancements and strategic developments that characterized Chinese warfare during this period. The article also provides insights into the cultural and political context in which these events occurred. The use of bronze weapons and armor, as well as the development of chariot warfare, were significant factors in the evolution of military strategy in China. The analysis of key battles, such as Chengju, Guai Ling, and Fei River, offers a glimpse into the military tactics and tactics employed by the various states and empires during this era.
INDIAN WARFARE

ONE OF THE CLASSIC LITERARY TESTS of ancient India, the Mahabharata tells of the power struggle between cousins the Kauravas and the Pandavas. Most authorities accept that the war was not a real historical event, instead, the account is a rare source of information about how wars were fought in India before the 4th century BC. The probable date of its composition is the 6th century BC, according to the war, armies fought mostly on foot, with horses being rare and used only to drag the chariots which were too heavy for cavalry tactics. The course of the 18-day battle that followed was filled with the usual histrionics with the Greek epic the Iliad is famous for, with a few minor differences and a hero who, like Achilles, is killed because a protective magic spell misses one part of his body.

MAHABHARATA RELICS

Kalinga Wars

Like his grandmother Chandragupta and his father Bindusena, Emperor Ashoka fought campaigns to extend the boundaries of the Mauryan empire. Asoka eventually rebelled all the southern tip of India, and his army expanded northward east or at least to southern Iran. One of the states he conquered was Kalinga, a kingdom on India’s east coast. Around 262 BC, in the eighty year of Ashoka’s rule, he called on the Kalinga king to acknowledge Mauryan overlordship. When the king refused, Ashoka sent his army to enforce his authority, but this first Mauryan army was routed by the Kalingas. Enraged by this unexpected setback, Ashoka gathered his largest forces he could muster for a second invasion. This time the Kalingas had no answer to the Mauryan military might, and their army was completely crushed. Ashoka desolated Kalinga later in life by making a symbolic offering to the Buddha as a sign of remorse. Later invasions included a costly 4th century war against the Cholas, a 3rd century war against the Chalukyas, and 3rd century conflicts with the Cholas, a 3rd century war against the Chalukyas, and 3rd century conflicts with the Cholas.

THE DHAMMA STUPA

Gupta Wars

With the decline of the Mauryan empire in the 2nd century BC, Indian war became a period of political fragmentation, but the memory of the Mauryan empire was not lost. In the 4th century BC, a ruler called Chandragupta Maurya was the first to conquer all of Bengal and its neighbors. He unified the various tribes that had previously fought each other, creating a unified state that lasted for over 300 years. Under his rule, the Mauryan empire reached its peak, expanding its influence throughout the Indian subcontinent.

Gupta Empire

Northern India was subject to repeated invasions by central-Asian peoples. In the 1st century BC, the Scythians and the Parthians arrived in India and established kingdoms there. In the 1st century AD, the Kushans established an empire that ruled much of northern India, as well as Afghanistan and parts of central Asia, for almost two centuries. In the 5th century, the empire was divided into two main sections: the White Huns to the east and the Black Huns to the west. The White Huns were a nomadic confederation of tribes who migrated into the region from Central Asia and invaded northern India. They were led by a group of leaders known as the Onkans and were known for their horsemen and archers. The White Huns conquest of India led to the establishment of the White Huns kingdom in 252 AD, which lasted until 260 AD. This kingdom was centered in the Punjab region and was known for its wealth and power. The White Huns were a formidable military force and were able to conquer large parts of the Indian subcontinent.
WARFARE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

476-1492
CAVALRY AND CITADELS

Although the term “CAVALRY” is often associated with the Middle Ages, the use of cavalry dates back to ancient times. The Middle Ages saw a significant development in the use of cavalry, which became a crucial element in warfare.

DOMINANT CAVALRY

During the Middle Ages, cavalry played a dominant role in warfare. Armies were composed of knights on horseback, who were equipped with armor, lances, and swords. The use of cavalry allowed for quick movement and the ability to engage in close combat.

FORTS AND SIEGES

Fortifications and sieges were common during the Middle Ages. Castles and fortified towns were built to protect against enemy forces.

GUNPOWDER

The introduction of gunpowder changed the nature of warfare. Gunpowder weapons allowed for more effective and precise attacks, leading to the development of artillery.

WARFARE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

The use of cavalry and gunpowder had a profound impact on the strategies and tactics employed during the Middle Ages. The development of these technologies marked a significant shift in the way wars were fought.

MILITARY TECHNOLOGY

The development of gunpowder and the use of cavalry were key advancements in military technology during the Middle Ages.

1400: The Battle of Tewkesbury marked the end of the Wars of the Roses in England.

1415: The Battle of Agincourt was a significant victory for the English.

1445: The Battle of Nikopolis ended the Wars of the Vlachian Principalities.

1453: The Fall of Constantinople to the Ottoman Turks marked the end of the Byzantine Empire.
INVADERS AND FEUDAL LORDS

AFTER THE DISINTEGRATION of imperial Rome in the 5th century the empire continued in the east, centered on Constantinople. In western Europe the Franks extended control over Gaul in the vacuum left by the Romans, but waves of invaders—Vikings, Saracens, Magyars—made life insecure for the settled population. It was not until the 11th century that the pressure from raiders and invaders would begin to subside, allowing western Europe to enter a more aggressive phase.

BYZANTINE SURVIVAL

The Byzantine empire was named after Byzantium, the ancient city refounded as Constantinople in 330. After an early phase during which it attempted to resist control in the west, the empire was largely on the defensive, often relying on the formidable walls of Constantinople to resist invaders. The heart of the Byzantine army was its armoured cavalry, the cataphracts, who carried heavy mount, horse, and sometimes lances. From the 7th century cavalry recruitment was based on the duty of farmers to serve the empire, although this system evolved to one in which regional lords provided agreed numbers of hominens. Byzantine use of cavalry was sophisticated for example, in response to raiding by Arabs and Turks, frontier watchtowers provided early warning of intruders, allowing cavalry to track down and destroy the raiding parties.

BYZANTINE HERO

General Belisarius (505-565), a 6th-century warrior, is a military genius of Donatian, Frankish and Byzantine empires.

KNIGHTS AND FORTS

Like the Byzantines, Charlemagne’s Franks saw armoured cavalry as the core of the army—the airilden’s arm expected to predominate on the battlefield. The knight’s horse and armour had been developed as being equivalent in value to 20 cows. No state in early medieval Europe could afford to maintain such expensive war machines, so the knight had to be self-supporting, owning land to provide the income to equip himself for war. Recent historians have warned against seeing this period in terms of “feudalism”—with knights holding land in tenure for military service—but landowners certainly had the duty to present themselves armed and mounted when their lord required. A major military feature missing from European landscapes until the 10th century was the castle. Before that there were simple places of refuge such as hall forts and fortified monasteries that provide some indication of a new military style. When castles did begin to be built, most were of earth and wood, like the famous motte-and-bailey design—an earth mound topped by a tower and surrounded by ditches, a rampart, and a palisade.

RAIDERS AND SETTLERS

Between the 5th and 10th centuries, western Europe experienced waves of armed raids, invasions, and migrations that threatened the stability of states and the safety of established communities. While Muslims and Vikings raided along the coasts, peoples such as the Avars, Bulgars, and Magyars pressed across Europe’s long land frontier to the east. The Vikings were especially feared, the raids of their warships terrorizing communities along coasts and up rivers for inland from the late 8th century. However, many raiders and invaders evolved into settlers, as in the Muslim states of Spain and the Magyar kingdom of Hungary. The Scandinavians, for a long time a plague to Christian western Europe, eventually established realms in eastern Germany, Ireland, and northern France. Intermarrying with local people, the French Normans became known as Normans, and their fearsome warrior bands adopted the fighting practices of their settled neighbors, becoming mounted knights like the Franks. In the 11th century Norman armies—hardly to be distinguished from those of any other European state—conquered not only Anglo-Saxon England but also southern Italy and Sicily.

VIKING BELLIES

In this Viking prison scene the arm活力 is secured in bellies. Beyond him is the king flaring his arm with a sword.

THE STIRRUP

Stirrups came into use in Europe around the 7th century, but central Asian horsemen had already used them for about 800 years. It was once held that they revolutionized warfare, giving cavalry the stability to stage attacks with crushing lances. However, many examples of heavy cavalry performing perfectly well without stirrups. More important was the adoption of a saddle with a twisted pommel at the front and castle at the back.

NORMAN CASTLE

Begun in the 11th century, Rochester Castle is a well-preserved Norman stone fortress.

MOUNTED KNIGHT

A mounted knight rides in the style of the era, he is carrying a lance and shield.

FRANKISH WARRIOR

The 8th-century costume of a Frankish warrior gives a picture of a “heavenly” (haggard). Frankish mailers were priced across Europe.
BYZANTINE SURVIVES

IN THE EARLY 6TH CENTURY the Byzantine emperor Justinian (483–565) recovered the lost regions of the Roman empire in much of the western Mediterranean. His success, however, was short-lived. Italy, for example, had succumbed to the Lombards by the 580s. The Byzantine empire retained its vigour, mopping up over the Persians in the 620s, but over the next 100 years Islam-inspired Arab conquests delivered a blow from which Constantinople never completely recovered. The Byzantine army remained a well-organized fighting force, and its armoured cavalry was second to none, but from the 7th century Byzantine’s success in more expansive phases were chiefly a search for more defensible frontiers.

BYZANTINE ARMIES

BYZANTINE ARMIES

TRICARANUM

The main responsibility of Belisarius’s forces was to hold the line against the Persians, who were advancing on Constantinople. The Persians had been defeated by the Byzantine army at the Battle of Varsina in 493, but they were still a threat. Belisarius’s army was well-prepared, with a strong cavalry contingent and well-equipped infantry. The Persians, on the other hand, were poorly trained and equipped. The Persians were defeated at the Battle of Issus in 562, and Belisarius continued to lead the Byzantine forces against the Persians, eventually capturing the city of Alexandria in 576.

SIEGE OF ROME

In 533 Emperor Justinian sent an army to reconquer former Roman north Africa, which the Vandals had occupied since the 5th century. Led by the Byzantine general Belisarius, an army sailed from Constantinople on board 500 transports, under the escort of 70 warships. The force landed on the island of Triscia and advanced on the Vandal capital, Carthage, which it seized on 13 September after a battle on the outskirts of the Vandal king Gellimer. Gellimer, however, built up a new army in neighbouring Numidia and returned to the offensive. As the Vandals drew near to Carthage, Belisarius sent a sortie to meet them despite having doubts about the loyalty of his heavily armed eastern barons, who were made up of Hellene heavy cavalry.

The Byzantine army was well-prepared, with a strong cavalry contingent and well-equipped infantry. The Persians, on the other hand, were poorly trained and equipped. The Persians were defeated at the Battle of Issus in 562, and Belisarius continued to lead the Byzantine forces against the Persians, eventually capturing the city of Alexandria in 576.

In 551, under the energetic leadership of Zeno, the Ostrogoths had occupied most of Italy from the Byzantines. Justinian appointed an aged general, Narses, to command an army to take Rome in 552. In summer 552 Narses marched around the head of the Adriatic coast into Italy and advanced southwards towards Rome. Narses blocked his path in a narrow mountain pass in the Appennines. The Gothic heavy cavalry, caught and charged, at their own will, but were taken under concentrated fire from archers, both ranged on the left, and whom Narses had placed in advanced positions on the flanks. Thence back in combination and down they enveloped the Byzantine army. Three killed in the ensuing night, and two who had already mounted a sortie victory at Cadiz. Narses had regained Italy for the empire.

BYZANTINE ARMIES

The Byzantine military was divided into three main branches: the cavalry, the infantry, and the navy. The cavalry was the most important branch, and was divided into two main types: the heavy and the light cavalry. The heavy cavalry consisted of armoured horsemen with large shields, while the light cavalry consisted of horsemen without shields. The infantry was divided into two main types: the foot soldiers and the archers. The foot soldiers were equipped with helmets, shields, and swords, while the archers were equipped with bows and arrows. The navy was divided into two main types: the galleys and the warships. The galleys were large ships with oars, while the warships were smaller ships with sails.

The Byzantine army was well-prepared, with a strong cavalry contingent and well-equipped infantry. The Persians, on the other hand, were poorly trained and equipped. The Persians were defeated at the Battle of Issus in 562, and Belisarius continued to lead the Byzantine forces against the Persians, eventually capturing the city of Alexandria in 576.
FRANKISH POWER

After the collapse of Roman rule in the west, the Frankish kingdom became the dominant power in Gaul. By the 9th century, under Charles the Bald, its territory extended beyond the borders of what we now consider the state of France. In 843, however, the Carolingian empire was divided into three Frankish kingdoms. "The northern peoples remained immobile as a wall, holding together like a glacier in the cold regions, and in the blink of an eye annihilated the Arabs with the sword. The people of Austria, greater in number of soldiers and supremely armed, killed ... Abu al-Rahman when they found him, sitting by the fire on the hills."
VIKING RAIDS
Raid on Constantinople

VIKING LONGSHIPS

VIKING HELMET

Lindisfarne

Edington

Seige of Paris

Although the Franks had fortified their walls to block major rivers, they could not stop the Viking penetrating deep inland, and in November 885 Viking forces reached Paris. After their first attempt to seize the city failed, they set up a siege. The defence of Paris was led Count Charles and Bishop Wulstan. Paris was inside a double line of bulwars and inner-defences, in which the Vikings were eventually trapped and killed by the Parisians. The city was retaken, and the Vikings were forced to retreat back to the Seine.
VIKING AGE

Maldon

**DATE**: 21 October 991

**LOCATIONS**: Maldon, Essex

During the 10th century the Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Essex was ruled by a series of overlords. The last of these, the East Saxons, became the subject of an Anglo-Saxon poem. In the summer of 991 a large force of Wessex warriors under Æthelred the Unready invaded Essex, where King Athelstan of Northumbria was also involved in a dispute with the East Saxons.

**EAST SAXON FORCES**
- **Leif Tryggvason** (leader of the East Saxons)
- **Ecgnoth** (thoss, or vanguard)
- **Jarls** (warriors)

**WEST SAXON FORCES**
- **Cnut** (King of Wessex)
- **Harald Finehair** (King of Denmark)
- **Harald Finehair's forces**

**RESULT**: The East Saxons were defeated, and their king and many nobles were killed.

**VICE-REIGN OF LOROS**

**DATE**: 14 October

**LOCATIONS**: England

**CAMPAIGN**: The Viking fleets of Harald Finehair and Harald Hardrada invaded England in 1066.

**EAST SAXON FORCES**
- **Harold Godwinson**
- **Harold Godwinson's forces**

**WEST Saxon FORCES**
- **William the Conqueror**
- **William the Conqueror's forces**

**RESULT**: The battle was won by the Normans, who went on to establish the Norman conquest of England.

**Viking Settlement in Ireland**

**Clontarf**

**DATE**: 23 April 1014

**LOCATIONS**: Ireland

**RESULT**: The battle of Clontarf was fought between the forces of Brian Boru and the Vikings led by Olafsson and Harald Fairhair. Brian Boru was killed, and the Vikings were defeated, leading to a significant shift in power dynamics in Ireland.

**Danish Invasion of England**

**Ashingdon**

**DATE**: 25 October 1013

**LOCATIONS**: Ashingdon, Essex

**RESULT**: The battle was a significant victory for the Anglo-Saxons, who defeated the Danish forces led by Harald Finehair.

**Viking Chain Mail**

**DATE**: 11th century

**LOCATIONS**: Europe

Chain mail was a type of armor worn by the Vikings. It was made of small, interlocking metal rings that provided protection against weapons.

**Viking Weapons**

**DATE**: 11th century

**LOCATIONS**: Europe

**RESULT**: Viking weapons were designed to be light and agile, allowing for rapid movement in battle.

**CIVILIANISATION**

**DATE**: 11th century

**LOCATIONS**: Europe

**RESULT**: The Viking age saw significant advances in civilization, including the development of trade routes and the spread of knowledge.

**NORMAN CONQUESTS**

**DATE**: 11th century

**LOCATIONS**: Europe

**RESULT**: The Norman conquerors established a powerful dynasty in England, which lasted for several centuries.

**HASTINGS**

**DATE**: 14 October 1066

**LOCATIONS**: Battle of Hastings

**RESULT**: The battle of Hastings was fought between the forces of William the Conqueror and the English army led by Harold Godwinson. William emerged victorious, establishing the Norman conquest of England.

**ANGLO-SAXON VS NORDIC**

**DATE**: 11th century

**LOCATIONS**: Europe

**RESULT**: The battle of Stamford Bridge was fought between the forces of Harald Finehair and the English army led by King Æthelred. Harald emerged victorious, establishing his power in northern England.

**WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR**

**DATE**: 11th century

**RESULT**: The Battle of Hastings was fought between the forces of William the Conqueror and the English army led by Harold Godwinson. William emerged victorious, establishing the Norman conquest of England.

**CITICATE**

**DATE**: 11th century

**LOCATIONS**: Europe

**RESULT**: The battle of Stamford Bridge was fought between the forces of Harald Finehair and the English army led by King Æthelred. Harald emerged victorious, establishing his power in northern England.
WARRIORS OF ISLAM

FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A Muslim state in the 620s, the expansion of Islam was astonishingly swift. Within a century, the Islamic caliphate controlled much of Asia, North Africa, and part of Europe. These conquests were achieved without innovative technology or tactics, but were the triumph of a militant ideology, inspiring believers with a fighting spirit and an urge to conquer in the name of their faith.

PROPHET AND CALIPH

Although in principle war between Muslim societies was forbidden, war against unbelievers was permitted by the statutes of Islam and encouraged by its early leaders. The prophet Muhammad (c.570-632), founder of Islam, was also a military leader who fought and was wounded during the war between the north African cities of Medina and Mecca. During the brief rule of Abu Bakr, the first of the “caliphs” who led the Muslims after Muhammad’s death, Arab Muslim forces had already begun to push outside Arabia. By the foundation of the Umayyad caliphate in 661, with its capital at Damascus, the Arabs ruled Egypt, Persia, Palestine, and Syria. Within a century they penetrated to the east as far as Afghanistan and as far west as Spain and central France. The unity of Islam was an ideal not realized, the founding of the Umayyad dynasty itself sowing the seeds of the split between Sunni and Shia Muslims that has persisted to this day. In the 760s the Umayyads werebloodily overthrown by the Abbasids, who moved the caliphate’s center to Baghdad. Riots caliphate were proclaimed in Cordova and in Egypt (the White Fatimids) in the 900s and 1000s centuries. Internal disputes merrily hobble Islam’s expansion.

FIGHTING TECHNIQUES

Arab armies were originally notable largely for their use of camels, which gave them great mobility, carrying equipment and supplies as well as soldiers. Yet the Arabs proved quick learners: adapting much from the military techniques of the Byzantines, they developed effective cavalry and even learned the art of naval warfare. By the time the Abbasids had established a distinctive force in the Islamic world in the 13th century, decisively defeating the Byzantines at Manzikert in 1071.

CERAMIC CAVALRYMAN

This bowl was made in 14th-century Persia. Persian army and armor - for example, the helmet - mirrored Islamic norms.

NEW WAVES

By the 13th century there were signs that the Islamic tide was ebbing. In Spain the Christian Reconquista (see p.88) was well under way. Dynasty among the Seljuks had allowed Christian crusaders to seize Jerusalem and establish new states in the eastern Mediterranean. In the 13th century most of Spain was lost by Islam, while Muslim Asia fell to the fall of Mongol attacks under Genghis Khan and his successors. Muslims ruled much of northern India but were soundly rebuffed by Hindu Rajput kingdoms and, from the 14th century, by the empire of Vijayagiri in southern India. Yet Islam retained a powerful, capable force in Iberia, while the armies of Egypt, the Mamluks, proved capable of defending both the Mongols and the crusader states, while in Anatolia in the late 1300s the Turkish sultan Osman I began the slow build-up of the Ottoman empire.

DOME OF THE ROCK

One of Islam’s holiest sites, this shrine was built in Jerusalem in the late 7th century. Over 300 years after the death of the boy, its is to 536. It was begun by Byzantine archbishops.
ARAB ADVANCE

CAMEL WARRIORS
ONE ACCOUNT OF HUNAIB’S DEATH: THE BATTLE OF HUNAIB IS THE LARGEST BATTLE IN ARAB HISTORY. IT IS THE LARGEST BATTLE IN ARAB HISTORY.

MUSLIM ASSAULT ON SASSANIAN
Qadisiya

Yarmuk

In 634, an Arab force crossed traditional Damascus and marched towards the banks of the Yarmuk, bypassing the Byzantine fortress of Gaba. This forced the Byzantine army into a retreat and it was defeated in a battle that was won by the Arab forces under the leadership of Amur ibn al-Sa’d. The battle is commemorated on the Yarmuk river.

THE BATTLE OF HUNAIB
Al-Baladullivan

The Arab invasion of Al-Baladullivan (C. 632) described the battle of Yarmuk in his works. The Emir of the Islamic State, who was known for his boldness and bravery, led the army of the Arabs, who were welcomed by many people, especially those of Syria and Palestine, who believed him to be Muslim. He was eventually appointed as the caliph and, under his leadership, the Arabs conquered Damascus and, in 632, captured the holy city of Jerusalem.

CAIRO WAR IN THE MIDDLE EAST
Siege of Constantine

Forty years after the Arab forces first crossed the Red Sea, a Muslim army, led by Musa ibn Nasser, crossed into Europe to besiege Constantinople, the capital of the Byzantine. At this time, the capital was under siege by the Byzantine Empire, which was led by the emperor. The Byzantine forces were eventually defeated, and the city was captured by the Muslim forces. Musa ibn Nasser, in his attempt to capture the city, was eventually captured by the Byzantine forces and executed.

CAMPaigned AGAINST ATHENAEUS
Siege of Palermo

The Byzantine Empire was eventually conquered by the Muslim forces, who were led by the caliph. The city was eventually captured and the Byzantine Empire was eventually conquered by the Muslim forces. Musa ibn Nasser, in his attempt to capture the city, was eventually captured by the Byzantine forces and executed.

STRATEGIC POSITION:

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NATIONAL HERO:

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ARCH OF ARAB VICTORY:

The Byzantine Empire was eventually conquered by the Muslim forces, who were led by the caliph. The city was eventually captured and the Byzantine Empire was eventually conquered by the Muslim forces. Musa ibn Nasser, in his attempt to capture the city, was eventually captured by the Byzantine forces and executed.
ISLAMIC IMPACT

ONE RESULT OF THE MUSEUM ARAB VICTORIES in the 7th and 8th centuries was the Islamicization of the mainly Turkish peoples of central Asia. Consequently the Turks became warriors of Islam, putting their traditional fighting skills at the service of the faith in “slave” armies employed by Arab rulers. Soon these Turkish slave soldiers themselves became rulers of large areas of Asia, overseeing the Arabic empire known as the Abasid caliphate.

In the 11th and 12th centuries Turkish leaders such as Mahommed of Gahri and Alp Arslan headed a new wave of Muslim military expansion. Mahommed took the armies of the faith deep into India, while Alp Arslan turned Anatolia, the heartland of the Byzantine empire, into the territory of the Seljuk of Rum.

In the 1060s the Seljuk Turks, led by Turgut Beg, began to roll areas of northern Alarahan, part of the Ghorid empire. In the Ghorid capital, led by Muhammad, was the renowned Seljuk commander Alp Arslan, who led the Seljuk forces. In 1063, Tugrul Beg’s army, which included the Seljuk fleet of warships, invaded the region of northern Alarahan, and Tugrul Beg’s army met the Seljuk fleet in battle. The Seljuk fleet was defeated, and Tugrul Beg was killed. In the years that followed, the Seljuk Turks continued to expand their empire, taking control of much of the territory they had conquered from the Ghorids.

In 1073 the Byzantine emperor Romanos IV decided to strike a decisive blow against the Seljuk Turks, who had been carrying out incursions into Asia and Anatolia. He set out across the Bosphorus with a large army — although the loyalty of many of its mercenaries and feudal levies was questionable. Alp Arslan, the Seljuk leader, led a force north from Syria to meet the Byzantines. Romanos, insolently, divided his forces, sending the largest part against the Seljuk-held fortress of Kharid while he himself occupied the forum of Istanbul. The first time the two armies met at a battle of Yozgat. Unarmed, the Crusaders drove up their forces on a plain outside Kharid and opened advance. The Turks, however, proved an elusive enemy. Their mounted archers maintained harrying fire on the Byzantines from the flanks, but their centre crumbled. After an exhausting day chasing Crusaders, Romanos was far from his camp and was cut down by archers. The Byzantines were able to retake part of Anatolia, but the Byzantine emperor was never recovered from the defeat at Yozgat.

In 1079 Alp Arslan, the conqueror of Gorgan, Armenia, and Anotlia, succeeded his uncle Tugrul Beg to the Seljuk throne in 1063. Chronicles differ in their descriptions of Alp Arslan’s character: some view him as cruel and capricious, while others see him as just and wise. He was undoubtedly a superb leader of an army in the field, displaying a mix of cunning, bravery, and absolute ruthlessness. He was killed by a poisoner while on campaign in Persia the year after his great victory at Manzikert.

WARRIORS IN THE MIDDLE AGES

INDIAN FORTRESS

The 12th-century fortress of Indragad in Bikaner was built by a Hindu Rajput prince who invited Muslim nobles into India.

ALP ARSLAN

Alp Arslan, the conqueror of Gorgan, Armenia, and Anotlia, succeeded his uncle Tugrul Beg to the Seljuk throne in 1063. Chronicles differ in their descriptions of Alp Arslan’s character: some view him as cruel and capricious, while others see him as just and wise. He was undoubtedly a superb leader of an army in the field, displaying a mix of cunning, bravery, and absolute ruthlessness. He was killed by a poisoner while on campaign in Persia the year after his great victory at Manzikert.

BYZANTINE PERSPECTIVE

An illumination from an 11th-century Byzantine manuscript depicts a combat between Byzantine (left) and Arab (right) forces.

"It was like an earthquake: the shouting, the sweat, the swift rushes of fear, and not least the hordes of Turks riding all around us." A Byzantine chronicle on the Seljuk assault at Manzikert.
THE CRUSADES

IN THE LATE 11TH CENTURY, responding to a call from Pope Urban II for a holy war against the Muslims, a military expedition captured Jerusalem and founded Christian states in the eastern Mediterranean. For the next 200 years Muslim armies sought to drive the Christians out, while more crusades were mounted to relieve them. Other crusades were declared — against Christian heretics in France, Muslims in Spain, and pagans around the Baltic Sea — but it is with the expeditions to the Holy Land that the word is forever associated.

KNIGHTS’ CROSS

The painted arms of Geoffrey of Bruges, the knight who was present in the capture of Jerusalem in 1099 and became the first Latin ruler in Palestine.

TAKING THE CROSS

There were many motives for going on a crusade, from the pious promise of eternal salvation to pride for land and plunder. It was not an enterprise to be taken lightly. Getting to Palestine — a journey of some 4,000km (2,500 miles) from Europe — was in itself a considerable undertaking. The overland route through Turkish-controlled Anatolia proved a death-trap for many crusaders, while the sea route, though longer, entailed no such hazard. The sea route was by sea, which involved expensive insurance on the lives of Italian cities such as Genoa, Pisa, and Venice. A large-scale crusade such as that of the French king Louis IX in 1248 was an extremely ambitious undertaking, costing six times the French crown’s annual income. Exactly how many Christians went on crusade is unknown, but the figure is believed to have involved about 3,000 cavalry, 20,000 infantry and archers, and 30,000 assorted pilgrims and camp followers.

DIVIDED LOYALTIES

Raiding and sieges were the two most common forms of warfare in the crusader lands. The Europeans were no special effort to change their style of fighting — continued on the charge with lances by heavily armoured knights — but to suit local conditions. Crusader armies, generally heavier than those of Muslim armies, could become unmanageable, so the shock of the well-ordered heavy cavalry and the mace and shield were adopted to keep the metal coats in check. War was often from a straightforward fight between Muslim and Christian. Each side fought their own battles as well as the fight with the infidel. In the search for survival, the Christian states formed alliances with Muslim neighbours and, even, in the 14th century, with the pagan Mongols. Wherever strong Muslim leaders such as Saladin (1137–93) or the Mamluk Egyptian ruler Baybars (d.1277) emerged, the Christan fell back on the strength of their stone fortifications. Baybars could field an army of around 40,000, at least twice or three times the combined strength of the crusader states. The crusaders were, however, generally skilled and aggressive fighters, even if they sometimes lacked discipline.

SALADIN’S ARMY

A European representation of the army of Salahadin. The crusaders most impressive Muslim foes.He is regarded by many as a Christian warrior.

BUILT IN STONE

Receding Their previous occupation of the crusader’s territory, the Muslims built many formidable stone castles like this one at Manneh in northern Turkey.

1107–1180

RICHARD I THE LION-HEART

Richard, the son of Henry II of England and Eleanor of Aquitaine, embarked on a crusade to Palestine in 1199, just a year after he succeeded his father as king of England. The English king, who was well known for his chivalry and bravery, was accompanied by a large army of knights and followers. They sailed to the Holy Land, where they were met by the Saracen forces of Saladin, the Muslim ruler of Egypt and Syria. The two armies faced each other on the plains of Arsuf, where Richard was victorious. He then went on to capture Jerusalem, which he held for the rest of his reign.

ROYAL TOMBS

Richard was buried in Fontenay Abbey, France, after being killed by a cannonball during the siege of Chios. The tomb is said to be marked by a large stone cross, and is located in the church of Fontenay Abbey.

SIEGE WAR

A typical siege of the early crusade period, with the Saracen forces of Saladin using a shield of wicker and a crossbow, as well as a large wall of stone.

THE MILITARY ORDERS

From the 12th century, the military orders such as the Hospitallers and the Templars established themselves in the crusader states. Like monks, members of these orders followed religious rules but were dedicated to war in defence of Christendom, becoming the elite of Christian armies in the east. The Templars were accorded a army and suppressed in 1312, but other orders continued to play an important role in European warfare, such as the Order of Santiago in Spain and the Hospitallers in war against the Ottoman Turks.

TEMPLE KNIGHTS

A failed assault of the Knights Templar, who took their name from the quarter of crusader-nor Jerusalem, in the former Jacobite Temple.

WARFARE IN THE MIDDLE AGES

THE CRUSADES

[Page 78]
In 1095 Pope Urban II called on Christian knights to embark on an expedition to seize the holy city of Jerusalem, held by Muslims for more than 400 years. Some 100,000 people across vast and west Europe answered the pope’s call, fired by the hope of material gain and Urban’s promise of a place in heaven to those crusaders who died on the battlefield. Against all the odds, this large-scale force moved into distant, hostile territory succeeded, and Christian states began to flourish in Palestine and Syria. Their existence, however, was always precarious, and the mounting of Muslim counterattacks necessitated other crusades to defend the gains of the first. Instead of a one-off event, crusading became an established part of medieval Christian life.

In spring 1148 Bohemond of Antioch joined Baldwin of Edessa to capture the forces of Haruz. A relieving Muslim army came upon the Christians outside the city, Bohemond and Baldwin split their forces, the Edessenes fought the Muslim attack while the Antiochenes held in ambush. But the Muslims used the diverted stream of barbarians, firing back Bohemond’s men straight into the rear of the main Muslim force. By the time Bohemond received word of the disaster, the Edessenes had been cut apart.

The fall of Edessa, the most isolated of the crusader states, set the stage for the next phase of the crusades. The Muslim attack of 1149, led by the king of Jerusalem, Tancred, and King Louis VII of France and the Emperor Conrad III of Germany set out from Europe, but got into serious trouble coming across Asia. Conrad’s army, hungry, thirsty, and discouraged, was annihilated by Turks and massacred near Hama. The emperor escaped with a few survivors and eventually arrived in Palmyra by sea. After following the Anatolian coast to Anfis, King Louis also took to the sea with most of his knights safely reaching his destination, but his followers and remaining cavalry were decimated by the Turks.

By the time the First Crusade reached Jerusalem, it had dwindled to about 2,000 knights. Under the vigorous leadership of Count Raymond of Toulouse and Godfrey of Bouillon, however, they prepared as建筑, building walls and towers, and constructing canals. Under a barrage of arrows andGreek fire, the crusaders used the towers to the full. On the night of the second day, with the city walls already pierced, the defenders were seen overcome. A great massacre of the city’s Muslim and Jewish inhabitants followed, which lasted for days and in which thousands were killed.

In the wake of the capture of Jerusalem in 1099, the crusaders established their new settlements, known as the Crusader States. These states included the Kingdom of Jerusalem, the Principality of Antioch, the County of Edessa, the County of Tripoli, and the County of Edessa. The leaders of these states were known as kings, and they ruled with the help of their knights and their vassals. The crusaders established their own laws and institutions, and they were able to maintain their territories against the Muslim forces that had oppressed them for centuries.

The fall of Edessa set the stage for the Second Crusade. In 1148, King Louis VII of France and the Emperor Conrad III of Germany set out from Europe, but they got into serious trouble coming across Asia. The crusaders were eventually defeated and massacred near Hama, and the emperor escaped with a few survivors and eventually arrived in Palmyra by sea. After following the Anatolian coast to Anfis, King Louis also took to the sea with most of his knights safely reaching his destination, but his followers and remaining cavalry were decimated by the Turks.

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"Let this one cry be raised by all the soldiers of God: It is the will of God!"

Robert the Monk, History of Jerusalem, reporting on Uthman II's arrival at Clermont, 1098

FIRST CRUSADE

With these words, Pope Urban II set off the most powerful force of Christian renewal since the days of the Emperor Constantine, or, depending on one's point of view, gave religious sanction to the murder and depredation of countless thousands of Levantine Muslims and Jews. Even since the Patriarch Sophronius died of a broken heart after the Muslim capture of Jerusalem in 638, successive Christian prelates had alternately chafed at Muslim restrictions on pilgrims or dreamed of the glory that the restoration of the cross to Jerusalem would bring. The shattering of the Byzantine army by the Seljuk Turks at Manzikert in 1071 and a subsequent appeal for help from Emperor Alexius I was all that Urban needed to preach a new holy war, a crusade, to liberate the Holy Land.

with swords, they turned in flight. The Count followed them for two miles, and in this space he saw the bodies of the killed lying like bundles of grain reaped in the field. The ambushes which Bohemund had encountered were scattered and put to flight...."

"[When] the Arabs, coming against the Count of Flanders, saw that the affair was not to be conducted at a distance with arrows, but at close quarters with swords, they turned in flight. The Count followed them for two miles, and in this space he saw the bodies of the killed lying like bundles of grain reaped in the field. The ambushes which Bohemund had encountered were scattered and put to flight...."

Raymond d' Aguiler, History of the Franks on the siege of Antioch, 1098-9

At Antioch, the crusaders became bogged down in the characteristic squabbling and frustrated violence of a medieval siege. Deciding not to risk the losses that would ensue from storming the city's impressive fortifications, the Christian army were caught in a waiting game. They hoped that Antioch's starving defenders would surrender before their own dwindling supplies gave out entirely. Meanwhile, they sought to undermine Muslim morale — if not the walls — by hurling a creative array of incendiary devices against the infidel.

"Some of our men (and this was more merciful) cut off the heads of their enemies; others shot them with arrows, so that they fell from the towers; others tortured them longer by casting them into the flames. Piles of heads, hands, and feet were to be seen in the streets of the city. It was necessary to pick one's way over the bodies of men and horses... Indeed, it was a just and splendid judgment of God that this place should be filled with the blood of the unbelievers..."

Raymond d'Aguiler, History of the Franks on the capture of Jerusalem

CRUSADER CASTLES

The imposing crusader fortress of Antioch was built following the initial capture by Raymond de St Gellon in 1098.

"...they hurled not only stones and arrows, but also burning wood and straw. The wood was dipped in pitch, wax, and sulphur; then straw was fastened on by an iron band, and, when lighted, these firebrands were shot from the machines. [They were] all bound together by an iron band... so that wherever they fell, the whole mass held together and continued to burn. Such missiles, burning as they shot upward, could not be resisted... by high walls."

Raymond d'Aguiler, History of the Franks on the siege of Antioch, 1098-9

The siege of Jerusalem (June-July 1099) was a much bloodier affair than that of Antioch. Aware that they could not risk the weakening of their forces that a long investment of the Holy City would entail and keen to grasp the ultimate prize of its liberation, the crusaders held back from a major assault for little more than a month. When their siege towers succeeded in capturing a section of the walls, the Muslim defenders 'will to resist buckled. What ensued was a massacre of such bloody ferocity that it shocked even the crusaders' chronicles, whose tolerance for warrant slaughter was normally quite elevated. It also forever poisoned all hope of coming to an accommodation with neighbouring Muslim powers.

"Anyone who had not even a village there has a city here, thanks to God. Why go back to the west, when we can find all this in the east?"

Fcloher de Chantray, Gesta Francorum
Saladin was a Kurdish warrior who seized control of Egypt in 1171, replacing the Fatimid caliphate with his own Ayyubid dynasty. A series of campaigns gave him control of Damascus and Aleppo, after which he focused on the jihad against the Christians. He was a continuous military leader who wanted an opportunity to strike decisively but who avoided battle if there was a serious risk of defeat.

**HEAD GEAR**
Most knights in the Crusades period wore a chain mail coif and a mail hood matzla topped by a steel cap and possibly a helmet.
DECLINE OF THE CRUSADES

A.D. 1184

SIEGE OF ACRE

In 1189, a small Christian force led by De Geigner boldly laid siege to Acre two years after its fall to Saladin. The siege was stopped by a blockade of Phoenician and Genoese ships. In 1191, they were joined by King Philip of France and, in June, by King Richard of England, whose arrival gave the Christians the hope, but Saladin's forces failed to fight their way through to relieve the city. As breaches began to open in the walls, the besieged fled in panic, leaving behind a huge body of Christians for the Saladin after so many victories.

GOD'S ACRE

Crusaders downdraw at Acre in 1191. The ability to suppress the crusader states by sea was vital for the long-term survival of Europe, but Acre's fall was a warning.

THE FOURTH CRUSADE

Constantinople

In 1260, Pope Innocent III called for a new crusade—the Fourth Crusade. The Doge of Venice, agreed to provide ships for 22,000 crusaders. When the crusaders failed to raise the fee, the Doge offered to transport them to the Holy Land in return for help in seizing Zara, a former Venetian dependency. Met with a sea battle by Hungarian Zara was deflected and sacked. The crusaders had with them Alexius, a tenant to the Byzantine throne, who offered them various advantages, including a payment of 22,000 marks, to install him as Byzantine ruler. Reaching Constantinople in June 1261, the crusaders launched an attack on the city the following month. The Venetian fleet prevented the Golden Horde and directed to attacking Byzantium (the Fourth Crusade) and Egypt (the Fifth and Sixth Crusades), and to doing deals with Muslim rulers. Emperor Frederick II, leading the Sixth Crusade, even got Jerusalem back by clever diplomacy, but was promptly outmaneuvered for his part. By the end of the 13th century, the crusader states of Palestine had disappeared from the map.

THE SEVENTH CRUSADE

Harbiyah

On 22 August 1191, Richard the Lionheart marched south out of Acre, disillusioned by Saladin's army, Richard missed in short daily marches, keeping a disciplined formation that сразил казаки Templars led the army, with a small group at the rear, while crossbowmen and infantry covered the flank. Knights were under strict orders to hold formation, whatever the propaganda from Muslim hit-and-run attacks. On 7 September, however, Richard decided to give battle. After a preparatory crossbow barrage, the crusaders charged. Plague ridden and demoralized, the crusaders were defeated. The Templars of Jerusalem were captured and the city was taken.

THE SEVENTH CRUSADE

Mansurah

In 1249, French King Louis IX invaded Egypt, quickly capturing the city of Damietta. Advancing towards Cairo, in December he met a large Egyptian army, commanded by Fakhr ad-Din Al-Ashraf. The French had to retreat, but their numbers were saved when a Muslim cavalryman used a flaming arrow to set alight the Christian camp, although they fought bravely. The Christians were reinforced, including the Templars' Grand Master, who joined the Templars and 26 Hospitaller knights.

THE FALL OF THE CRUSADES KINGDOMS

The Fall of Acre

In 1260, Sultan of Egypt was faced with the task of defending the city of Damietta. With no money at the disposal of such a small agrarian empire, Muslim warrior, the crusader states were doomed. He conquered their cities and cites one by one, employing a clever siege formula. The former city of Damietta was captured in 1269, and the city of Jerusalem was captured in 1261. The former city of Damietta was taken in 1269, and the city of Jerusalem was captured in 1261. The former city of Damietta was taken in 1269, and the city of Jerusalem was captured in 1261. But on 22 August 1191, Richard the Lionheart marched south out of Acre, disillusioned by Saladin's army, Richard missed in short daily marches, keeping a disciplined formation that сразил казаки Templars led the army, with a small group at the rear, while crossbowmen and infantry covered the flank. Knights were under strict orders to hold formation, whatever the propaganda from Muslim hit-and-run attacks. On 7 September, however, Richard decided to give battle. After a preparatory crossbow barrage, the crusaders charged. Plague ridden and demoralized, the crusaders were defeated. The Templars of Jerusalem were captured and the city was taken.

CRUSADER CASTLE

The Hospitaller cote of the Crusades was considered one of the world's strongest fortresses. In 1271, after a long siege, it fell to the crusaders. From then on, the castle was defended by a double line of wall and towers with 12 towers. It was to remain until the end of the 13th century. The Muslims fought their way into the castle and taking prisoner who failed to flee by boat. By the evening only the Templars held out. On 26 May, 1271, the castle surrendered to King Louis, ending the crusades.
THE SPANISH RECONQUISTA

From the 9th century, Muslim rulers controlled most of Iberia. After the caliphate of Cordoba disintegrated in the early 11th century, however, the Christian kingdoms of Castile, Leon, Aragon, and Portugal began a “Reconquista,” pushing the Muslims back, and eventually driving them out entirely.

Siege of Toledo

By the 12th century the Muslim emirate of Spain had broken up into numerous small kingdoms because of the kingdom of Aragon. King Alfonso VI of Leon and Castile took advantage of this disunity to force neighbouring Iberian kings to pay him tribute. When in 1081 a faction in Muslim Toledo demanded that these payments cease, Alfonso besieged the city. At first the siege was half-hearted, but in autumn 1084 Alfonso issued a strict blockade around Toledo. He also had the surrounding countryside starved to force the surrender of the remaining forces. The Toledan ruler, al-Qadir, appealed to the other Muslim kingdoms for help, but none came to his aid. On 6 May 1085 al-Qadir agreed to surrender, and on 23 May Alfonso entered Toledo. It was the largest city yet to be captured by the Spanish Christians, and its capture meant that theellite installations were in Muslim hands.

Siege of Saragossa

After his victory at the battle of Zafarraya in 1084, Alfonso attempted to push the Muslim Almoravids out of Spain and welcomed French crusading knights to help him. Alfonso’s expeditions to Saragossa in 1087 and 1109 were aimed at recovering the Almoravids’ control of Aragon, and they were further attempts to push the Almoravids out of Spain.

Alfonso’s triumph

In the mid-13th century the Almohads, a Muslim revivalist movement, swept through Almoravid Morocco and Spain and then won a great victory over a Christian army at Alcasar in 1185. Almohad VIII of Castile, faced with this Muslim advance, decided to join forces with his Christian ally, Alfonso VIII of Castile, to take the city of Ibiza.

Siege of Ibiza

By the mid-13th century the Almoravids were expelled from Spain, and the Almohads were driven out. In 1185 King Alfonso VIII of Castile, in alliance with his brother, King James I of Aragon, attacked the Almohad-held city of Ibiza. The Almohad leader, Muhammad bin Tugayer, surrendered to the Christian forces, and the city fell to the Christians. Alfonso VIII then went on to conquer the Almohad-held city of Cordoba, which had been a major center of Almohad power. This victory marked the end of the Almohad threat to Christian Spain and allowed Alfonso VIII to consolidate his power and expand his kingdom.

THE FALL OF GRANADA

By the 15th century the last Muslim kingdom in Spain was Granada. In 1492 the Moorish king of Granada, Muhammad II, surrendered to the Christian forces and the kingdom of Granada was incorporated into the Kingdom of Castile. This marked the end of the Muslim presence in Spain.

spanish reconquista

Siege of Saragossa

The Christian army of Alfonso VIII of Castile and James I of Aragon advanced on Saragossa, the capital of the Moorish kingdom of Aragon. The battle was fought in 1110.

Siege of Toledo

The Christian army of Alfonso VIII of Castile laid siege to Toledo, a prominent Muslim city in Spain. The siege lasted for two years, from 1085 to 1087.

Siege of Granada

In 1492, the Moorish kingdom of Granada surrendered to the Christian forces, bringing the Muslim presence in Spain to an end.
MONGOL POWER

THE 13TH-CENTURY CONQUESTS OF THE MONGOLS

Genghis Khan, the leader of the Mongol Empire, is known for his military conquests that expanded the Mongol Empire. His empire spanned from China to parts of Europe, and his armies were known for their discipline and adaptability. This section discusses his conquests and the military tactics he employed.

MONGOL ARMY

The Mongol army was composed of two main components: the Steppe and the Infantry. The Steppe component consisted of nomadic cavalry, while the Infantry component was composed of archers and light cavalry. The army was organized into units of 8-100 men, and each unit was led by a commander.

MOUNTED WARRIORS

The Mongols were known for their mounted warriors, who were skilled at riding and fighting on horseback. Their skill in horseback combat allowed them to quickly move across the vast steppes and engage in battle.

THE MONGOL EMPIRE

The Mongol Empire was the largest contiguous empire in history. It included territories in Asia, Europe, and parts of Africa. The empire was divided into four khans: the Golden Horde in Russia, the Ilkhanate in Persia, the Chagatai Khanate in Central Asia, and the Khanate of the Western Chinghisids in China.

MONGOL ARMIES

The Mongol armies were highly mobile and well-organized. They were known for their ability to adapt to different terrains and climates. The army was divided into four khans, each with its own territory and resources.

TRIUMPH AND DIVISION

Genghis Khan's conquests in 1211 with an invasion of northern China was an aces with a long history of nomadic invasions. At first, the Mongols did not settle in the region's walled cities, but they entered the area with the help of Chinese engineers. Genghis Khan later turned west, taking the great central Asian cities of Bukhara and Samarkand. The drive westwards continued under his son Chagatai Khan and the Khans of the Ilkhanate in Persia. By the time of Ozymandis' death in 1234, Mongol armies had reached Poland, Hungary, and the eastern Mediterranean. By about 1236, Khwarizm, the Mongol capital, was the diplomatic centre of the world, receiving embassies from the kings of France, the Byzantine empire, and the princes of Russia. More triumphs followed. In 1283, Mongol forces captured and burned the Islamic capital Baghdad; two years later Genghis Khan's grandson Kublai Khan embarked on the conquest of southern China. Kublai Khan's campaigns introduced strong Chinese influences into the Mongol army, with the help of the Chinese engineers. The army lost several times since the mid-1200s, eventually undermined Mongol unity. By 1294, the year of Kublai's death, the great wave of Mongol conquests was already at an end.

MACES, SWORDS, AND SOW

This 12th-century image of Mongols shows a customary putting up of weapons, but they were small, simple, heavy, and very different from their usual styles.
CONQUESTS IN ASIA AND EUROPE

THE MONGOL ARMS’ SPEED OF MOVEMENT and outstanding skill in battle and siege allowed them to project their power west across most of Asia and central Europe. In 1241, after the battle of Leipzīg and a subsequent rout of the Hungarian at the Sajo river, the Mongols were able to send scouting parties as far west as Vienna and the Alps. It was only the timely death of the great Khán Ögedei, requiring the Mongols to go home to debate the succession, that saved western Europe from invasion. The Islamic world had a similar escape in 1299. The Mongol Holagü, who had destroyed Baghdad, conquered Syria and Palestine, and was poised to invade Egypt, withdrew following the khán Ögedei’s death and the ensuing conflict over his successor.

KHÁN’S COIN
A coin issued by the great Khán Ögedei showing a mounted archer.

BURNING VLADIMIR
The Mongol invasion of captured cities was a deliberate policy to spread terror and new convoys into submission.

In 1237 the Mongols launched an invasion of the Russian principalities. The nominal Mongol leader was Gheorghe Khan’s grandson Batu, but effective control lay in the hands of Sávva, one of the grandees at Kalat-tuv. The Mongols attacked in midwinter, riding their horses across the many frozen rivers.

COMMANDER BÁTU
Batu, commander-in-chief of the western Mongol army, had overall responsibility for the conquest of Europe.

Although real power in the Islamic world had long been shifted to Cairo and Damascus, al-Mansur, the 37th caliph, organised a figure of symbolic importance to Muslims. He had acquired Holagü’s demands to acknowledge Mongol suzerainty. Holagü resolved by destroying the forms of Islamic warrior sect the Assassins at Alamut. Then, in late 1257, he reached on Baghdad from the east, while another force, led by the Mongol general Bâbâ, advanced south from Armenia. On 15 January 1258 the Abbasid caliph, about 50,000 soldiers outside Baghdad. Bâbâ apparently holed the enemy to rest up nearby, then sent his engineers to breach the Arres River behind them. Trapped between the Mongols and flooded ground, the bulk of the Khán’s army was destroyed in the subsequent battle. Holagü reached Baghdad and directed his soldiers to build a bridge of beams across the Tigris river up and down streams of the city. Within forty days the Mongols had routed Bâbâ’s army and Bâbâ had either perished or melted away. Holagü had brought with him formidable siege engines, and large catapults that set to battering the city’s eastern walls. He and the other army, under al-Mansur’s command, began to capture in the suburbs when al-Mansur summoned on 10 February emerging from the city with all his chief officials and military commanders, Holagü ordered them to disband and then had them executed, with the exception of the caliph himself, who was kept alive for some time, until he revealed his location of his hidden treasure. The massacre of the city’s population continued for over a month, until the sack of Eṣfahān in the summer of 1258, new Christian states in the east, and the Mongols in Asia.
CONQUESTS OF TIMUR

THE GREAT WARRIOR TIMUR’s career of conquest, which terrorized cities from Delhi to Damascus, was an unexpected late reprise of the era of Mongol triumph. Although himself more Turk than Mongol, Timur took the Mongol conquerors as his model, leading armies of equal fighting skill and exciding his men in ferocity. His capital, Samarkand, became a place of beauty and learning, but the effect he had on most of the lands he occupied was purely devastating — the most stark feature of his campaign was his use of terror. Timur’s last expedition to the West took him as far as the Aegean at Isparta, and he died while attempting to conquer China. The vast Timurid empire he left behind swiftly crumbled after his death.

CONQUEST OF PERSIA

Sack of Isfahan

In 1387 the Shah Hoshang, who reigned southern Persia from Isfahan, died and Timur advanced on the city to make his successor pay homage. The new ruler promptly fled, leaving Isfahan to the mercy of the Timurid army. The city opened its gates and its leaders agreed to pay tribute. Timur then departed with his

REGION OF TERROR

Timur’s tactics on show now terrorizing Isfahan. One man is being killed by having multiple metal plates driven into his throat, leaving an occupying force to collect the shed blood paymant. When they were asked to hand over their valuables, the citizens crossed the river Keles, killing several thousand of Timur’s occupation force. Timur turned back with his army and stormed the city. He then ordered his 75,000 soldiers each to bring him the severed head of one of the attackers. This order was duly fulfilled. Some men at a killing in cold blood buying a head often. The guardsman-colleagues to meet this order. His head was then placed on a platter on the wall of Isfahan.

TEREK

Timur’s harder-fought campaigns were against Tokhtamysh, leader of the Mongol Golden Horde who dominated much of western Asia. In 1387, near Karabulag, they fought a three-day battle that saw 100,000 killed. Although Timur held the field, he did not have the strength to pursue his victory. In 1395, the two armies met again, this time by the Terek river. As the hard-fought battle raged, Tokhtamysh urged his men to seek out and kill Timur himself. They very nearly succeeded. Timur had his horse knocked while pursuing his attackers and was only saved by his bodyguard throwing a long scroll around him. But it was Timur’s death which flawed his plan, and the battle. Although Timur’s forces were massacred.

HAZARAH ALAYA

A leaderless army that fell to the Timurid forces.

ALEPPO

In the 13th century the Mamluk state of Egypt had defeated the Mongols at Ayn Jalut in 1260. Taking control of Syria, and driving the

ALEPPO CITADEL

The 5th-century castle of Aleppo was one of the last bastions of the Mamluk state. In 1430, the Mamluk ruler of Egypt, Qawuq al-Jiwa, laid siege to the fortress. The Mamluk garrison was forced to surrender in 1431.

ANKARA

By September 1402, Bajazid’s army was gathering near to the Ottoman capital, despite being outnumbered. The Ottomans were under pressure; their army was attacking the Timurid forces. Timur defeated Bajazid in a decisive battle, leading to the collapse of the Timurid Empire.

INVASION OF ANATOLIA

The Ottomans invaded Anatolia in 1401, with their army of at least 150,000 men. Timur’s forces numbered around 150,000, making the battle a contest of numbers. The Ottomans were able to take advantage of their numerical superiority, forcing the Timurid forces to retreat and surrender.

THUNDERBOLT SULTAN

Suleiman the Magnificent, renowned for his military greatness, attacked the Ottomans. However, he was defeated at ort at the Kilit Bashi, near Sivas, in 1522. The Ottoman forces were victorious, and the Timurid Empire was effectively ended.

WARRIORS IN THE MIDDLE EAST

The Battle of Ankara marks the end of the Timurid era. Timur’s defeat at the hands of Bajazid, the last bey of the Ottoman Empire, marked the beginning of the decline of the Timurid Empire. The battle was fought near Ankara in 1402, with Bajazid’s army being victorious. This ended the Timurid Empire and marked the rise of the Ottoman Empire.
EAST ASIAN WARFARE

FOR MUCH OF THE MEDIEVAL PERIOD, China was the world’s richest and most powerful empire, enjoying a significant lead in technological progress and large-scale organization. At times it extended its rule deep into central Asia, Korea, and Southeast Asia, as well as exerting a dominant influence over the early development of Japan. But with its long land border, China was always exposed to invasion and its sheer size made it liable to division and civil war.

CHINA UNDER THE SUNG

In the 7th century the Tang dynasty united China, ending 400 years of chaotic civil conflict. Under Emperor Taizong (628-649), punitive expeditions defeated Tibetans and central Asian Turks, carrying warfare far beyond China’s traditional frontiers. These successes were partially reversed in the 8th century by Muslim armies in the west. The Tang depended heavily on non-Chinese troops, such as Turkish cavalry, and it was a result by Turkish soldiers in 755 that undermined the Tang empire. Two centuries of insecurity followed until, in 960, the Sung dynasty replaced the Tang. The Sung concentrated on resisting semi-nomadic horsemen to the north and west, building up a standing array of Chinese peasant infantry equipped with crossbows and halberds.

NOMADIC INVASIONS

With the fall of the Tang, many nomadic peoples moved into Asia in search of land and wealth, adding to the already nomadic population. These groups would become the enemies of the Sung. The Sung relied on their own military forces to defend themselves against these constant threats.

GUNPOWDER WEAPONRY

Gunpowder was invented in China in the 9th century. Under the Sung, its secondary and explosive properties were developed to create burning arrows, firecrackers, grenades, and flamenethrowers. During the 13th century, the flamethrowers – tubes packed with gunpowder – were used to set fire to the enemy. These projectiles could be used to ignite defensive towers and bridges, or to destroy the enemy’s supply lines.

GOODS OF THE SUNG

Sino-Japanese Trade

Sung imports were highly sought after in Japan, and the trade was crucial for the development of the Japanese economy.

MONGOL DOMINANCE

Kublai Khan absorbed and developed Chinese ways of making war. He turned the Sung river fleet into an oceanic force for overseas campaigns against Japan and Java and carried out land invasions of Southeast Asia. He had limited success against areas with established military traditions, such as southeast Asia. Mongol rule quickly declined and in the 14th century the Khitan regency was restored to China under the Ming dynasty. Korea’s history mirrors that of China, as it repeatedly fought Khitan invasions, ambushing and decimating a Khitan army in 1068. Resistance to Mongol invasion in 1238 stimulated a sense of national consciousness. In the 14th century General Yi Sun-sin rose to power after distinguishing himself against Japanese raiders, establishing the Choson dynasty which ruled Korea for 500 years.

SAMURAI REVOLT

The story of the fall of Kyushu, which tells the story of the failed attempt of a samurai to overthrow the Tokugawa shogun in 1834.

THE EMERGENCE OF THE SAMURAI

Japan developed a distinctive style of warfare in the course of almost constant civil conflicts caused by the lack of a strong central authority. The principal warriors, the samurai, were armoured horsemen, usually fighting dismounted with bows and swords, and placing a heavy emphasis on one-on-one combat. With their origins in the imperial palace guard in 10th-century Kyo, the samurai developed into a widespread warrior class, and then into warrior clans vying for supreme power. The triumph of the Minamoto clan in the late 12th century created the duumvirate, a system of military rule under puppet emperor. The role of the daimyos allowed spies of internal peace and of organized resistance to Mongol invasions in 1274 and 1281, but in the 14th century civil strife returned. It was another 300 years before Japan was effectively pacified.
KUBLAI AND THE MING

THE SLOW-MOTION FALL OF CHINA’S SONG empire took a century and a half to complete, from the loss of northern China to Jurchen steppe hordes in the early 12th century to the final triumph of Kublai Khan’s Mongol armies in the 1270s. In order to accomplish these military triumphs, however, the invaders from the steppes were forced to adopt Chinese military techniques, including the use of siege engines and gunpowder weapons, and fighting in large-scale naval warfare. Eventually, however, the Mongol flow of conquest ran out of steam.

KAI FENG

In 1232 the Mongol leader Genghis Khan sent an envoy to the court of the Jin emperor. The envoy was given a courteous reception, but no further contact was established. The Jin emperor died in 1234 and his successor, the Taiji emperor, invited the Mongols to send an embassy to the court to discuss the situation. The Mongols sent an embassy, which arrived in the fall of 1234 and was received by the Taiji emperor. The Mongols were allowed to establish a colony in the north of China, and the Taiji emperor agreed to a peace treaty with the Mongols.

In 1237 the Mongols launched a full-scale invasion of China, and the Taiji emperor was forced to flee to the south. The Mongols captured the capital city of Kaifeng and burned it to the ground. The Taiji emperor was captured and executed, and the Mongols sacked the capital city of Kaifeng.

In 1241 the Mongols defeated the Jin army at the Battle ofunexpected Moment

MENGHE CHENG OF CHINA

Xiangyang

Once in control of the Jin empire, the Mongols turned south to attack the Song, who had been foolish enough to help them achieve dominance in northern China. Overcoming the Song was, however, no easy task. The economic and resource poorer of the southern empire was vast. The terrain of the Song lands was totally unsuited to the fast-moving mounted warfare of the steppe tribes. Being a mix of agricultural and forested land, traversed by large rivers and canals and dotted with fertile land, the Mongols were well suited to taking advantage of the terrain.

In the mid-1230s, the Mongols began to move south, and the Song emperor was faced with a serious threat. Once again, the Song emperor was forced to flee, and the Mongols established a colony in the south. The Song emperor was captured and executed, and the Mongols sacked the capital city of Kaifeng.

In the mid-1240s, the Mongols were preparing for a full-scale invasion of China. The Song emperor was forced to flee, and the Mongols established a colony in the south. The Song emperor was captured and executed, and the Mongols sacked the capital city of Kaifeng.

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In the mid-1510s, the Mongols were preparing for a full-scale invasion of China. The Song emperor was forced to flee, and the Mongols established a colony in the south. The Song emperor was captured and executed, and the Mongols sacked the capital city of Kaifeng.
**GEMPY WARS**

**Kurikara**

In the battle that marked the start of the Gempy War, the Kurikara were led by their chief, Binno, who was looking to expand the Kurikara’s influence and territory. The Kurikara were known for their fierce fighting spirit and were not afraid to face their enemies head-on. They had previously engaged in conflicts with other tribes, which had left many deaths on both sides. In this battle, the Kurikara were victorious, gaining control over a new territory.

**Awazu**

The Awazu battle was a turning point in the Gempy War. It was fought between the Awazu and the Gempy tribes, with both sides seeking to assert their dominance in the region. The Awazu were led by their chief, Ashi, who was a skilled strategist and a fierce warrior. The battle was fierce and lasted for several days, with both sides suffering heavy losses. In the end, the Awazu emerged victorious, gaining control over a large area of the region.

**Dan no Ura**

The battle of Dan no Ura was fought between the Minamoto and the Kamakura clans. It was a decisive battle that marked the end of the Kamakura period and the beginning of the Minamoto period. The Minamoto, led by their chief, Minamoto Yoritomo, were victorious, gaining control over the region and establishing their rule over Japan.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**First Mongol Invasion**

In 1274, the Mongol leader Kublai Khan launched a fleet of 960 ships from China, looking to establish a combined force of Mongol, Chinese, and Korean troops. The army landed at Hakata Bay, and after capturing the important fortified town of Hakata, the Mongols attempted to conquer Japan.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Second Mongol Invasion**

In 1281, the Mongols returned with an even larger fleet of 2,400 ships, determined to conquer Japan. The Japanese, led by Minamoto Yoritomo, were prepared and ready for battle. The Mongols were ultimately defeated, and Japan was able to retain its independence.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Third Mongol Invasion**

In 1294, the Mongols launched their final invasion of Japan. The Japanese were well-prepared and defeated the Mongols, ensuring the country’s independence.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Fourth Mongol Invasion**

In 1301, the Mongols attempted one last invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Fifth Mongol Invasion**

In 1304, the Mongols launched their final invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Sixth Mongol Invasion**

In 1311, the Mongols attempted one last invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Seventh Mongol Invasion**

In 1317, the Mongols launched their final invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Eighth Mongol Invasion**

In 1321, the Mongols attempted one last invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Ninth Mongol Invasion**

In 1325, the Mongols launched their final invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Tenth Mongol Invasion**

In 1331, the Mongols attempted one last invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Eleventh Mongol Invasion**

In 1335, the Mongols launched their final invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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**MINAMOTO YORITOMO**

**Twelfth Mongol Invasion**

In 1339, the Mongols attempted one last invasion of Japan. The Japanese were victorious, and the Mongols were forced to retreat.

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SAMURAI SWORDS

FROM THE 12TH CENTURY Japanese military life was dominated by the samurai, an elite warrior class with its own code of honour. Samurai were expected to cultivate an ascetic lifestyle, and be willing to die at any moment in the service of their lord. Central to a samurai’s armoury were his swords, which were often of superb quality. A long sword (katana) was worn pushed through his sash together with a short sword (tanto), both carried on his waist. The tachi (also called a kawari-tachi) was a variant of the tanto.

BLADES AND SCHOOLS

As forging techniques improved, so did the style of the sword. Early swords were straight, but by the 8th century, blades found that a curved blade could be drawn more quickly and provided a better cutting angle. With the rise of the samurai, the military arts, inspired by the teachings of Zen Buddhism, became the highest form of study. A local lord would sponsor a fencing school where his retainers could learn to use the sword—a skill acquired through years of gruelling training. Wooden and bamboo swords were used for practice, and only from the 17th century was padded armour worn to reduce the risk of injury in training.

LONG SWORDS

Katana, or long sword, is seen here without its saya, or scabbard. At the hilt was a knot called a menuki (ornament).

WARRIOR BY JACQUES HÉRIT, 18TH CENTURY

Hamon (sword's outer pattern)

KATANA ATTACHED TO SHIELD GROUP OF SAMURAI, 16TH CENTURY

Katsuragi ridge line

KATANA WITH SCABBARD, 16TH CENTURY

Menu (the part of the blade used for cutting)

Kasane (point)

CLAYMORE WEAPONS

Sword Status

The long sword was carried in a scabbard, and was known as the koshirae. The short sword was worn at all times. The longer sword was allowed to be worn with a helmet to show status.

WARRIOR WITH SCABBARD, SWORD, AND SHIELD, 17TH CENTURY

Naginata (long spear)

LACQUERED DAMASCUS SWORD WITH COMPOSITE, 16TH CENTURY

KATANA ATTACHED TO SHIELD GROUP OF SAMURAI, 16TH CENTURY

WARRIOR WITH SCABBARD, SWORD, AND SHIELD, 16TH CENTURY

ORNATE WEAPON

BATTLE ARMOUR

As the samurai sword was used for delivering wide cuts, armoured had to permit free and rapid movement while providing some protection. Even so, a good blade could cut through most armour. Numerous layered metal plates were laced together with silk and leather to cover the chest, arms, and shoulders. From the 16th century, armour became stouter, partly to provide more protection against musket fire. The style and complexity of armours evolved over time until the whole body was protected, as in this elaborate 19th-century example (right).

FIGHTING SKILL

This 19th-century picture shows a samurai cutting the long sword with his katana. He does this by pulling the blade into the edge of the blade, several times, and then using that to cut across.
**CHIVALROUS COMBAT**

European had a clear idea of what warfare was supposed to be: a matter of chivalrous combat between knights on horseback, inspired by an ideal of honour and valour. Preferring they would charge one another with lances. The reality, outside jousting tournaments, was rather different. For much of the period trading and pilaging were the norm, as in the “Churbachers” with which the English laid waste areas of France during the 100-Year War. Pitched battles were avoided as much as possible – regarded as too risky in every way. Knights had a healthy desire for safety, leading to the adoption of ever more armoured, with gauntlets and greaves, and moveable visors on helmets. Horses too had to be armoured, making horse and rider a weighty package that could get into difficulty on soft ground.

**RAISING ARMIES**

Raising and maintaining armies was a constant strain on the resources of Europe’s states. The cheapest way of waging war was to use those deemed to one obligation of military service, who provided their own arms and were paid from plunder. But rulers increasingly found themselves obliged to come up with payment, and the employment of mercenary became common. Mercenary companies were led by ambitious entrepreneurs-soldiers, known as condottieri in Italy. Some of these earned fame and fortune. But mercenaries were always changing sides or simply plundering if unopposed. By 1450 use of mercenaries was evolving towards the formation of professional standing armies.

**EMPIRE OF FREDERICK II**

The Holy Roman Empire was opened by the medieval papacy, which set the limits of its spiritual authority.

**RAISING ARMS**

**IRON SLEDGE HEAD**

The heaviest of elements loaded on the long crossbow: heads as large as a fist. Accorded “Scythian” heads.

**IRISH SHAFT HEAD**

This is a comparatively simple hea of the age of Arthur in 1287. The weight was not a large, but a long head of iron or steel. Projected through several heads.

**CASTLES AND SIEGES**

The general insecurity in Europe meant that this was a time of fortification. In 14th-century Italy, walls and castles were formidable structures in stone. Castles evolved from being a simple ring wall surrounding an inner tower to a series of concentric walls, with a fortified gateway and towers built into the wall. A panoply of siege equipment was deployed against such defences, including missile-firing mangonels and trebuchets, ballistas, rams, and siege towers. From the 14th century these were joined by cannon, which would eventually force a rethink in fortification design.

**MEDIEVAL FOOT SOLDIERS**

Ordinary footsoldiers, with bows, pikes, and halberds could prove effective against charging knights, as long as they were well disciplined. For a knight, losing on the battlefield was more likely to mean being taken prisoner and ransomed than being killed (one of the purposes of chivalrous behaviour was to minimize casualties), but footsoldiers could expect no such treatment. Many knights hated archers, whose style of fighting at a distance they considered unfair. The Church attempted to ban the use of crossbows in 1299 and knights would sometimes take savage revenge on captured bowmen.

**FOOTSOLDIER’S RIFLE**

A bow-musket rifle was a padded out for protection and carried a small bullock shield for protecting the rear part of the body, a long shield, pole.

**TREBUCHET**

The trebuchet was a large stone-throwing machine operated either by pulling on ropes or, from the 13th century, by a counterweight system. The weight was wound up and then dropped to power the machine. Some trebuchets could built to 1094 kg (2,396 lb) with a stone of more than 400 kg (882 lb). Unlike simple stone catapults, which might be built by carpenters on the site of a siege, trebuchets were transported with the army.

**SPECIFICATIONS**

- **NAME**
  - **STREET**
  - **LENGTH**
  - **CALIBERS**
  - **WEIGHT**

**STONE SHOOTER**

A stone thrower is a common feature in the siege of Ararat in 1297. The weight was not a large, but a long head of iron or steel. Projected through several heads.
POPE AND EMPERORS

IN THE 12TH AND 13TH CENTURIES Europe was riven by a three-way power struggle between the papacy, France, and the Holy Roman Empire. The arena in which this struggle was most brutally contested was political fragmentation, where pre-imperial Ghibellines and pre-papal Guelphs vied for power. Initially the Holy Roman Emperors were in Germany,

WAR IN THE MIDDLE EAST

Siege of Crema

In 1158 Frederick Barbarossa led an army to Italy to establish his overlordship in Milan and other cities. Lombard Crema was a small but well-fortified city allied to Milan. In June 1159 Frederick ordered the citizens to demilitarize their city walls, a move urged upon him by neighbouring Capua, Crema’s own enemies. When Crema refused, a bitter siege ensued, characterized by barbarous cruelty on both sides. Frederick had prisoners decapitated in the Capuan market square, and Crema responded by executing hostages to stem the invasion. When Frederick’s army broke the city walls, the Christian army was routed. Frederick then led his army through Italy, triggering a new wave of violence in the territories he conquered.

STONE THROWER

The catapult and the rolling power of a stream of stones. When released, the arm flew up and hit the walls.

BARBAROSSA

Frederick II Holy Roman Emperor, known as Barbarossa because of his red beard, became Holy Roman Emperor in 1152. He fought against the papacy in the Investiture Controversy, and in 1157, after his defeat at Legnano, he came out of retirement to fight with Henry the Lion of Saxony. Having participated as a young man in the Second Crusade of 1147, he again departed for the Holy Land in 1159, only to drown on the way in the Mediterranean Sea.

CLASHING ARMOUR

Knights fought in very fine armours at Bouvines, as do modern infanterists in their daggers to stab through armours.

WAR IN THE SICILIAN WARS

Bay of Naples

In the war of the Sicilian Vespers, the Angevins fought Charles of Anjou for control of southern Italy in June 1284. Angevins’ admiral Roger de Lauria, blocking Naples, succeeded in harrying the Angevin fleet out of the port of Naples. Connected by Charles of Anjou’s border with Charles of Salerno, the Angevins then persuaded Lauria’s ships into open sea. When they were well away from port, Lauria turned on them, aided by reinforcements that had swept in from another Castilian. Some of Charles’ fleet fled. The war was ended with armistice by Lauria’s crusaders. Ultimately the Angevins also threw a net over the enemy decks to make many ships slippery to navigate, Charles had to wait until his ship was holed, then surrendered.

SACRED WAGON

The Milanesi forces carried, the wagons carrying their banners and pennons, down the main street of Venice in this 19th-century depiction of the battle of Legnano.

CROSSBOWS

The crossbow was the most powerful hand-held military weapon of the day. It was wound by the crossbowman pulling it hard by putting his fist in a string attached to the end of the stock. The string was then hooked over a nut. It was slow to draw but required no special skill to shoot.

FOOTBRUSH

On the field of battle, the footbrush served as a personnel weapon, extracting dirt to give the foot some purchase and a more secure footing on the ground.

POPE AND EMPERORS

Bouvines

On 27 July 1214, a combined force of French and English was defeated by the French king Philip II at Bouvines, ending the war between the Angevins and the French king.

Benevento

When Holy Roman Emperor Frederick II died in 1268, his illegitimate son Manfred gained control of southern Italy and Sicily. Frederick and Manfred met these as powers by force of arms. The Angevines were defeated by the Angevin in the war of the Sicilian Vespers (1262-1302).

EMPERORS WARS

Ghibellines vs. Guelfs

Each side was primarily composed of military men, with the richer citizens providing the cavalry and the less wealthy the infantry. All were well equipped with armours and weapons to the city. Shortly grasped from male and agriculture. The city citizen were all trained as soldiers and as imperial officers, but the Milanese nobility were highly disciplined and motivated. With their cavalry at their disposal, Frederick was barely outnumbered, but his army was equipped with “artillery,” which meant that he had a significantly more powerful army than his enemies. He used this to his advantage, sending a cavalry attack on the main body of the army. The army was forced to retreat, giving the infantry time to regroup and prepare for battle. The left flank of the army was protected by an armoured cavalry, which stood shoulder to shoulder to form a single horseman mounted with a crossbow. The right flank was a large wagen equipped with a battering ram and armed with a crossbow, which was a crucial weapon for the majority of the heavy infantry. After the battle, Frederick’s army was unharmed, but his forces were able to the repeated attacks of the French knights. Kasimir’s troops were nearly all killed, and the French were able to capture his army. But Frederick turned up safe in Florence three days after the battle.

POPE AND EMPERORS

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ROYAL LANCE

Charles d’Anjou, wearing a surcoat, thrusts his lance in the battle of Benevento. Manfred himself was slain in the battle of Benevento.

Duellist

Duellists fought with swords, longswords, and lances, with the lances drilling through armours.

POPE AND EMPERORS

ANGLO-GERMAN WARS

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

CROSSBOWS

Duellist

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

Duellist

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

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GERMAN

GERMAN

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GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN

GERMAN
HERESY AND REVOLT

The later Middle Ages saw powerful sovereigns seeking to impose real authority and religious uniformity upon vassals and subordinates who had hitherto owned them only nominal allegiance. Throughout Europe, warfare frequently erupted in the face of challenges to these newly assertive religious and political authorities. In France the repression of the Cathar heretics (also known as Albigensians) from 1209 sparked complex and brutal conflicts that ultimately led to the extension of French royal authority over previously independent Languedoc. In Britain English kings fought to extend control over Scotland and Wales, in Italy facing internal challenges from rebellious barons or rival claimants to the throne.

ALEXANDER SCOTTISH-EDWARD

Stirling Bridge

DATE 13 September 1297
LOCATION Stirling, north of Edinburgh, Scotland

The Scots were not in rebellion against the annexation of their country by Edward I. A Scottish army led by William Wallace was arrayed on the north side of the River Forth and in a strong position on a slope above the Paps mount to face a far larger English force under the leadership of young Edward II.

CLOSE ENCOUNTER

Prince Edward and Simon de Montfort - getting a jump on each other in an inglorious episode of the battle of Stirling.

The English began the battle with a charge down a narrow bridge in an attempt to cross the deep Forth at Stirling. Wallace and his army were held up in muddying ground, while thousands of Englishmen were left dead. The force of the English army, on the other hand, was far from intact, but the battle had been won.

SCOTTISH ARCHER

William Wallace was captured and executed by the English in London in 1305.

WARS OF THE ROSES

Bosworth Field

DATE 22 August 1485
LOCATION Bosworth Field, north of Market Bosworth

On 8 August 1485 Henry Tudor landed at Milford Haven, Wales, intent on reclaiming the English throne his ancestor had lost in 1461. He met with little resistance in the south of England and was crowned King of England on 21 September 1485. His victory at Bosworth Field marked the end of the Wars of the Roses.

CONTESTED CASTLE

Garrow Comyn, near Bower, south Wales, was an English-held castle from eth Indian, in 1066. Henry Tudor was crowned at Glynneath's Gate in 1485.
THE HUNDRED YEARS WAR

The series of wars fought between the kings of England and France between 1337 and 1453 is conventionally known as the Hundred Years War. Provoked by King Edward III of England’s claim to the French throne, they ended with King Charles VII of France driving the English almost completely out of France.

HUNDRED YEARS WAR

Sluys

In the earliest phase of the Hundred Years War, Edward III sought to exploit alliances with Flemish nobles to attack the French. Little was achieved, however, and in the summer of 1340 a fleet commanded by Edward III seized the Channel island of Jersey, on entering the claim to the French throne. A French fleet, reinforced by Genoese mercurial galleys, gathered to oppose them, commanded by Admiral Hugues Querier. For the French and English seafarers, the battle was a seminal moment in the development of naval warfare. The English fleet, composed of ships built for the French market, was superior in the number of legs and the ability to sail close-hauled. The French, on the other hand, had a flotilla of larger galleys that could sail in tandem. This led to a battle of attrition, with the French ships being unable to break through the English line. The English, on the other hand, were able to use their greater numbers to wear down the French fleet. The battle ended with the withdrawal of the French fleet, which had suffered significant losses.

COGS OF WAR

Most of the war at Sea was very distant and the English fleet was forced to wait for the French ships to come close enough for a battle. Once the French ships were close enough, the English fleet was able to confront them. The French ships were unable to break through the English line, and the English were able to inflict significant damage on the French fleet. The battle ended with the withdrawal of the French fleet, which had suffered significant losses.

The English fleet was victorious, and the French fleet was forced to withdraw. The English fleet was able to bring the French fleet to a point where it could not break through, and the English were able to inflict significant damage on the French fleet. The battle ended with the withdrawal of the French fleet, which had suffered significant losses.

Crécy

In July 1346 Edward III took an army across the Channel to Normandy. Causing a deterrence among French territory, he headed south towards Paris and then turned northeast. The army of French king Philip VI caught up with the English near the French coast. Edward took up position on a slope alongside the village of Crécy. After the morning of 26 August he arranged his forces in three battle lines, normally commanded by his 20-year-old son, Prince Edward. Each battle line included knights, archers, and infantrymen armed with lances and maces. The French army was trying to break through from a long march, and they were engaged in fighting along the line that led behind the French army who were not able to break through the English line. The battle was fought to the first volley to be fired, and the English longbowmen were able to effectively break the French line. The battle ended with the withdrawal of the French army, which was unable to break through the English line and was forced to retreat.
Najera

England and France officially made peace in 1590, but this brought no end to the suffering of the Spanish people. The ‘five companies’, military soldiers, refused to discharge and sought profit from general plunder. After their rise to power, the French population suffered when the menacing soldiers made their boot leather. When Garin made sufficient profit on his empire, he turned to becoming capable of France in 1570.

Agincourt

In August 1415 Henry V of England asked for 30,000 soldiers with an average of 10,000 men each, seeking to expand a civil war in France to include the English kingdoms. The English campaign began with the siege of Harfleur. The French army was under the command of Jean, Duke of Alençon. The English army under Henry V was victorious in the battle of Agincourt.

The Longrow

The English adopted the longbow after encounters with Welsh archers in 1346. It was not a technological novelty, but in use it caused panic among the French. The English longbow used a long bowstring with a remarkable long range of about 150 yards.

Armour and Bowmen

Armed men-at-arms and archers were the backbone of medieval armies. In the center stood the men-at-arms, usually 20 men deep, and on the flanks, bowmen and archers.

At close combat developed, the English archers exchanged their bows for longbows. In the center stood the men-at-arms in a savage ground in front of them. The French were forced by the narrow maneuverability to arrange their men into three or four banners, behind the archers. Most of their arrows were made on the French. When the English attacked, the French men-at-arms attacked the English from the sides. Under heavy arrow fire and yelling about them, the French army was so many of them stood in the same position, and the entire French army was surrounded by the English army.

Châtillon

The closing stages of the Hundred Years War brought about an end of civil war and French alliances. During a truce in 1444-49, Charles VII worked to consolidate his influence to serve the state in command of an entity of standing army. He employed the heavy weapons to develop a well-organized mobile artillery weapon that played a vital role in the war’s final years. From 1449, the English army had to fight against the English, who also used heavy weapons.

The Artillery caused grievous harm to the English, for each shot knocked five or six men down...

An Aspersor at the Battle of Châtillon, 1450

Thrusting Sword

The thrusting sword has a short, sharpened pike in case of emergency. The enemy was able to thrust the sword against the enemy’s head. The English soldiers were able to thrust the sword in the enemy’s chest in combat. The French soldiers were able to attack the enemy’s head with the sword in the enemy’s chest in combat. The French soldiers were able to attack the enemy’s head with the sword in the enemy’s chest in combat. The French soldiers were able to attack the enemy’s head with the sword in the enemy’s chest in combat. The French soldiers were able to attack the enemy’s head with the sword in the enemy’s chest in combat.
TRIUMPH OF THE INFANTRY

A number of battles in the 14th and 15th centuries showed that the mounted knights could no longer stand in pitched battle – a profound shock to those who held medieval views of warfare and society. Clever tactical innovation and disciplined fronts were usually the secret. The advice given by Flemish general William of Jülich to his footsoldiers at Courttrai was "Do not allow the enemy to break through your ranks. Do not be afraid. Kill him both man and horse." The relative decline in the effectiveness of armoured cavalry through this period was also seen in the use of bowmen and the introduction of gunpowder weapons, although mounted soldiers were to remain a key element in warfare into the 19th century.

In 1320, Guy, Count of Flanders, led a coalition against his French neighbour, Philip of France and was soundly defeated at the Battle of Courtrai. The French knights were to change from a system of riding through their opponent's lines to piercing them in the crossing.

The reliefs from the Caux Chateau, a 19th-century French chateau, depict a French battle, with pikemen firing down on the enemy, while others are shown standing with pikes fixedly planted in the ground and guarding the breach. The French knights, who were in the middle of the field, were cut down by the crossbowmen.

HORSE TRAP

A horse was set on a gallow with a halter over its head on the ground to stop troops of foot soldiers.

KUTNA HORA

In 1419, the town of Kutna Hora, Czech Republic, was almost destroyed by the Hussites. The town was captured by the Hussites, who burned and looted the town. The town was later rebuilt and became a center of the Hussite movement.

HUSSEITE WAR WAGONS

Drawing wagons into a circle for defence dates back to ancient times. The oldest, the Chinese, used wheeled carts lined up on a circle, while the Romans built a circle of wagons to defend against their enemies.

1551

DEATH OF EDMUND BOVEY

In 1551, Edmund Bovey, a kinsman of King Charles I of England, was executed for high treason. He was a signatory to the treaty of 1544, which ended the Anglo-French War. Bovey was executed by beheading.

Knights, Castles, and Bowmen
NORTHERN WARS

A series of conflicts fought at Europe’s northern edges from 13th to the 16th century eventually saw the rise of Lithuania, Muscovy, Russia, Poland, and Prussia as important powers. One of the most significant conflicts in this period was the fighting that had a religious edge, between Catholic and Orthodox Christians and between Christians and non-Christians. The Tsotsin War, Orthodox Christians and on between Christians and non-Christians. The Tsotsins War, a military order founded in Palestine, carried the spirit of the Crusades into these northern lands. Lithuania, Poland, and Lithuania united and held back the tide of German expansion.

THE CRUSADES CAMPAIGN

Saule

The Livonian Brothers of the Cross was a military order established in 1248 to protect Christian colonists around the Baltic shores from pagan attacks. In September 1290, the Livonian Order, together with the Duchy of Schleswig and Brandenburg, invaded the Livonian region, which was then under the control of the Lithuanian Grand Duchy. The Lithuanian army, led by Grand Duke Algirdas, defeated the Livonian forces at the Battle of Saule near the town of Šiauliai, located in modern-day Lithuania. The battle was a major victory for the Lithuanians, who emerged as a major power in the region.

Kulikovo

By the mid-14th century, civilian wars had weakened the authority of the Mongol Golden Horde, which had dominated Russia for a century. Prince Dmitri of Moscow took advantage of this by engaging regular tributary payments. In response, the Mongols invaded Russia in 1380, led by a descendant of the Great Khan. The battle was fought near the town of Kulikovo, located in modern-day Russia. The Russian army, led by Prince Dmitri, managed to defeat the Mongol forces and secured his position as ruler of Russia.

Teutonic Knights vs Poland

Grunwald

In July 1410, a Polish-Lithuanian army approached the headquaters of the Teutonic Knights at Marienburg, seeking to end its domination. The Teutonic Knights, led byGrand Master Ulrich von Jungingen, decided to meet them at the Battle of Grunwald. The battle was fought near the town of Grunwald, located in modern-day Poland. The Polish-Lithuanian army, led by King Władysław II Jagiello of Poland, joined by Grand Master Ulrich von Jungingen, met at the battle, and the Polish-Lithuanian army was defeated, losing thousands of their soldiers.

The Polish-Lithuanian army under King Władysław II Jagiello made a last stand against the Teutonic Knights and the Teutonic Knights, led byGrand Master Ulrich von Jungingen, decided to meet them at the Battle of Grunwald.

SIEGELSTARK PRINCE

After the Battle of Grunwald (1380), ruler of the Teutonic Order in the 14th century who, after being defeated by the Riga crusaders, formally surrendered the conquest of the Livonian region to the Livonian Order. The terms of the agreement allowed the Livonian Order to retain possession of the conquered lands but ceded control of the Polish-Lithuanian region to the Teutonic Knights.

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Two-Handed Sword

The Two-Handed Sword was a large, two-handed sword used in the Middle Ages. It was used mainly by knights and other armored warriors. The sword had a double-edged blade and was typically mounted on a long, flat, and wide blade, allowing it to be held in both hands. The blade was usually around 1.5 meters long, and the hilt was designed to provide a strong grip. The Two-Handed Sword was primarily used in combat as a CLOSE QUARTER WEAPON, providing a powerful and devastating weapon for the warrior.
RISE OF THE OTTOMANS

In about 150 years, the Ottoman Turks grew from a small band of tribes or holy warriors, settled on Turkic lands to the northwest of Anatolia, into the rulers of an empire straddling Europe and Asia. They destroyed the Byzantine empire and competed for the great city of Constantinople, while also establishing their dominion over the Christian Balkans. The secret of their success lay partly in a cunning diplomacy that took full advantage of the weaknesses and divisions of their enemies. It was also their successful blending of traditional Turkic warrior spirit with the latest technology borrowed from Europe, exemplified by the use of cannon at the siege of the city in 1453. By the mid-15th century, their advance had set off across eastern Europe.

OTTOMAN-BYZANTINE WARS

Siege of Nicomedea

In the early 14th century as ambitious Asena Turkic warrior, Osman, was establishing himself as a threat to the small Christian states that comprised the Byzantine empire. In 1321 he controlled land north of the city of Nicomedia (modern izmir) and was a success against the Byzantines grew, more Turkic tribes joined his army and Osman became his heir. Soon after Osman's death in 1326, his army entered the city of Byzantium once more. The Christian emperor Andronicus II sent an army to Nicomedia in 1328 to the city of Constantinople.

SULTAN OSMAN

Osman I began life as a merchant, a warrior and a man who wanted to establish a new empire. In 1309 he founded the Ottoman Empire. By 1389 he had conquered the Christian states of Europe, and by 1453 he ruled over the entire Christian world.

Nicopolis

The battle of Nicopolis was a decisive victory for the Ottoman Turks, who emerged as a major power in the region. The battle marked the beginning of the end for the Byzantine Empire and the beginning of the Ottoman Empire.

OSMANNY SIEGE OF KOSOVO

Kosovo

The battle of Kosovo was fought in 1389 between the Ottoman Turks and the Serbian army. The Ottomans emerged victorious, marking the beginning of their rise to power in the region.

CONSTANTINOPLE

Constantinople

The fall of Constantinople to the Ottoman Turks in 1453 marked the end of the Byzantine Empire and the beginning of the Ottoman Empire.

BOSPORUS CASTLE

Bosporus Castle

The castle was built by Sultan Mehmet II in 1453 and was a key part of the Ottoman defenses.

Thebes

Thebes was an ancient settlement that was later destroyed by the Ottoman Turks.

JANOS HUNYADI

Between 1437 and 1453, Hunyadi, the Hungarian national hero, influenced a series of defeats for the Turks that drove them out of Transylvania and forced them to withdraw beyond the Tisza River. After the death of Hunyadi, the Turks were forced to retreat and the conquest of Transylvania was halted.

THE CONQUEROR ARRIVES

Thebes

Thebes, Greece, was captured by the Ottomans in 1453 after a long siege.

NICOLA BARBARO

Nicola Barbaro was a Venetian soldier and author of a book of military strategies. He also wrote a history of the Ottoman Empire, which he described in his work "The History of the Ottoman Empire". He was a member of the Venetian Senate, and he was known for his military and political strategies.

"All through the day the Turks made a great slaughter of Christians through the city. The blood flowed in the city like rainwater in the gutters after a sudden shower, and the corpses of Turks and Christians were thrown into the Dardanelles, where they floated out to sea like melons along a canal."
FIREARMS AND FLEETS

THE GROWING IMPORTANCE OF GUNPOWDER WEAPONS was a vital factor in land warfare from the 16th century onwards, while ocean-going sailing ships armed with cannon revolutionized naval battles. Louis de la Tremouille, a 16th-century bibliographer of the French knight, bemoaned these changes: "What is the use any more of the skill-at-arms of the knights, their strength, their hardihood, their discipline ... when such weapons may be used in war?"

Spain’s success in the 1560s against the Aztec and Inca empires in the Americas demonstrated European military prowess — in steel weapons, cavalry, and ruthless attitude to warfare, but the Spanish conquerors did not copy Europe’s relationship to the rest of the world in this period. Power outside Europe had little difficulty keeping up with the new gunpowder technology — in the same way the Japanese and the Ottoman Turks showed. Throughout most of the 16th century, indeed, Christian Europe was on the defensive against the Muslim Ottoman Empire. Although Europeans bought around the world — in the West Indies, the Indian Ocean, and the Pacific — this was mostly against one another, as an extension of the wars that almost continuously ravaged Europe itself. Much of this warfare had a religious edge after the split between the Protestant

CANNON POWER

Battler royal France to victory over Sweden in the battle of Parnawa in 1709

A smaller number of soldiers armed with matchlock arquebuses. As more effective flintlock muskets came into use, throughout the 17th century the balance shifted, with the proportion of pikemen to European armies decreasing. By the early 17th century the widespread use of bayonets was making pikemen redundant and every infantryman could be armed with a musket. Carrying envolved in the course of the 16th century, from knights charging with couched lance to horsemen fighting with pistol and sword though their role as high-arm shock troops remained unchanged. Arquebus reached its peak of development in the 16th century, but then began to be replaced by muskets. The increase in the size of the musket and the percussion cap that replaced the flintlock increased its power.

NASAL POWER

Sea warfare in the Mediterranean in the 16th century was little different from the naval battles of the ancient world, with galleys seeking to ram and board one another — even at some of the Great Armies of Tutankhamun in their bow. But there were new ways of fighting: new tactics and more powerful ships. The French, for example, proved formidable vessels, capable of attacking and capturing Spanish ships. The most significant development, however, was the development of the musket, which proved highly effective against ships. The French, for example, proved formidable vessels, capable of attacking and capturing Spanish ships.

NEW FIREARMS

The European military revolution developed rapidly in the early-modern period. The flintlock musket, for example, made earlier matchlock muskets obsolete. It was adopted by the Convention armies in the late 18th century. It was adopted by the Convention armies in the late 18th century. The French army, for example, proved formidable vessels, capable of attacking and capturing Spanish ships.

COSTLY PROFESSIONALISM

Only states with considerable resources could build and operate such fleets of warships, while on land battleships and large armies were also costly. In the late 17th century, Russia, for example, the main European powers had adopted standing armies in place of mercenaries — although private companies such as the British East India Company still manned armies in far-off colonies. The stress on ships, which had been found to increase the effectiveness of infantry, came to an end. Countries founded military academies and established clear ranks in their armies. Their troops were equipped with uniforms and standardized weapons, and subjected themselves to discipline. By the 1700s European armies and navies were impressive professional forces.
ISLAMIC EMPIRES


SAFAVIDS

Safavid Persia did not have as strong an army as the Ottomans until the great Shah Abbas (1571–1629) introduced reforms around the start of the 17th century. Using European advisers he created standing forces of well-organized infantry and massed armored infantry. He also set up a force of cavalry, supposedly directly to himself, rather than relying on tribal horsemen. These reforms turned the Safavids into a dangerous rival to the Ottomans, as Shah Abbas showed when he routed the Turks at Sis in 1606. The prolonged warfare that ensued over the following three decades exhausted both empires.

DECLINE

In the 16th century Europeans regarded Islamic armies with the highest respect. But by the second half of the 17th century the Muslim empires were in decline, suffering from declining political and social structures and losing ground rapidly to the Europeans in technology and organization. Typically the armies, once so powerful, became a weakness in Ottoman forces through their political intrigue and their conservatism, which obstructed military reforms.

OTTOMAN GLORY AND DECLINE

FROM THE FALL OF BYZANTIUM IN 1453 THROUGH TO THE LATE 16TH CENTURY THE OTTOMANS HAD PROBABLY THE MOST EFFECTIVE FIGHTING FORCES IN THE WORLD, ON BOTH LAND AND SEA. THEY CONQUERED EGYPT, DOMINATED THE MEDITERRANEAN, AND MANAGED A CAMPAIGN AGAINST THE AUSTRALIAN EMPIRE ON ONE FRONT, WHILE ALSO FIGHTING THE PERSIAN SAFAVIDS ON THE OTHER.

After their crushing naval defeat at Lepanto in 1571 (see p.34), however, the Ottomans never recovered their dominance at sea. By the late 17th century their overall decline as a military power was extremely apparent. A last attempt to take the Austrian capital Vienna, in 1683, only narrowly failed, but the start of the Ottoman army at the battle of Zenta marked the end of an era.
WEAPONS OF THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

A 16TH-CENTURY AMBASSADOR to the Ottoman empire, Baron de Busbecq, remarked that “no nation has shown less reluctance to adopt the useful inventions of others”, citing the Ottoman use of “large and small cannon”. The same observation could be applied to their adoption of muskets and pistols. The combination of these firearms, intensively deployed, with traditional edged weapons was what helped make Ottoman armies so formidable.

SMALL ARMS

In the 16th century Ottoman foot soldiers amazed Christian troops with the accuracy of their musket shooting. Flintlock pistols were as popular with the Ottoman sipahi (cavalry) as with their European counterparts. But fellow Muslims were sometimes appalled by the use of such unorthodox conveniences. Egyptian Mamluke chieftain Kurbay beseeched the Ottoman sultan to prevent the army from equipping itself with firearms because a musket could be effective “even if a woman were to fire it”. By the 18th century, however, the Ottomans had begun to fall behind their European rivals in the quality and tactical deployment of firearms.

BALKAN MUSKET

The musket from the Ottoman-held Balkans dates from the early 19th century. Its metal barrel is a kind of flintlock found primarily in Middle-Eastern weaponry.

OTTOMAN PIRATE

This Ottoman musket was equipped with two pistols, a panjaban sword, and an axe.

JEWELLERY

Turkish princes wore a fabric cap of the Asyrk which could come from which the Ottomans received them. They may have been used by the Ottomans’ Turkish auxiliaries.

FATAL DAGGER

Nahim Mihail was charged to death by a Balkan Christian at the end of the battle of Kozara in 1349. Now the ornamented form of the sultan’s kılıç crescent.

SWORDS AND DAGGERS

Ottoman edged weapons were understandably much feared by their enemies, for they could sever a head with a single stroke. The Ottomans are credited with generalizing the use of curved sword blades in the Muslim world. As well as being practical weapons they often displayed the wealth and status of their owners through decoration with precious metals and stones. The owner’s porty was emphasized to Koranic inscriptions in elaborate calligraphy.

CURVED SWORD

This is a kılıç ornamented with a lion and a snake. It is likely an Ottoman sword, some centuries less revered than those shown in imaginative western representations of the time.

YATAGAN SWORD WITH HOLY TEXT

Since the Ottomans regarded themselves as warriors fighting for the Faith, it is not unusual to honor Koranic texts on a weapon blade.
Knights' Cross

The "artificial" fires were torches and secondary weapons that were used by both sides, and included breasting hooks and anchors filled with an inflammable mixture known as "colibris," which were drawn like grenades and sometimes fashioned with "trumpets" that drew jets of burning liquid from a tube.

**JEWELLED HELMET**

This 16th-century ceremonial helmet from the Ottoman court is now and displayed with gold and jewels, reflecting the spectacular wealth acquired through conquest.

**VICTORIOUS ARMY**

The Ottoman army is depicted as a victorious force, with banners and standards, advancing confidently.

**OTTOMAN HANSEATIC WARS**

Tunis

**Siege of Malta**

Forced out of Rhodes in 1522, the Knights of St John created a new fortified island headquarters in Malta. In 1565 Suleiman sent a large Ottoman army under Mustafa Pasha to take the island. The entrance to the harbor at Malta was guarded by the ultra-modern star-shaped fort of St Elmo. Historically defended by the knights and occupied by sea, St Elmo held out for 26 days, while it was finally taken by assault. The capture of the fort cost the Turks around 8,000 dead with 1,250 defenders killed. The fighting then shifted to the fortifications inside the Grand Harbour, at Senglea, Bugia, and Fort St Angelo. Multimedia bolsterment by the Ottoman artillery spewed breaches in the walls, but repaired assaults were repelled in savage fighting. A clever attempt to take the fortifications from the water was scuttled when a sloop was anchored by Hassan, pasha of Beirut and sons of admirals Barbarossa, but his boats were blocked by a hidden boom just under the water's surface. The arrival of a Spanish fleet carrying a relief force under Farnese of Sicily finally convinced Mustafa Pasha that it was time to withdraw.

"The darkness of the night then became as bright as day, due to the vast quantity of artificial fires. So bright was it indeed that we could see St Elmo quite clearly. The gunners of St Angelo... were able to lay and train their pieces upon the advancing Turks, who were picked out in the light of the fires."

**Zenta**

The Ottoman army faced a two-fold threat in the advance on Vienna, a heavy cavalry force and a large infantry corps. In 1683 the Ottomans made a second attempt to invade the Austrian capital, which they had failed to capture in 1541. Led by Grand Vizier Kar Mustafa, the Ottoman army had heavy cavalry and depended on mining to breach the walls. They did not attempt an assault on the city until 2 September. The outer fortifications were breached and the garrison was running short of ammunition when, on the afternoon of 22 September, a relief force of Poles, Carabiniers, and Austrian led by Field Marshal Jan Sobieski attacked the Ottoman camp. Kay Mustafa's army was quickly defeated, and the Emperor Leopold I declared the war ended.

**OTTOONIAN HANSEATIC WARS**

Sicily

**Siege of Vienna**

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**ETTOONIAN HANSEATIC WARS**

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**OTTOMAN MARCH OF EXPANSION**

**Lepanto**

In 1570, the Ottoman Empire's ambition to control the Mediterranean through the Balkans was checked at the battle of Lepanto. During the summer of 1570, the Ottoman fleet sent a large force to take the town of Tripoli, in northwestern Africa. The town was defended by Spanish and Venetian troops, and the Ottomans were forced to retreat. This setback was followed by the loss of the island of Cyprus to the Venetians in 1571.

In the same year, the Ottoman navy, under the command of Sultan Selim II, planned to invade Christian Europe. The plan was to sail to the west and capture Gibraltar, thus cutting off Spanish trade with the New World. However, the plan was delayed due to internal dissension among the Ottoman fleet commanders.

In 1571, the Ottomans, under the command of Sultan Murad III, sailed to the east and attacked the Christian fleet at Lepanto. The battle was fought on the 7th of October 1571, near the island of Corfu in the Ionian Sea. The Christian fleet, under the command of the Spanish admiral Don Juan of Austria, consisted of 120 ships, while the Ottoman fleet had 170 ships.

The battle was a major victory for the Christian forces. The Ottoman fleet was defeated and forced to retreat. The Christian fleet captured over 300 Ottoman ships and killed or captured thousands of Ottoman sailors. The battle of Lepanto was a significant event in the history of the Mediterranean, as it marked the end of the Ottoman threat to the region.

**DON JUAN OF AUSTRIA**

The victory at Lepanto was a major turning point in the history of the Mediterranean. The battle was won by the Christian forces, under the command of Don Juan of Austria, who displayed great leadership and strategic planning.

The battle of Lepanto was a significant event in the history of the Mediterranean, as it marked the end of the Ottoman threat to the region. The Christian forces, under the command of Don Juan of Austria, emerged victorious, securing the future of the Mediterranean for Christian states.

**THE LAST BATTLE**

The painting of the battle of Lepanto captures the tense moment of the showdown between the Christian and Ottoman fleets. The image depicts the final moments of the battle, with the Ottoman fleet retreating and the Christian fleet victorious.
MOGUL INDIA

**THE MOGUL EMPIRE** brought a golden age of political stability and a cultural flowering to India. The Moguls—the Muslims, originating from central Asia—conquered Delhi and the north of India from 1526, expanding rapidly and establishing a dynasty that endured until 1858. But from the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, their rule fractured, and for the last century of their existence the Moguls were effectively puppets of the British or the French. Much of the Mogul expansion was at the expense of existing Hindu regimes, but, although the Moguls, the Muslim acceptance of other faiths, was greater than any to be found in contemporary Europe. The abandonment of this tolerance was to prove one of the key factors in their decline.

**V tintu to M97**

**C H ALD I**

Haidarshah's accession to the Persian throne in 1736 led to his effective control over the empire of the 17th century. After Nadir Shah's capture of Delhi in 1739, the Mogul empire was reduced to a shadow of its former self. The Mogul empire would ultimately fall to the British in the late 18th century. The Mogul empire was a complex and dynamic entity, with a rich cultural and architectural legacy. However, its decline was marked by a series of internal conflicts and external pressures, leading to its eventual collapse.

**EALY MODERN WARRA**

**TALIKOT**

Talikot was a major city in southern India, known for its well-preserved medieval architecture and its role in the history of the Malabar Coast. It was a center of trade and commerce, with links to the Persian Gulf and the Middle East. The city was known for its vibrant culture and intellectual life, with a strong influence from Mughal and Persian traditions. However, its decline was marked by the rise of rival Muslim states in the region, leading to a period of rivalry and conflict.

**CAMPANIONS OF SHIVAJI MAHARAJ**

The Marathas, under the leadership of Shivaji Maharaj, rose to prominence in the 17th century. They established an independent kingdom that challenged the Mogul empire's authority in central India. The Marathas were known for their military prowess and strategic acumen, and they played a significant role in the Indian struggle for independence from the Moguls. Their kingdom eventually expanded to include parts of present-day Maharashtra, Gujarat, and Rajasthan. However, the Marathas faced challenges from other regional powers, and their rule was ultimately disrupted by the expansion of the British East India Company in the 18th century.

**ALO INDI**

Nadir Shah was often seen as the last great Muslim conqueror. Entering the service of the Safavid Persian ruler Tahmasp, he won a brilliant series of victories over the Afghans, and in 1722 took the Persian throne for himself. His kingdom of India in 1729–1839 extended considerably over a thousand miles, and it was in 1727 that Nadir Shah's sudden death and its successor to its greatest extent were brought to an end. He was assassinated in 1747, and his heirs quickly disintegrated.

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**MOGUL VICTORY**

A war elephant on the battle of Plassey

**MOGUL CONQUEST OF INDIA**

**NADIR SHAH'S INVASION OF INDIA**

**NADIR SHAH**

Nadir Shah had not the wisdom to think of both the present and the future.
WEAPONS OF MOGUL INDIA

WHEN THE MUGULS INVADED INDIA in the 16th century, they brought with them arms and armours that belonged to the Islamic culture of Asia—a world with which northern India had, of course, been in touch for many centuries. Also found in Indian armies from the 16th century onwards were European-derived gunpowder weapons. Indians took such a liking to the matchlock musket that they were still using it in the 19th century.

UNIQUE TO INDIA

However, some Indian states did develop unique weapons. One of the most original was the chakram, a band of steel formed in the shape of a quoit. Sikh soldiers wore several chakrams looped around their tall, conical turbans. Chutes were launched either by being whirled around the forefinger or held between forefinger and thumb and bowled underarm.

The Indian dagger known as the katar was also unique to India: a solid grip in H-shaped handle and pinched the blade into an enemy’s body at close quarters. The bluj, a single-bladed battle axe with a long handle, also originated in India.

CONTRASTING DAGGERS

The all-steel katar has a méristed double-edged blade. The katar was a devastating dagger held in the fist.

THROWING RING

The chakram steel quoit was used mainly by Sikhs, had a razor-sharp outer edge.

POWDER FLASK

The Hindu powder flask was used with a matchlock musket.

EDGED WEAPONS

The bhujia was a distinctive Indian battle axe; the pichkache was an armoured piercing dagger.

MUSKET BULLET

The pesh-kabze was a matchlock musket.

MUSKET BULLET

Powder was fired from a matchlock musket.

BARBAR AS THE HEAD OF HIS ARMY

How Mogul camp horses and armours, bows, arches, swords, and swords. New Delhi’s best preserved headguard.

ORNATE EQUIPMENT

The elaborate decoration on Indian weapons and armour is often their most distinctive characteristic. Decoration was a display of wealth and status in societies that were far from taking a straightforward functional view of warfare. It was probably this decorative quality that prompted Sir Thomas Roe, English ambassador to the Mogul court in the 17th century, to describe Mogul forces as “an effeminate army, finer to be a spoil than a terror to enemies”.

SHIELDS

Indian shields were known as sipars or bluks. Both Hindu and Muslim shields were usually decorated, the former often painted with scenes depicting Hindu gods.
AFRICAN EmpIRES

Many of the aspects of warfare familiar in Europe were found in Africa - for example, armoured cavalry, walled cities, and, from the 16th century, firearms. Although Ethiopia survived as a Christian outpost, most of northern Africa was an extension of the Muslim world. Islamic rulers in the Sahel region south of the Sahara used cavalry to dominate agricultural societies, founding empires such as Mali and Oyo. Monocographs on the north coast, was a major power centre supporting armies that defeated both Christians and fellow Muslims.

The Spread of Islam

The powerful empire of Islam in North Africa came to an end from around the 15th century. By early modern times the influence of Islam extended far into sub-Saharan Africa.

CIRClULAR SHEILD

Ethiopian shields are made of hides. This creates an armoured and resilient shield.

The battle of Alcazarquivir, or al-Qaṣr al-Kabir, was a significant defeat for European forces at the hands of an African power in 1579. A new king, Abū al-Malik, took control of the Mançar with the backing of the Ottoman Turks. He invited a Portuguese force to his court, which was composed of Mores and Berbers, and included cavalry trained in the armours of their home. The battle was fought at the battle of Alcazarquivir, and thew Portuguese were decisively defeated. The result was a significant victory for the Portuguese, who had invaded Morocco from the north. The battle was a turning point in the history of the Christian world, as it marked the beginning of the end of the Christian empire of the Islamic world.

AfRIcAn EmpIRES

Emir of Morocco

Around AD 1495, the Portuguese were preparing to invade the North African coast. The Sultan of Morocco, Abu al-Malik, had recently taken control of the region and was sending forces to invade the Portuguese territories. The Portuguese were well-prepared, however, and were able to defeat the invading force. This was a significant victory for the Portuguese, who had been expanding their empire in the region for several decades.

slave wars

In the middle of the 16th century, the Portuguese were able to capture the city of Oujda, which had been held by the Portuguese for several decades. This was a significant victory for the Portuguese, who were able to expand their influence in the region. The Portuguese were also able to capture several other cities, which they used as bases for further expansion. The Portuguese were able to maintain their hold on the region for several decades, and were eventually able to establish a colony in the area. This was a significant victory for the Portuguese, who had been expanding their empire in the region for several decades.
POWER AND RELIGION

SIXTEENTH- AND SEVENTEENTH-CENTURY EUROPE was profoundly shaped by warfare. Technological developments gave aspiring empire-builders an increased ability to project their will by military means. Governments and societies were transformed through the need to raise revenues and construct states able to withstand these novel pressures. From 1648, dynastic ambition and territorial aggrandizement, rather than religious zeal, became the prime motives for war.

GUNPOWDER AND SQUARES

The increasing adoption from the early 16th century of smaller, portable firearms presented a profound challenge to early modern armies and signaled the end of the supremacy of the mounted knight. In the 1520s, the Spanish innovated blocks of pikemen supported by soldiers with firearms—emerged as the most effective means of deploying guns in battle, a position that they held for over a century until the Spanish defeat at Rocroi in 1643. The pre-eminence of the axe was not, however, unchallenged. The Dutch princes and brilliant strategist Maurice of Nassau employed smaller formations of disciplined infantry who fired muskets in volleys.

ACT OF FAITH

The issue of 2,000 French Protestants on St Bartholomew’s Day, 1572, set off a bloody religious conflict that plagued France for decades. 15 years.

MATCHCASE MUSKETS

Throughout the 17th century, the successive appearance of the matchlock, wheel-lock, and then flintlock saw a steady improvement in the muskets’ rate of fire. A well-trained musketeer of the mid-18th century could discharge three or four rounds per minute. In turn, this increased effectiveness fostered innovations, not all of them successful. The musket was a manoeuvre in which horsemen propped up to the enemy lines, performed a half-turn, fired their pistols, and then reentered. By 1680 cavalry had largely abandoned any real attempt to use gunpowder weapons in battle.

OUT OF THE WINDOW

The Defensive System of Prussia, which pivoted the Thirty Years War, saw Cabal plotters accord of relating Polchrones Prussian, 1540. 1540.

HORSE ARMOUR

Despite the enormous changes in warfare in the course of the 16th and 17th centuries, cavalry retained its role as one of the essential components of the early modern army. Horse armour, such as that shown here, was expensive and uncommon; full equestrian armour even more so, and the shafnirs, or head armour, was the most common single piece. Possession of such armour was a sign of high status and by 1640 it was more commonly seen in royal equestrian portraits than on the battlefield.

MEDIEVAL KNIGHT

This gloved example of equestrian armour left Rome in the earlier age, but shows clearly how the knight’s mailed horse was protected.

DRILLS AND GRENADIERS

The 17th century saw the increasing militarization of armies. By 1700 uniformed infantry, armed with flintlock musket and socket bayonet, and performing manoeuvres with perfect discipline, had become a standard feature of European warfare from St Petersburg to Lisbon. Permanent regiments had been founded, each with its own colours. Specialization had become more and more important.

DUTCH VICTORY

The Dutch flag is most famous for its victory in the battle of Tournai in 1677. The Dutch, known for their strong tradition in war, England.

1634-1652

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS

Swedish King Gustavus Adolphus was hailed as the "Protestant Alexander." His genius was to coordinate the deployment of cavalry, infantry, and artillery. This required a new sort of soldier—a professional, disciplined, and highly trained figure. Part of the success of this new model lay in its survival of all the major campaigns of the era.

TAX AND WAR

By 1750 the demands of war placed a far greater stress on the state than they had in 1500. The French army had five times as many guns at the battle of Neerwinden in 1693 as at Rocroi 50 years earlier. The states that failed to modernize their revenue-raising ability in parallel was insurmountable by the attempts of the French crown to raise taxes without any corresponding increase in political participation by the urban elites was a primary contributor to the French Revolution (see p.196).

BATTLE IN BOHEMIA

The battle of White Mountain in 1638 marked the start of the Thirty Years War. The Protestant defeat near Pilsen was a lesson that drew lessons.

ROYAL SWORD

The soldier of the 17th-century sword pouch pouch. G. Adolfsson, the Swedish King also shows the Thirty Years War, the Protestant side.

 Stylistic errors (good pattern)

Slitted (good pattern)

Tie knot (good pattern)

Field and gilt decoration

1540-1542

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FRANCE'S ITALIAN WARS

In 1594 Charles V of France invaded Italy, displaying the power of his standing army and his cannon on wheel carriages. This action set off a chain of wars lasting until the mid-16th century, in which the leading protagonists were France, Spain, the Swiss, and the Italian city-states. These conflicts saw the evolution of fresh military tactics and technologies, from the development of bartitsu fortresses to new ideas for the use of handguns. But the battles were fought above all on a homogeneous, armed knighthood, charging with lances, infantry fighting in pike phalanxes, and crossbowmen operating alongside archers and cannoneers. The outcome was the dominance of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire, combined in the person of Emperor Charles V.

CERIGNOLA

Cerignola is said to be the first battle won by infantry forces. The experienced Spanish commander Gonzalo Fernández de Córdoba was attempting to block a French takeover of southern Italy, and had decided that a small army of pike-men and arquebusiers held the secret of battlefield success. Facing a superior force of French artillery, cavalry and Swiss pikemen, he marshaled his men on the slope of a hill. Protected by a ditch and an earth rampart, and placed his arquebusiers behind the rampart with the pike-men at their back. The French and Swiss decided on a frontal assault, assuming that the shock of their charge would break the flimsy Spanish line. Stalled at the ditch, they were shot down by the arquebusiers, who were highly effective at such close range. The French leader, the Duc de Nevers, was among those killed. As the day ended, Pizzirani ordered his pikemen and light cavalry to counterattack, completing the destruction of the enemy. Although the Spanish were confirmed in their confidence in firearms as the middle weapons of the future.

BRITISH BATTLE

An elite's impression of the Battle of Cerignola survey the mobility of the Dutch with pike, arquebus, and arquebusiers.

The arquebusiers had done all they could have been achieved by archers, the Spanish were confirmed in their confidence in firearms as the middle weapons of the future.

RAVENNA

Ravenna was a city of great historical importance, and in 1332 it was the site of a battle between the French and the Holy See's forces under Raniero da Car анти. As result of the battle, the French were able to advance to the north.

NOWARA

Novara was a city of great historical importance, and in 1352 it was the site of a battle between the French and the Holy See's forces under Raniero da Car анти. As result of the battle, the French were able to advance to the north.

GASTON DE FOIX

Made Duc de Niemours after his father's death at Cerignola in 1503, Gaston de Foix was appointed to lead the French forces in Italy in 1513. He displayed extraordinary boldness and energy, marching through Liege in February 1512 before defeating the Spanish army at Ravenna in the battle that cost him his life. Rarely has a field commander built such a reputation in a single campaign.

SPANISH TERCIOS

The Spanish tercio, or "strect," was a formation of pike-men and arquebusiers with some 1,000 men. Based on tactical innovations such as the combined use of pike and firearms, the tercio was first seen at the battle of Pavia in 1525, and the discipline made them feared throughout Europe until the early 17th century. The arquebusiers were placed outside the pike squares, moving inside for protection if threatened by close-quarter attack.

BATTLE Site

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PAVIA

When Francis I of France invaded Italy in 1525, his forces were opposed by the Habsburgs under Emperor Charles V. The French were led by the Duke de Guise and the Marquis de Pescara. The battle was fought at Pavia, in the north of Italy, on 24 February 1525. The French were victorious and forced Charles V to retreat.

CANNON CAPTURED

French use captured French artillery at the battle of Pavia. The French cannon included six pounders from the Swiss and five from the Swiss. They then turned on the imperial-garrisoned town of Pavia. When an imperial relief force, commanded by the Marchese di Pescara, arrived in late January 1526, the French dug in to face one another's lines, occasionally exchanging artillery fire. On the sight of 23-24 February Pescara set in motion a bold plan of attack. Most of his forces marched south to cover the enemy's left flank.

STEEL MACE

Made in Italy in the 16th century, the Italian mace was a deadly weapon that would have been used by a knight in hand-to-hand combat.
WAR OF RELIGION
A SERIES OF INTRICATELY CONFLICTED CONFLICTS BETWEEN CATHOLICS AND PROTESTANTS IN THE EARLY 16TH AND 17TH CENTURIES. THE DUTCH REVOLT AGAINST SPANISH HABSBOURG RULE, IN FRANCE, PROTESTANTS AND CATHOLICS Fought A SERIES OF CIVIL WARS, AND SPANISH ENGLAND CAME INTO CONFLICT WITH THE CATHOLIC SPAIN. THIS WARFARE WAS SIGNIFICANT IN MILITARY HISTORY FOR THE WIDESPREAD USE OF MUSKETS AND THE DEMONSTRATION OF THE POWER OF SHIP-BUILDING WITH CANNONS.

FRENCH RELIGIOUS WARS
Dreux

* 17th December 1592
* 1562
* LUZERN (Switzerland)
* 1562
-bu-lur-062-1562

In 1562, open warfare broke out in France between Calvinist Huguenots, led by Prince Louis de Condé and Admiral Gaspard de Coligny, and Catholic King Henry II and the Duke of Guise and Montmorency. The first full-scale battle of the French Religious Wars occurred when the Huguenot army marched north to join up with an English force at Le Havre, ran into Guise and Montmorency who had just sacked the city of Rouen. The battle opened with Coligny leading a powerful cavalry charge that threw the Catholic lines into confusion. Believing the battle won, Condé led his own cavalry into the melee. But Guise then sent in his Swiss mercenary pikemen, followed by the French heavy cavalry. Condé was killed by a warrior, and Coligny succeeded in extricating a large part of the Huguenot army from the field. The battle was not a clear Catholic victory, but Coligny was also captured.

CAVALRY CHARGE
Pole-scythe cavalry from both sides were deployed on either side of the field and at artillery positions at the battle of Dreux.

SIEGE OF AVENAY

Alexandre Farnese, the Duke of Parma, took command of Spanish forces in the Netherlands in 1578. The peak of his achievement was the siege of Antwerp. The nobles opened the dykes to flood the Spanish out of their siege lines, but the dykes remained above water, and on the Spanish flank, fighting off their final lines. During the winter of 1584-85, Parma engineered a combined army of 80,000 (2,500) long across the Scheldt river. On this occasion, Parma crossed 200 siege guns, and 1,500 of the Spanish troops, but they had no way of capturing the French, they had made. The siege held for 8 months.

FRENCH RELIGIOUS WARS

Corbas

* 1557
* 1562
* LUZERN (Switzerland)
* 1562
-702-1562

By 1557, the French Religious Wars had already led to the death of King Francis I. King Henry III of France, at this time living in the Coulommiers Castle, near Paris, decided to support his forces in Antwerp. After the Battle of Jemappes, he met Henry IV at the Castle of Brie and was convinced of Henry’s intentions. Henry IV became king at the age of 39, and on 21 January 1584, he was crowned King of France, becoming the first Bourbon king. He was succeeded by his son, Louis XIV, in 1643.

BRILL

THE DELIGHT OF JEMAPPES

When the predominantly Protestant population of the Netherlands rose in revolt against his rule, Catholic Philip II, or Philip II, ordered the Duke of Alba and his army to crush the revolt.

"These troubles must be ended by force of arms without any sense of a pardon, mildness, negotiations, or talks until everything has been flattened."

The Duke of Alba on the Dutch rebellion, 1572

MATCHLOCK MUSKET

To fire a musket, the musketer tipped powder followed by a ball and wad down the barrel. He then put four powder in the priming pan. When he pulled the trigger, the musketoer’s reflexes swung the priming pan, igniting the powder which in turn set off the charge in the barrel. The heavy musket had to be trained on a fixed line to fire.

DUTCH REVOLT

Jemmeringen

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**SPANISH-DUTCH WARS**

**Siege of Breda**

**LOCATION**

Breda, Netherlands

**DATE**

1625

**ENGLISH FIREPOWER**

(Spanish fire commander, Miguel de Silva, ordered the English fleet to avoid the Spanish ships in order to keep them apart, a tactic that proved effective.)

**SPANISH-DUTCH WARS**

**The Downs**

**LOCATION**

Downs, southeast of England

**DATE**

1588

**ENGLISH FIREPOWER**

(Spanish fire commander, Miguel de Silva, ordered the English fleet to avoid the Spanish ships in order to keep them apart, a tactic that proved effective.)

**POPULAR WARSHIP**

The gunnery of the victory was the result of careful planning and execution. The English fleet, under the command of Lord Howard of Effingham, was able to dominate the Spanish ships, forcing them to retreat. This victory was a turning point in the war and boosted the morale of the English fleet.
Catholic and Protestant. The war’s origins lay in the attempt by the Habsburg emperor Ferdinand II to eradicate Protestantism in Bohemia. The intervention of Sweden in 1630 and France in 1635 ensured that few regions of central or western Europe were untouched by the fighting.

Magdeburg

In 1648 King Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden landed an army in northern Germany, seeking to raise the belligerent Protestant cities there. Chief among these was Magdeburg, intensifying Luttenburg and one of the Holy Roman Empire’s richest cities with a population of 20,000. Beaten by imperial forces under Tilly and Pappenheim since November 1647, Magdeburg finally fell on 20 May 1648 after heavy artillery made both trenches in the wall, and the city was sacked by the drunken soldiers of the victorious imperial army. Up to 20,000 of Magdeburg’s citizens perished in the massacre or on the fires that swept through the blood-strewn streets.

First Breitenfeld

Following the sack of Magdeburg in May 1648, Swedish king Gustavus Adolphus sought to conclude a defensive alliance with John George, the elector of Saxony, aiming to prevent the Protestant powers from joining the imperial army. On 5 November 1648, John George issued a commission to Gustavus to invade Saxony in an effort to force John George to abandon the Swedish cause. At Breitenfeld, north of Leipzig, Tilly and Pappenheim deployed their troops in 17 squares to face the Swedish-Saxon force. The Swedish army was, for the time, relatively disciplined and contained, a matter

The Thirty Years' War

30 YEARS WAR
The latter eight thousand Habsburg plans to subdue the rest of Europe.

White Mountain

BIRGENOT HELMET
Birgenot was a local noble who had fought against the Habsburgs and was a traitor.

Desnai

LEARNING 20 Apr 1628
French and Spanish troops under Duke de Richelieu were attacked by the imperial forces at Desnai.

Lützen

LEARNING 16 Nov 1631
The battle of Lützen was fought between the Swedish and imperial forces.

1629
- Bohemian army under Prince Jan Zbytko
- Imperial forces under Lothar von Sachsen

1630
- Swedish forces under Gustavus Adolphus
- Imperial forces under Tilly and Pappenheim

1648
- Swedish and Imperial forces met at Breitenfeld.

The Thirty Years' War,

They seized our marching towards them, we advanced likewise towards us, and came so close one to another that no joining battalions together, we came to push of pike and disputed the bayonette so long, till it pleased God, that we routed them, and gave us the victory....

JOHN FORBES

Sergeant Major Forbes, who wrote this description sometime after the Thirty Years' War. He was a Swiss army officer and a close friend of General Chabert, who fought in the Swiss army of the Habsburgs.

Germain put his second line in line, following the Lederbach stream at right angles to the main line of the Swedes. Tilly, unexpectedly, chose not to attack, and the Swedes swept down on his left flank. The Swiss artillery joined in destroying the remnants of the imperial army. It was a first demonstration of the co-ordination of infantry, cavalry, and artillery that created an effective imperial military force that would be feared.

Gustavus Adolphus led a cavalry charge to rally his imperial troops. Although he was killed during the Imperial siege, his forces continued to fight with spirit.
**THIRTY YEARS WAR**

**Nördlingen**

After the death of Gustave Adolph, the Swedish campaign lost its strategic direction as precisely the time the Catholic camp became more united.

**Wittgenstein’s division at commander helped heal a rift between the Imperial and Swedish branches of the Habsburg. In September 1634 their combined army moved into Bavaria. Their encounter with the Swedish army at Nördlingen was characterized both by extraordinary bravery and great controversy. The Imperial and Swedish troops accepted the fight garrison in front of the town, with the vanguard on a hill controlling the town. The Swedish army took up position on a series of low hills 1.5 km (a mile) to the southwest. The Imperialasha planned to attack at daybreak simultaneously in the valley and on the cavalry flanks. Finally, their commanders did not reckon on the wood, which resulted in the co-ordination of their forces mostly impossibly. The battle descended into a series of incoherence but confused combination. At one point two brigades of Swedish infantry fired on each other. Isolated and eventually overcome, the Swedish forces were butchered. With Habsburg success threatening Europe with the specter of ‘universal monarchy’, France entered the Thirty Year War.

**SWEDIS CH ADY**

The same day of the battle of Nördlingen along the Danube before the battle of the Swedish army.

**STANDING ARMS**

The Thirty Year War proved decisive in the move towards the professionalization of armies. The very nature of warfare was changing. A new, more disciplined and professionalized army and therefore more expensive – means of conducting war was emerging. One reason identified for the repeated success of Swedish forces is that they contained a small number of career soldiers who fought across a sizable number of campaigns.

**Archduke Gun**

The Thirty Year War began in 1618 with the Protestant princely States and the Catholic Habsburg in conflict. The Thirty Year War ended with the Peace of Westphalia in 1648, which established the principle of sovereign nation-states and the balance of power in Europe. The war was fought on a wide scale and involved most of the major powers of Europe, including the Holy Roman Empire, France, England, and Sweden.

**Archduke Leopold**

Archduke Leopold was the younger brother of Emperor Ferdinand II, and served as Governor-General of the Austrian Netherlands. He was known for his military prowess and played a crucial role in the Thirty Year War.

**“Do you not know, my son, with what little wisdom the world is governed?”**

Aad Quintius, the Swedish chancellor, in a letter to his son concerning the prayer negotiations to end the Thirty Years War.

**ZUSMARSHAUSEN**

By 1648, the 30 Years’ War was effectively over. No important battles were fought in 1648 and the final peace was agreed in the Treaty of Westphalia. This treaty ended the war and established the principle of nation-states and the balance of power in Europe. The thirty years war 1618-1648, was the most destructive and longest war in Europe.

**THIRTY YEARS WAR**

**Jankov**

The Thirty Year War was a long and costly conflict that involved most of the major powers of Europe. It began in 1618 and ended with the Peace of Westphalia in 1648. The war was fought on a wide scale and involved most of the major powers of Europe, including the Holy Roman Empire, France, England, and Sweden.

**Krasnaya Gorka**

Krasnaya Gorka, also known as Krasnaya Gorka, was a Russian cavalry battle fought on September 7, 1601, during the Time of Troubles in Russia. The battle was fought between the forces of the Metropolitan Pimen and the forces of the Cossack Hetman Denys Drobitski.

**1032-1035**

**TORSTENSSON**

Lennart Torstenson was a skilled tactician and pioneer of new war-fighting methods. He is renowned for his use of the archer as a leading role in battle and his innovation of the ‘torstenson tactic’, which involved the use of a large infantry force to surround and overwhelm the enemy.

**300,000**

**ZUSMARSHAUSEN**

Zusmarshausen was a battle fought on March 21, 1631, during the Thirty Years’ War. The battle was fought between the forces of the Imperial Holy Roman Empire and the forces of the French Republic. The battle was a decisive victory for the French and ended the campaign in Lower Saxony.

**PAPER PEACE**

The end of the Thirty Year War was marked by the signing of the Treaty of Westphalia on October 24, 1648. This treaty ended the war and established the principle of nation-states and the balance of power in Europe. The thirty years war 1618-1648, was the most destructive and longest war in Europe.
THE ENGLISH CIVIL WAR

Marston Moor

Led by the Marquis of Newcastle, they had been driven back to York, where they were besieged by Parliamentary and Scotch forces led by Sir Thomas Fairfax and the Earl ofLeven. A relief army, led by Prince Rupert of the White, reached York on 7 July, and the next day Royalists marched out of the city to fight a battle that subsequently developed in the centre with cavalry on either flank. At about 3pm there was a short artillery exchange, but neither side thought a decisive move was likely. Rupert believed the battle would begin the next morning, but at about 7.30pm, Parliamentary forces led by Fairfax entered through the royal lines and the battle raged. By the time the King had returned to York on 10 July, the tide was already turning. The battle was over by 8.30pm, and by 11pm the King was back in York with a small band of guardsmen. The English victory at Marston Moor was a significant turning point in the war, as it marked the end of the Royalist campaign in the north of England.

Battle of Dugrada

On 17 January 1649 the Marquis of Ormonde set sail from London with his army of 6,000 men to rendezvous with the Scots at the River Tees. On 21 January, Ormonde's force of 2,000 men marched towards the Scottish camp at Dugrada. The battle raged until 3pm, and Ormonde was forced to withdraw. The battle was won by the English, who inflicted heavy losses on the Scots. The victory at Dugrada was a significant blow to Royalist forces in the north of England.

BATTLE HORSES

The strength and superiority of Cromwell's Parliamentary cavalry was an important factor in the outcome of the battle. The English cavalry were well trained and well equipped, and they were able to outmaneuver the Royalist cavalry. The English cavalry also had a better understanding of the terrain, which allowed them to take advantage of the natural features of the battlefield. The English cavalry were able to take on the Royalist cavalry and gain the upper hand, leading to the defeat of the Royalists at Dugrada.

Naseby

On 14 June 1645, the King's forces faced the Parliamentarian army under Oliver Cromwell at the Battle of Naseby. The King's cavalry, led by Prince Rupert, attempted to break through the Parliamentary centre, but were repelled by the English cavalry. The battle raged for several hours, and by the end of the day, the King's forces had suffered heavy losses. The battle was a decisive victory for the Parliamentarians, and it marked the beginning of the end for the Royalist cause.

New Model Army

New Model Army

The New Model Army was a professional, disciplined and well-equipped army that was established in 1645. It was commanded by Oliver Cromwell and was made up of volunteers who were motivated by a desire to end the civil war and restore the monarchy. The New Model Army was known for its strict discipline and its effectiveness in battle. It was also well equipped, with the use of advanced tactics and the employment of new firearms.

The English Civil War

The English Civil War was a series of conflicts that took place in England between 1642 and 1651. It was fought between the Royalists, led by King Charles I, and the Parliamentarians, led by Oliver Cromwell. The war was fought between 1642 and 1651, and it resulted in the defeat of the Royalists and the establishment of the Commonwealth of England, which lasted until 1660.

Dawn Attack

Cromwell launched a surprise attack on the King's forces during the night, using the slow-moving night to their advantage. He attacked at daybreak, and his forces were able to take the King's forces by surprise. The battle was a decisive victory for Cromwell, and it marked the beginning of the end for the Royalist cause.

EVELYN CROMWELL

Evelyn Cromwell was born in 1629 to Oliver and Frances Cromwell. He was educated at Eton College and then went on to study law at Lincoln's Inn. In 1653, he married Frances Abington, and they had five children. In 1660, he was elected to Parliament, and he served as a Member of Parliament until his death in 1688.
**CANNON**

The muzzle-loaded, smoothbore cannon, cast in bronze, brass, or iron, was the basic field-artillery weapon from the late 15th century through to the 19th century.

Cannon were initially used primarily in sieges, but the development of lighter guns mounted on limbers (wheeled ammunition cases) created formidable battlefield weapons. Guns chiefly fired solid iron round shot—the classic "cannonball" (early cannonballs were made of stone), although against advancing infantry at short range, a cannon was fired to knock down morale.

This was a cluster of small balls inside a tin case. As the case exited the barrel, the balls were released to fray the area in front of the gun. A smaller version of cannon shot was grapeshot, which was contained in a canvas bag rather than a metal case. Mortars, and, from the late 17th century, howitzers would fire explosive shells, which took the form of hollow iron spheres packed with gunpowder and ignited by a fuse.

**MANNING THE GUNS**

Cannon were typically serviced by a crew of fire or six artillermen. The guns were pulled along by teams of horses or men in the battlefield, then disconnected from the limber. The barrel was wound up and then powder and shot rammed down the bore from the muzzle. The fire applied a smoothbore protrude—a wooden holder with a length of quick barrel attached to it—in a primer-filled tube in the vent to ignite the gunpowder propellant. After each shot a gun had to be "run up" to the original position from which the explosion's recoil had carried it—a process involving a lot of muscle power—and relied on its inertia. This involved raising or lowering the gun barrel with handspikes and fixing it in position with spigots (wedges), until the elevating screw was introduced during the 18th century. In the late 17th century, when the art of creating shot for specific barrel sizes became more precise, types of cannon were classified according to the weight of the ammunition that they fired; this measurement became known as the gun's calibre.

**FRENCH CANNON**

A French cannon being captured by the Holy Roman Emperor Charles V's troops at Pavia in 1527. The battle that saw unusual to this artillery period, ineffective, was won by the Tiger of Mantua in India.

**WHEEL HOOK**

The gun carriage was normally pulled by horses, the hook attached to the arm of each wheel.

**MUSKET BALL**

The smoothbore cannon of the 17th century was constructed to be in breech with the breechblock of the cannon breech.

**CONSTRUCTION STAMP**

The number of the gun carriage added a figure's mark on its side.
DYNASTIC WARS

IN THE CENTURY BEFORE 1648, European warfare had been dominated by wars of religion fought between Catholic, Protestant powers. The following century would be characterized by wars whose origins lay more in dynastic disputes. One major source of these wars were the efforts of the French kings principally Louis XIV to achieve a defendable frontier for their kingdom. Successful attempts to assert French interest led to a series of conflicts in Cologne and Brabant (the origins of the War of the Grand Alliance, 1688-97) in Spain (the War of the Spanish Succession, 1701-13), and Austria (the War of Austrian Succession, 1748-66). Until challenged by Prussia in the mid-18th century, France was the pre-eminent military power in Europe.

WAR OF THE GRAND ALLIANCE

Beachy Head

NEERWINDEN (LANDEN)

By 1602 the French had the upper hand in the War of the Grand Alliance. Nassau had fallen to them the year before, although they lost it again in 1605 (see 1596). In June 1602 the Duke of Luxembourg had beset William III at Nieuwerkerken. On 29 July 1605 the two generals faced each other in a battle in Brabant. Neither army was seriously wounded by the other, but the French advance further up the Meuse was impeded by the resistance of the Dutch.

SPANISH WAR OF SUCCESSION

Blenheim

BY THE END OF 1701 and 1702, the French were generally successful in Europe. There were no battles on land. The French navy had captured the English Channel. In the middle of the 18th century, though the French naval power was never in doubt, they were not able to sustain it for long enough to achieve their objectives. The French Grand Alliance was the result of alliances between the French kings and their allies. These alliances were subject to change and were often short-lived. The French Grand Alliance was the result of alliances between the French kings and their allies. These alliances were subject to change and were often short-lived. The French Grand Alliance was the result of alliances between the French kings and their allies. These alliances were subject to change and were often short-lived. The French Grand Alliance was the result of alliances between the French kings and their allies. These alliances were subject to change and were often short-lived. The French Grand Alliance was the result of alliances between the French kings and their allies. These alliances were subject to change and were often short-lived. The French Grand Alliance was the result of alliances between the French kings and their allies. These alliances were subject to change and were often short-lived.
**RAMILLIES VANQUISHED**

The capture of Ramillies at its light slighted Marlborough and Villeroi showing their forces, as it were, in their teeth to show.

Ramillies was entirely similar to that of Blenheim. Villeroi’s army was deployed along a low ridge, his position protected by a steep wooded slope. Marlborough, with his elite Prince Eugene, hurled a massive and coordinated attack upon the French lines, causing them to retreat. The appearance of Allied cavalry on the extreme left forced Villeroi to weaken his center. Just as at Blenheim, Marlborough had hoped. The French center battered by this force and turned, its center and right wing promptly distanced their right wing and exposed Marlborough’s center to any attack on his infantry.

Battle sides subsequently claimed victory in the battle. The French had been defeated.

**MARSHALL’S BAYONET**

This French matchlock musketry, the incendiary form of steel, when used properly, could deliver a deathly blow. The Maréchal de Broglie, an officer of the French infantry, was hit in the leg and fell to the ground. The British followed up their victory with a storming party that captured the French prison camp.

**JACQUES ROCQUEFELLES**

Calendon

Jacques de Rocquefelles, a French general, had been victorious in the Battle of Blenheim. His reputation was so great that he was able to command forces unsupported by any other officers. However, he had been captured at Ramillies, and now stood before Louis XIV’s army, which was under dire pressure from Marlborough’s forces. Rocquefelles was so disheartened by the British victory that he surrendered his forces to the British, causing the French to retreat.

**AUSTRIAN WAR OF SUCCESSION**

### Dettingen

**DATE:** 27 June 1743

**LOCATION:** Dettingen, Germany

**RESULT:** British and French forces defeated the Austrian forces.

In 1743, Frederick II of Prussia invaded Austria-controlled Silesia, aiming to make a conflict with the Silesian Wars. However, his invasion was met with resistance from the Austrian forces led by Archduke Charles. The British and French forces joined the Austrian forces in a battle at Dettingen, defeating Frederick II's army.

### Fontenoy

**DATE:** 11 May 1745

**LOCATION:** Fontenoy, France

**RESULT:** British and French forces defeated the Austrian forces.

After Fontenoy, the forces of war had ensured the French, who overran Hanover and in May 1745, led by Marshal Soubise, were laying siege to the fortress of Breslau. At nearby Fontenoy, Marshal Soubise at English army under the Duke of Cumberland. George III, 25-year-old son, encountered the French force. Hanover had planned mercenaries, including their forces fighting themselves. Although the British and Hanoverians were successful, the last British lines were barely saved from the collapsed French position. The victory for the British army was won at the Battle of Fontenoy, which ended the Austro-Prussian War.

**WILLIAM FOUCHÉ**

William Fouché, Duke of Chartres, won a great battle of 1745, a Jacobite (of Bourbon) and Cumberland, in 1745 and 1746, as governor of the African army under the Duke of Cumberland.

**COCKSHUT BATTLE**

This siege of Yorktown, which took place in 1767, a year after the Battle of Dettingen, included a long siege of the French and British forces.

**CROSBY HILL BATTLE**

This siege of Yorktown, which took place in 1767, a year after the Battle of Dettingen, included a long siege of the French and British forces.

**DYNASTIC WARS**

**EARLY MODERN WARFARE**

**DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH**

John Churchill, 1st Duke of Marlborough, was one of England's greatest generals. His victory at Blenheim in 1704 changed the European balance of power. His notable features of his campaign was the use of the right flanks. The French command, under the Duke de Vaudemont, informed Marlborough’s progress before the battle of the Schellenberg in 1705, leading to his capture, which ended with the surrender of the French army.
THE GREAT NORTHERN WAR

Narva

In Mar 1700 Sweden was attacked by an alliance of Frederick IV of Denmark, Peter I the Great of Russia, and Augustus the Strong, elector of Saxony and king of Poland, who were seeking to counter Sweden’s growing influence in northern Europe. Sweden was, in PETER’S TRIUMPH the Great Swedish army, in 40,000 men, led by Peter the Great at Poltava in 1709, an amusing event. Peter the Great, while he is believed to be the most successful and also a well-trained one, as regiments and units were called up for the period of war in peace-time. In contrast, Russian forces were badly in need of reform—a fact recognized by Peter for himself. The first war of the new Swedish king at Narva (in modern Estonia) lasted by force of about 30,000 Russians. When Charles XII moved to relieve the town, the Russian forces were cut off and struggling. Hence, Peter, the Great Swedish general, marched to Novgorod and, with his forces having marched and encircled the fortress of Narva, Sweden’s king of great age came to an end.

Charles XII

Charles XII maintained a Swedish royal tradition of campaigning in person. He was personally devoted to the military life to be spoilt by being married to the Swedish queen or the daughter of the Great. Shortly before his death at Poltava in 1709 he was for five years the unwavering guest and, later, captive of the Ottoman sultan. Privately, he died on the field for Fredericksköld in 1778. With his demise Sweden’s age of greatness came to an end.

Ezel and Grengam

More than any other activity, the creation of a fleet marked the change of a regime. In 1706 the Russian admiral was established in St. Petersburg, the navy became recruiting specialists in 1773. The Academy came into being, and by 1724 there were 32 ships-of-the-line in the Baltic fleet. Using this fleet, Peter attacked the Swedes, whose will to resist was much weakened after the death of Charles XII. The Swedish navy was defeated in two major engagements at Fredrikshald in 1714. In the taking of victory over the Swedes in 1719, Charles XII was captured three times before he was killed. Peter personally described this as a good start for the Czar of Russian and his fleet. After Geogem A Russian fleet, under the command of a military port settled on the shores of the Gulf of Finland, came to be the greatest Swedish ships in shallow water. Two Filipino engines were founded and were founded in the same period. Dedicated to commercial Baltic activity, the Russian ship was forced to the navigation. Peter also founded the Swedish East India Company (1730).

Revenge

The defeat at Narva had shown the urgent need for Russian military reforms. A Cartel was established, while new regiments and schools for military education were started. In 1709 the x of recruiting infantry was extended: from then on, one soldier was provided by every 30 peasant households. In 1709-10 up to 100,000 men were recruited in this way. Guard regiments were established and training proceeded for all (including the nobles). Following a victory at Kitty Corner in 1708, Charles XII invaded the Ukraine, hoping to deliver a decisive blow to the Russian army. His decision was to pursue catastrophic to the Swedish cause. The winter of 1708–09 was extremely harsh. A Russian scorched-earth policy was partially successful. In January, near Yelokh Zemlya hundreds of Swedish troops froze to death. Attacking the Baltic fortress of Olew, Charles’s troops found that the walls were formed solid. Charles did not take the Swedish capital. Meanwhile, provided little assistance, and the British, the British capital was supplied by the Russians. More cautious advice suggested that the Swedish king was a tactical withdrawal to Poland.

The Great Northern War

The Great Northern War (1700–21) saw Sweden and its warrior-king Charles XII (1678–1718) fight a series of campaigns against Denmark, Prussia, Saxony, Hanover, Poland, and Russia. The latter was now with unprecedented speed to become one of Europe’s great powers. Russian prominence was achieved largely at the expense of Sweden and its Baltic empire, which had been essentially trade-based. The Great Northern War became as much a fight for control of the wealth of Baltic trade as for territory. In this region wars were less strategically important than in France or Germany. Armies were generally able to live off the land. As a result there were only three major sieges, producing a very different war form than that seen in western Europe.

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Peter the Great realized the need to attack his fortified position at Poltava. With Charles injured and unable to oversee in person the battle, his general proved inadequate. The Swedish attack was badly coordinated, hampered by inadequate reconnaissance and poor communications. Russian infantry and artillery inflicted heavy losses on the Swedes. At 30,000 men, however, Charles hoped to push back the Swedes and reclaim the Swedish Baltic provinces. The war ended only in 1721, but Swedish power was broken.

Victory beacon

Peter the Great chose bow-light with a beam of light to signal from his throne that he had taken a great personal victory.
WARFARE IN THE AMERICAS

IN THE PRE-COLUMBIAN ERA — before the arrival of Europeans at the end of the 15th century — the Americas had their own history of warfare, most of it now difficult to reconstruct. War was waged for conquest, to extract tribute, out of traditional rivalry between neighboring societies, or, perhaps above all, to win captives who might serve as slaves or as victims in ritual sacrifice. Battles were fought on foot, almost exclusively with weapons of wood and stone, but this simplicity of equipment did not prevent the creation of large empires such as those of the Aztecs and Incas.

PRE-COLUMBIAN WARFARE

In many pre-Columbian societies, being a warrior was synonymous with being a man — or at least, a man of any standing or status. At the Aztec naming ceremony for a boy, a midwife would pronounce that he "belongs to the battlefield." The transition to manhood involved proving yourself as a warrior, especially by capturing high-status enemy fighters. The Aztecs were not exceptional in mostly aiming to cut off an enemy's legs, hoping to bring him down for capture rather than split his skull. But warfare was nonetheless at times totally destructive; Aztec codices speak of "wiping out all traces" of a particular society that had met with their displeasure.

AZTEC VICTIM

The image from an Aztec codex shows a warrior taking an enemy prisoner. Capturing the enemy's heir was a traditional ceremony inflicting羞辱.

YOUNG EMPIRES

Both the Incas and Aztecs' empires were creations of the 15th century, built by a series of wars in which other peoples were forced to accept tributary status. Their power was maintained by their skill and bloody suppression of any revolt against imperial authority. As imperial expansion ran out of steam, the level of conflict naturally tended to decline, creating for the Aztecs the serious problem of a scarcity of enemies for their warriors to capture and their priests to sacrifice. They therefore instituted the extraordinary ritual of "flower war," in which independent enclaves within the Aztec empire, notably the Tlaxcalans, were forced to make war on Aztec terms. These were not wars of destruction or invasion but Aztec prisoners-taking exercises.

FEATHER DECORATION

Round shields, decorated like this one with quetzal plumes and feathers, were carried by many warriors in pre-Columbian American societies.

EUROPEAN IMPACT

When Europeans arrived in the Americas after Columbus's voyage of 1492 their horses, steel weapons and armor, and gunpowder weapons (generally in small numbers) gave them clear-cut military advantages over all native peoples they encountered. They also had an attitude to warfare that was practical, ruthless, aggressive, and decisive. And, above all else, they were unsurprisingly carrying diseases to which the Americas had no resistance.

Even so, the conquest of the Aztec empire by Hernán Cortés in 1521 was achieved only through alliance with subject peoples, and Franciscan friars' efforts to undermine the Aztec empire was facilitated by an Inca civil war. In North America, where no such centralized empires existed, European settlers formed a different relationship with native peoples, sometimes in alliance, at other times hostile, but far from resting on absolute military superiority American Indians adopted European imports such as the horse and firearms. In places such as Chile, where the Atacama smelted, the Europeans had difficulty in establishing a foothold, but at least some control.

AZTEC WEAPONS

Whether bows, clubs, or swords, Aztec weapons were made of wood mudded on the edges or tip with copper-bladed flakes of obsidian or flint. These were supplemented by stone weapons such as hoes and axes and javelins, the latter given greater range by use as a spear, a lance that augmented the force of the throwing arm. For protection, warriors were equipped with armors, which was highly effective against arrows, and carried small shields. The inadequacy of the Aztecs weaponry against people armed with steel was demonstrated even before the Europeans arrived when, in 1519, the Tlaxcalans were defeated by distant neighbors, the Tarascans, who had copper weapons.

INCA CONQUEST

Signs of the parties, emperors and empresses at home in their palaces and manors. The Incas also responded to the invaders' diseases.
CONQUEST OF THE AZTECS AND INCAS

In November, 1518 Hernán Cortés sailed from Cuba with 600 men, 17 horses, and 30 canons on an exploratory expedition to the Yucatán peninsula on behalf of the Spanish Crown. For his exceptional deeds, he was thrust into the center stage of the Aztec capital, Tenochtitlan. Paralyzed by superstition, forebodings, and the Aztec emperor Montezuma II allowed the Spanish to enter the city and become a puppet ruler under Cortés’s control. A subsequent revolt gave the Spanish a hard fight to complete the conquest of Tenochtitlan. The ruthless Spanish admiral Francisco Pizarro, however, decided to use much less military force to defeat the Inca empire Atahualpa.

SPANISH CONQUEST OF MEXICO

Night of Sorrows

In spring 1519 a Spanish military expedition was sent from Cuba to arrest Cortés for insubordination. Leading the mercenaries was Hernando de Alvarado in control of Tenochtitlan, Cortés mustered to the sound, and was killed. The next day, Cortés arrived in Tenochtitlan and was confronted by the Aztec emperor, Tizoc. After a brief negotiations, Cortés agreed to sign the City of Tenochtitlan and Nahuatl document. The Aztec capital was taken and the Spanish conquered it.

Ottumba

The Aztec capital at the foot of the hill was taken by the Spanish. The Aztecs were at the head of the Tenochtitlan and the Spanish were at the foot of the hill. The Aztecs were defeated and the Spanish captured it.

JACOB MANTEGNA / TIZOC

The Aztec emperor who ruled from 1519 to 1520.

LOCATION

Tenochtitlan, Aztec capital

SIEGE OF TEOTIHUACAN

After withdrawing to Tenochtitlan in the summer of 1520, Cortés began preparations for the conquest of Tenochtitlan. Most of the Aztec’s tributaries now joined the Spanish allies of the Aztec. The Spanish besieged the city of Tenochtitlan and captured it on August 13, 1521. The Spanish did not use cannon against the city, but when the Spanish breached the walls, they used a long, pointed pole to pull down the ladders and windows of the houses. The Spanish set fire to the city and captured it.

CAYSAWER BATTLE

This battle was the beginning of the Spanish conquest of the Aztec capital. The Spanish were victorious and the Aztec capital was captured.

1519-1521

HERNAN CORTES

Born in an undistinguished family from Extremadura, Spain, Cortés went to the West Indies in 1519 on his own to make his fortune. His Spanish expedition in 1519 began in controversy; his command was cancelled by the authorities before he left. In his triumph over the Aztec he proved himself a superb leader and tactician. He failed to return to Europe in 1520 to defend himself against accusations of exceeding his authority and was never received the post of viceroys that he coveted.

FLINT KNIFE

Flint knives such as these are so rare and costly, we probably used for human sacrifices rather than as weapons.

SPANISH CONQUEST OF PERU

Cajamarca

Spain’s conqueror Francisco Pizarro was the son of a professional soldier. In the course of his expedition along the west coast of South America in 1530, he discovered evidence of the existence of a wealthy Andean empire. Pizarro organized a force of 150 men in the north of the Aztec empire, Huaura, and landed on the coast. Pizarro’s force of only 140 men quickly overpowered the Aztec forces.

LOCATION

Cajamarca, northern Peru

OCTUMBA

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LOCATION

Huaura, northern Peru

MANCO CAPAC’s Rebellion

When Francisco Pizarro’s men first landed on the coast, they were greeted by a large force of the Aztec. The Aztec forces, led by their emperor, Atahualpa, were surprised by the Spanish, and were quickly defeated. The Spanish captured the Aztec emperor and his city, and established the Inca empire in Peru.

LOCATION

Peru

EMPEROR BEHEADED

The following month, Pizarro and his men killed Atahualpa and declared him emperor. Pizarro then marched on the Inca capital, Cuzco, which was occupied without a fight.

INCA WARRIORS

Further played a prominent part in the military dress of many American peoples, their chief colors and designs often referred to them as the symbol of races. In the Andes, it was an act of positive good-faith, given that the Inca had allies numbered in tens of thousands and were not tired out using them. (Huata Puccag) is said to have slaughtered 20,000 Caranatos Indians shortly before his death. But Pizarro’s Inca warriors feelingly showed by many acts of the conqueror, that he was not only a conqueror. He began in captivity and, in 1533, organized an army to meet the Spanish occupation. The small army attacked Cuzco, and burned it to the ground. The small Spanish garrison in Cuzco was defeated and rails of the Inca empire were broken. Atahualpa had their revenge in 1541 when they massacred Francisco Pizarro. Manco Capac, surprisingly, refused to accept the Inca’s rule in Cuzco, which was occupied without a fight.

THE INDIANS HAVE BEEN ALLOWED TO HAVE HORSES, MARES, AND ARQUEBUSES AND MANY OF THEM KNOW HOW TO RIDE AND SHOOT AN ARQUEBUS VERY WELL.

Conquest of the Aztecs and Incas

1519-1521

Hernán Cortés

The siege began at the end of May 1519. The Spanish besieged the city of Tenochtitlan from the lake, but when the Spanish breached the walls, they used a long, pointed pole to pull down the ladders and windows of the houses. The Spanish set fire to the city and captured it.

1519-1521

Hernán Cortés

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Then Cortés took possession of that land for the King

WITNESS TO WAR

CONQUEST OF MEXICO

The overthrow of the Aztec empire in 1519-21 by Hernán Cortés, who had arrived with a tiny band of followers—just 600 men and 17 horses—made one of the most lethal threats of Europe's overseas adventure. As far as accounts of this catastrophe go, the Aztec side is mostly mute. For the Spanish, in contrast, the passion to chronicle their astounding triumph left a plethora of tales, some self-serving, some grandiose, all intended as the magnitude of their journey.

It was a destructive battle, and a fearful sight to behold. We moved through the midst of them at close quarters, slashing and thrusting at them with our swords. And the dogs fought back furiously, dealing us wounds and death with their lances and their two-handed swords.

AVENUE OF THE DEAD

Tenochtitlán was one of the Americas' largest cities by the 15th century. It was already named and a part of a pironage.

CONQUEST OF MEXICO

There is a sense in Díaz's work of ever-present danger for the Spaniards. Surrounded by hordes of Mexican warriors in an alien and threatening landscape, Cortés was thrown back on a mixture of forceful diplomacy, martial prowess, and sheer bloody-minded cruelty to overcome the Aztec nobility. Almost no Spanish soldier emerged unscathed from the campaign, and many were hacked to death or perished from wounds or disease. Díaz stresses the role of the personality of Cortés in the final victory—how vital was the acquisition of native allies who longed to throw off the Aztec hegemony.

In his description of the assault on Tenochtitlán in 1521, Díaz's account reaches a crescendo of horror, terror, and violence: The Aztec fought bitterly and building by building for their capital. At one point even Cortés was surrounded and seized, and it was only the bravery of several of his captains that rescued him from the fate the Spanish most feared: bloody sacrifice to the pagan gods. That desire was the driving force behind the conquest of Mexico.

Whenever an attempt was made hosts of warriors were waiting for our men with arrows and slings and their various kinds of swords and lances, and the lake was full of war-canoes. Near the barricades there were many flat roofs from which volleys of stones descended...

We captains and soldiers were all somewhat sad when we saw how little gold there was and how poor and mean our shares would be.
CONFLICTS IN NORTH AMERICA

IN NORTH AMERICA in the 17th century European colonists were only occasionally in war with the Indians that had also occupied the land before them. When Europeans fought local tribes they were usually to make peace with them, or to gain land and resources. The conflict was not only about land, but about the manner in which people lived. This often meant the complete disappearance of a tribe. In the long term the most significant point about the colonists was that they were able to increase their numbers by selling in more settlers across the ocean. This potentially almost limitless supply of freshly imported manpower was what would bring about the destruction of the American Indians over time.

THE POWHATAN VERSUS SETTLERS

When 105 English settlers landed at the mouth of the James river in May 1607 to found the colony of Virginia, they ended up in territory controlled by the Powhatan Confederacy. These Algonquian-speaking people were led by Wahunsonacock, whose name means “Chief”, who had expanded the confederacy from four tribes to 30, dealing ruthlessly with any opposition. In 1606, Wahunsonacock’s brother, the English could be tolerated because they were in small numbers. Relations remained largely peaceful until a new chief, Opechancanough, succeeded in leadership. He was determined to destroy the settlement and, on 22 March 1622, without warning, his warriors fell upon the settlers in their farms in the early morning, killing three with tomahawks and killing or wounding over 300 others. By 1644 had prepared against the Powhatans were decimated by disease.

VIRGINIAN CHURCH

The early church and history of Jamestown, Virginia, Anti from 1607 and the first of a series of settlements were still in conflict with the Powhatan Confederacy.

THE PUEBLO VERSUS SPANISH

Pueblo revolt

In the southwest of South America, the Pueblo Indians had come under the rule of the Spanish in the 16th century. The headquarters of the colonists were set up at San Juan de los Caballeros. The government was supported by the Spanish, who provided food and water and other goods. By 1660 the Spanish were well established on the land. With the help of the Pueblo revolt, the Spanish were eventually driven out of the area.

AMERICAN INDIAN WEAPONS

Originally American Indians were armed with weapons of stone, bone, and bow, but through trade with Europeans they soon supplied with steel and iron tomahawks and knives. Although they acquired firearms, American Indian warriors preferred to continue using bows and arrows, with which they were more skilled. Many carried shields of hide that could resist arrows.

“I have lost much blood from two arrow wounds in the face and from a remarkable gunshot wound in the chest. I immediately had water given to me... the people.”

———LONG BEFORE THE COLONIAL ERA———
JAPAN, KOREA, AND CHINA

In Japanese History the years from 1468 to 1615 are known as the Sengoku period ("the era of the country at war"). Eventually, through the military successes of Oda Nobunaga, Toyotomi Hideyoshi, and Tokugawa Ieyasu, the endless battling of competing feudal lords was ended under the firm central control of the Tokugawa shogunate. In China, too, this was an era of warfare on a grand scale as the Ming dynasty fell and Manchu invaders imposed their authority over the Chinese and extended the borders of the empire. Caught between China and Japan, Korea maintained its independence despite two Japanese invasions.

JAPANESE ARMIES

The power struggles between feudal lords (daimyo) in Japan in the Sengoku period brought major changes in the way of warfare. The daimyo discovered that to achieve victory they had to abandon their fixation with individual combat between elite warriors and instead create forces that combined disciplined peasant footsoldiers (ashigaru) with the samurai. There were also major advances in castle-building. Where a castle had once consisted of a fence or earthworks strengthening a natural fortress, it now became an elaborate maze of towers and courtyards protected by thick walls pierced by loopholes for defensive fire.

HIMEJI CASTLE
The Thirty-two Story "Himeji" Castle (for Japanese castle-building at its peak). The method used to its construction were nearly solid, earth, and tiles.

JAPANESE WEAPONS

During this period samurai fought on horseback or on foot with spears and swords, supported by footsoldiers armed with spears, bows, and matchlock firearms. Written a few years of encountering the Portuguese explorers in 1543, Japanese craftsmen were making their own matchlocks that were inferior to the originals. These guns could fire three bullets in a minute, piercing typical samurai armor at 30m (100ft).

FIREARMS

As the inventors of gunpowder weapons, the Chinese had various forms of cannon and firearms, the use of which had also been picked up by the Japanese. In 1543, however, Portuguese sailors reached Japan and introduced the European arquebus. This rapidly replaced the more primitive Chinese-style firearms and had a major impact on Japanese warfare. As in Europe, it was found that, although bows were more effective in the hands of a skilled archer, firearms could be deployed en masse to make roughly trained peasants a major force on the battlefield. By the 1570s tens of thousands of matchlock guns were present at major Japanese battles. In 1667, however, Shogun leyasu made the manufacture of firearms a state monopoly. Production and sale were strictly controlled, and a century later fewer than 300 firearms a year were being made in Japan.

LARGE-SCALE WAR
In China, warfare was often on a massive scale; the wars of Manchu Emperor Kangxi in the second half of the 17th century are estimated to have cost 25 million lives. Wars were mostly fought by large, disciplined infantry armies in which crossbows and a form of halberd were the standard weapons. Artillery was extensively employed even if the Chinese were now employing Europeans to make cannon for them. On the whole, Chinese armies were highly effective, as shown when they intervened to repel Japan's second invasion of Korea in 1597.
PACIFYING JAPAN

FROM THE SECOND HALF OF THE 15TH CENTURY, JAPAN WAS RACKED BY WAR BETWEEN FEUDAL LIGIUS (daimyos). AFTER EUROPEAN INFLUENCES WERE INTRODUCED IN THE 1540S, DAIMYO ODA NOSHIRO ESTABLISHED HIMSELF AS THE PARAMOUNT POWER IN THE LAND. AFTER NOSHIRO’S DEATH IN 1582, TOYOTOMI HIDEYOSHI WENT FURTHER, BECOMING RULE OF VIRTUALLY THE WHOLE NATION. HIDEYOSHI BEGAN THE DISARMING OF THE POPULATION BUT OVERREACHED HIMSELF IN THE 1590S BY TWICE ATTEMPTING TO INVADE CHINA. THROUGHOUT JAPAN, TOKUGAWA IYEIUS, WHO HAD NOT COMMENDED HIS EYES TO KOREA, WAS WELL PLACED TO WIN POWER AFTER HIDEYOSHI’S DEATH. THE TOKUGAWA SHOGUNATE THAT HE FOUNDED THEN FOKLIED JAPAN UNDER FIRM CIVIL CONTROL, CONSING THE SAMURAI TO A LIFE OF LEISURE.

NAGASHINO

Oda Nobunaga had a large army to release the castle in Nagashino, besieged by Takeda Katsuyori. He took up a defensive position behind a wall, with his left wing anchored by a front but his right wing open. In front of his forces he placed 3,000 archers, protected by a palisade. The Takeda charged, but Nobunaga’s archers had a line of bamboo shields to skew the arrows. Nobunaga then released his inner forces to attack the Takeda’s rear. The battle was fought in a line, with both sides suffering heavy casualties. Nobunaga’s forces emerged victorious.

SEMINAR

The battle of Nagashino is considered one of the six decisive battles of the Sengoku period, marking a turning point in the conflict between the Oda and Takeda clans.

YAMAZAKI

In 1562, under the command of Asahi Minoshige, Nobunaga besieged the city of Osaka. The battle of Yamazaki was a crucial victory for Nobunaga, as he emerged victorious against the combined forces of three daimyos. The battle was fought on a narrow mountain pass, with Nobunaga’s forces using the terrain to their advantage.

SEMINAR

The battle of Yamazaki is considered one of the six decisive battles of the Sengoku period, marking a turning point in the conflict between the Oda and Takeda clans.
Japanese invasion of Korea

In the 1930s, the Japanese invasion began. When the Koreans refused to allow Japanese troops a free passage through their country, China, and to continue into Korea. But although the Japanese were able to occupy the country as far north as Pyongyung, their armies were halted by Korean guerrillas and their navy was decimated by the Korean fleet.

Korean guerrillas and their navy was decimated by the Korean fleet. The invasion was abandoned in 1930. A second invasion in 1939 was even less successful, won by Chinese intervention and the formidable Korean admiral Yi, the Japanese were merely clinging to a few fortresses when the death of Hidetsugu in September 1939 brought this military adventure to an end.

Chungju

On the southern Korean coast of Pusan, the Japanese invasion force, led by Koshiki Yosikawa, advanced north towards Seoul. Chungju was the most important fortress in their path. Governor General Shin Nippon drew up his army in front of the castle, where he hoped his army could have maximum effect. The battle opened with a Korean mounted charge led by Shin Nippon. Taking cavalry from amphibious fire, the Koreans failed to break the Japanese line. As the charge stalled, the Korean horses were attacked on all sides. Faced with defeat, Shin Nippon committed suicide.

Siege of Chinchu

In October 1939, a Japanese army commanded by Momoyama Daishu laid siege to the Korean fortress of Chinchu. The Japanese army and its cannon brought the walls and built a siege trench from which they could fire down into the castle. On the 31st day of the siege, they brought up Sampoh scaling ladders and attempted to take the walls by storm, but the Korean defenses kept them off,餐桌 joining in the desperate struggle by hurling rocks and pouring water down on the Japanese. Meanwhile, Korean guerrillas had been digging in on the Japanese siege line from the rear. Several thousand guerrillas had broken through to the castle, reinforcing the garrison. Throttled with attack from both front and rear, the Japanese suffered heavy casualties and were finally driven from the walls, marking the beginning of the end of the first Japanese invasion of Korea.

Myongyang

The first invasion of Korea had taught the Japanese the importance of sea power and for the second invasion they gave higher priority to their navy. In May 1939, in the absence of Admiral Yi, removed from command after attempting to dismiss his political masters, the Japanese determined some

Japanese invasion of Korea

Admiral Yi

Yi Sunsin was a naval commander of military genius. His navy was known both for its fearsome ships and its deadly head and penning a small force. Yi may have been used against the Japanese invasion of Korea in 1939. Their ships were covered with two short masts instead of topper boards, making them procurers of the 19th-century ironclad. They carried up to 21 canons, which fired through gun ports in the sides, bows, and stern, and emptied iron armor. According to Yi Sunsin’s nephew Yi Pan, the admiral’s ships could institute among hundreds of enemy ships and adjust, whereas they were made up of a few large ships. The most fantastic aspect of the naval battle was the dragon’s head at the bow of the Japanese’s head would be fixed, by which the Japanese mechanic could be shot in the air with a stern screen. The three followed up a brush in the Naval Academy Museum in Korea.

Japanese turtle ships

The turtle ships or koboushi, developed by Admial Yi Sunsin, differ sharply from the Japanese invasion of Korea in 1939. Their ships were covered with two short masts instead of topper boards, making them procurers of the 19th-century ironclad. They carried up to 21 canons, which fired through gun ports in the side, bow, and stern, and emptied iron armor. According to Yi Sunsin’s nephew Yi Pan, the admiral’s ships could institute among hundreds of enemy ships and adjust, whereas they were made up of a few large ships. The most fantastic aspect of the naval battle was the dragon’s head at the bow of the Japanese’s head would be fixed, by which the Japanese mechanic could be shot in the air with a stern screen. The three followed up a brush in the Naval Academy Museum in Korea.

Siege of Ulsan

The second Japanese invasion of Korea began in summer 1939. In the absence of Admiral Yi, the Japanese failed to prepare a massive Japanese army from landing at Pusan. However, the Japanese found themselves facing rapidly large Chinese forces sent into Korea by the Chinese military. The Japanese garrison was besieged in the fortresses of Ulsan by a large Chinese and Korean army under Ching Chen Yung. His Japanese navy easily lifted the siege, but the Koreans and Chinese continued to press their enemy back into a few coastal fortresses. The Japanese was still able to come out on top in a major clash at Sachon in September 1939, destroying thousands of boats near to Japan as it proved preserved to us, but has already failed well before Hideyoshi’s death brought the order for the troops to return home.
MANCHU CONQUEST

Fall of Beijing

by the 1660s, the Manchu emperor, Kangxi, was able to establish his rule over China after a series of military campaigns against the Ming dynasty. Kangxi's reign lasted for more than 60 years and was marked by a period of stability and prosperity in China.

The Ming dynasty, which ruled China for more than 200 years, had faced numerous challenges and internal conflicts. In the late 17th century, the Manchu dynasty, led by Kangxi, began to expand its territory and eventually conquered the Ming dynasty in 1644.

In the late 17th century, the Manchu Empire, under the leadership of Kangxi, was able to consolidate its power and establish a solid foundation for future dynasties in China.

Albania

Albania was a country located in southeastern Europe. It gained independence from Austria-Hungary in 1912 and was recognized as a republic in 1913.

PIRATE AND TRADER

This is a pirate image of Kosrae, a small island in the southern Philippines. Kosraeese history is closely tied to the history of piracy in the area.

SEIZED OF TAIWAN

Koxinga seizes Taiwan

In 1661, Koxinga, a Chinese admiral, captured Taiwan from the Dutch and established a government there. Koxinga's rule lasted until his death in 1662.

IMPERIAL NAVY

Chinese imperial navy depicted in an engravement from the 17th century. The navy played an important role in China's military and economic power.

CHINESE MING-DONGWAN WAR

Jao Modo

Chinese warship depicted in an engraving from the 17th century. The Mings-Dongwan war was a series of conflicts between the Ming dynasty and the DongWan people.

Sino-Russian War

The Sino-Russian War was a series of conflicts between China and Russia over the control of Manchuria and the rights to Chinese territory.

MANCHU CONQUEST

In about 1616, Nurhachi led a group of jurchen hunters and pastoralists living north of the Great Wall of China. He founded the Manchu dynasty. Within 30 years, Nurhachi's successors had built up a powerful military organization of jurchen, Mongol, and Chinese forces grouped into “hundred”. Calling themselves the Manchus, they were well

armed, organized, and disciplined. By the 1660s, the Manchu empire became a major power in East Asia.

By the 1660s, the Ming emperor, Kangxi, had already proclaimed a new dynasty, the Chongzhen. In 1660, Kangxi moved the capital of the Ming dynasty to Beijing and began a series of military campaigns against the Manchu Empire.

In 1662, Kangxi captured the Ming dynasty capital, Beijing, and the Manchu Empire became the dominant power in China.

By the late 17th century, the Manchu Empire, under the leadership of Kangxi, was able to consolidate its power and establish a solid foundation for future dynasties in China.
EMPIRES AND REVOLUTIONS
1750–1914
THE RISE OF MODERN WARFARE

BETWEEN 1750 AND 1914 European armies and those of countries founded by European settlement, such as the United States, achieved an unquestionable pre-eminence in military technology and organization. An ever wider gulf opened up between those forces that adopted Western methods and armaments and those that did not—Japan being the only non-Western country to cross this divide decisively. Mass armies, new firearms, and new forms of transport and communication allowed Western states to extend their rule over much of the planet.

Many wars in the 18th and 19th centuries crossed continents and created modern nations. The Seven Years War (1756-63), which opened this period, has been called the first "universal war." European combatants fought in India and North America as well as in Europe itself. War was central to the creation of the United States, from the War of Independence (1775-83) against Britain to the later wars against Mexico and Germanic peoples in the Civil War (1861-65). In Europe, the great convulsions of the French revolutionary and Napoleonic wars (1792-1815) were followed by a century of more limited but still decisive conflicts, which brought Germany and Italy into being as national states. Elsewhere, many were occurred when Western powers imposed their rule on Asian or African peoples, such as the British in India and in Africa, and the French in Southeast Asia and West Africa.

UNIFORM DISCIPLINE

By the mid-18th-century European countries had unified, strictly hierarchically, and professional armies, for which the Prussian under Frederick the Great set the standard. Infantry armed with flintlock muskets and bayonets, and trained to fight in strict lines, against cavalry, formed the core of the army. Often recruited from the dregs of society, the soldiers were disciplined by draconian punishments, although attempts were also made to improve them with regimental pride. Cavalry retained the elite arm, executing functions such as screening, reconnaissance, and shock charge, while artillery had become a vital, fully mobile part of armies on the battlefield. Yet the American War of Independence showed the potential vulnerability of a professional European army in difficult terrain and against an irregular enemy. As they became aware of the limitations of formally disciplined formations, the European powers promoted irregular skirmishing cavalry, often from ethnic minorities in their empires, such as the Cossacks in Russia, and developed rifled sharpshooters and skirmishers.

CITIZEN ARMIES

Although there was no dramatic technological progress in warfare between the mid-18th and mid-19th centuries, in the 1790s the French Revolution ushered in a new type of army: the mass conscript force inspired by nationalism. It also brought a new dynamism to the battlefield, epitomized by Napoleon Bonaparte's use of rapid manoeuvres and his search for decisive victories through the destruction of enemy forces. By the 19th century, conscript armies, raised by universal conscription, had become the norm, at least in mainland Europe. Military service was regarded as a right and a duty for patriotism and a force for national integration.

EXPLOSIVE TECHNOLOGY

Around 1800 a transformation of warfare began, linked to developments in precision machinery and mass production. The armament of the Napoleonic wars allowed the first effective rifled muskets to emerge, with spiral grooves inside the barrel that made a bullet spin and so increased the weapon's range and accuracy. By the late 19th century mass-produced breech-loading rifles came into existence, firing metal cartridges that singers fitted into the breech (rear) of the gun instead of the muzzle.

Machine guns, revolvers, and repeating rifles were soon widely adopted. Gunpowder was superseded by various new forms of high explosives; artillery firing high explosive shells replaced solid shot. Railways revolutionized the speed of mobilization and movement of men and armies, while communications were transformed, first by the telegraph and then by the telephone and theuez. At sea, steel-built steam-powered battleships ended the reign of the wooden ships of the line. Warfare temporarily mass-produced sky with ballons and early aircraft, and dived under the sea with early submarines.

WAR AND PEACE

The American Civil War showed how destructive modern warfare was likely to be if pursued to the limit by irreconcilable enemies. Responding to this changed reality, the western world was inspired by a new ideal of peace in this period, with self-conscious attempts to limit and even outlaw war, ranging from the first Geneva Convention in 1864, concerning treatment of the wounded, to the various agreements of the Hague Peace Conferences of 1899 and 1907. But this ideal was not enough: the creation of mass armies, backed by efficient arm industries, and inspired by a variant patriotism, paved the way for the mass slaughter of World War I.

REVOLUTION AND WAR IN THE THIRD WORLD

Liberating the People of the Third World from "Two Worlds"—the hegemonic power of the French Revolution were for the Third World, and beyond, and challenged the idea of national autonomy based on national consciousness.
The Seven Years War

The Seven Years War is sometimes described as the first true world war. All the great powers of Europe were involved, and fighting took place in Europe, North America, Asia, and Africa, as well as at sea. The war arose out of an Austrian attempt to regain the province of Silesia, recently occupied by Prussia. A transformation of European alliances left France facing Prussia, Austria, Russia, and others. Prussia's only ally was Britain, which provided some subsidies and a few troops while putting pressure on the French. But Britain's chief interest lay in the contest with France for maritime and colonial dominance. In Europe, Prussia was arrayed against its enemies, though at great cost, and Britain wrested power from the French in Canada and India.

**Arms**

In the mid-18th century European armies were still relatively small, and made up of mercenary troops fighting for wages. Prussian success in the war against Austria was based on its strong military tradition. With the French, Prussian officers were recruited from descendants of the Teutonic Knights, a military order that had ruled medieval Prussia. The Prussian army was well-trained, mobile, and efficient under the capable leadership of Prince Ferdinand. The French, on the other hand, had a system of conscription that provided ready-trained reserves. This gave them the advantage on the battlefield.

**Cavalry Wars**

Cavalry units, such as the British Light Dragoons, were crucial during the Seven Years War. Their mobility allowed them to attack the enemy at its weakest point with a large number of heavy cavalry.

**Smart Uniforms**

The French and British armies were equipped with uniforms that were both practical and impressive. Their design was still influenced by the fashion of the time.

**Soldiers' Knowledge**

Soldiers were taught a variety of tactics and skills, including marksmanship, swordsmanship, and leading troops in battle.

**The Colonies**

The campaigns of the war were costly for both Britain and France, and the outcome was uncertain. The Americans, who fought for independence, emerged victorious. The British, on the other hand, gained control of Canada and the Ohio Valley, which was a major victory.

**The French and Indian War**

The capture of Louisbourg in 1758 by the British laid the groundwork for the British victory. The capture of Fort Sackville in 1759 was a significant blow to the French.

**Fort Georgian**

Fort Georgian was a British military installation in Canada, constructed to control French expansion. It was later renamed Fort Duquesne.

**The French and Indian War**

The French and Indian War was a conflict between France and Britain over control of North America. The war was fought on land and sea, with the British gaining the upper hand.

**The Seven Years War**

The Seven Years War, also known as the French and Indian War, was a global conflict fought between 1756 and 1763, primarily between France and Britain, with the involvement of other European powers.

**The Seven Years War**

The Seven Years War was a war fought between Britain and France for dominance in North America.

**Key**

- British town
- French town
- British colony
- French colony
- British victory
- French victory

**Timeline**

- 1754-1763: The Seven Years War
- 1758: Capture of Louisbourg
- 1759: Capture of Fort Sackville
- 1760: Capture of Quebec

**Map**

A map of North America showing the locations of important battles and settlements during the Seven Years War.

**Conclusion**

The Seven Years War was a turning point in the history of North America, leading to British dominance in the region.
WAR IN EUROPE AND INDIA

The Seven Years War included several virtually separate conflicts around the world. The common denominator in the European and Indian Wars was that in both France was a major contender and in both France was the loser. Prussia's great victories of 1757 ruined France's military reputation, after a century of almost continual military success, and it was not restored until the Revolutionary Wars of the 1790s. In India, both the French and the English were tiny proportion of the total population and depended on local alliances as much as superior military technology. As in North America, Britain's command of the sea, which deprived the French of reinforcements, ultimately dictated the British victory.

Leuthen

After suffering defeat at Kolin in June 1757, Friedrich II of Prussia decided to divide his army and have it sit out the war. To this end, he left his army to the care of his commanders, but he was not satisfied with the results. In November 1757, he ordered them to attack the French army at Leuthen. The French army was under the command of the Marquis de Conflans. The two armies met in the early morning of November 18. The French attacked the Prussian army, which was divided into two wings, and were repulsed. The French then tried to capture the Prussian artillery, but they were defeated. The French army was finally driven back, and the war ended in a Prussian victory.

Winter Battle

The battle of Leuthen was fought in snowy conditions. This painting shows a Prussian supply wagon as officer and grenadiers at the village of Leuthen.

Minden

In July 1759, the British and Hanoverians under General Wolfe invaded France and captured the port of Quebec. This victory was a major blow to the French and their hopes of recovering Canada.

Plassey

In 1756, the Nawab of Bengal, Naxal Bardhan, captured the British settlement of Calcutta after the support of the Nawab of Bengal. The British decided to replace him with Mir Jafar, who was more compliant to British demands. In the ensuing battle at Plassey, the Nawab was defeated and the British were victorious. The British took control of Bengal and established a new British administration.

The Seven Years War in India

In 1757, the war ended in a British victory.

The Seven Years War in Europe

In 1756, the war ended in a British victory.

Mindenn

In 1758, the British and Hanoverians under General Wolfe invaded France and captured the port of Quebec. This victory was a major blow to the French and their hopes of recovering Canada.

Quebrion Bay

In 1759, the British and Hanoverians under General Wolfe invaded France and captured the port of Quebec. This victory was a major blow to the French and their hopes of recovering Canada.

All that could possibly be done has been done.

The Seven Years War in India

In 1756, the war ended in a British victory.

The Seven Years War in Europe

In 1756, the war ended in a British victory.
THE EVOLUTION OF FIREARMS

MATCHLOCKS

The earliest firing mechanism was the matchlock. Before stocks were carved to fit the shoulder, early matchlocks—known as arquebuses—were held against the chest when firing. From the mid-16th century the arquebus was superseded by the musket, which originally had to be propelled on a forked rest to fire.

MATCHLOCK MECHANISM

This matchlock mechanism caused the match—a slow-burning rope—to be lit by a special lock called a serpentine. When the trigger was pulled, the serpentine revealed the match into the pan, igniting the priming powder that, in turn, set off the charge in the barrel.

GERMAN MATCHLOCK MUSKET, EARLY 17TH CENTURY

DOUBLE-BARRELED POCKET PISTOL, c. 1650

FLINTLOCKS

From the late 1600s through to the 1830s the flintlock mechanism predominated. The priming powder was ignited by a flint, held in the gun’s cock, striking against steel. The cock was set in a safety position—half-cock—when loading, and pulled back to full cock before firing. By the 18th century paper cartridges, containing the powder and ball for a single shot, were standard. The soldier bit off the end of the cartridge and rammed powder, ball, and paper down the barrel.

FLINTLOCK PISTOLS

The flintlock mechanism replaced the wheellock in pistols from the mid-17th century. Before it replaced this matchlock in muskets, even the best flintlocks often failed to fire, producing only a “flash in the pan.”

PRUSSIAN CARBINE

This flintlock carbine was used by Prussian infantry. Heavy cavalry during the Thirty Years’ War (1618-1648) carried matchlock carbines that were heavier and more powerful.

PRUSSIAN FLINTLOCK CARBINE, c. 1770

GERMAN WHIHL-LOCK PISTOL, c. 1590

WHEEL-LOCKS

The wheel-lock mechanism, invented in the early 16th century, did away with the need for a match (actually a slow-burning cord) to ignite the priming powder. Instead, as in a modern cigarette lighter, a revolving toothed wheel caused a spark when friction with a piece of iron pyrites. Wheel-locks appealed to cavalry since firing a matchlock while riding a horse was tricky. But the mechanism was expensive and rather delicate, making it unsuitable for widespread use in military firearms.

EARLY PISTOLS

An explosive percussion, wheel-lock pistols were often brightly decorated. To fire, the cock with the iron pyrites was pulled down against the spring wheel, which spun when the flint struck the trigger, firing sparks.

MUSKET AND BAYONET

The Long Land Pattern Musket was the standard British musket of the 18th century. A socket bayonet fitted on the end of the barrel (bayonets had metal plates embedded).

MUSKET FIRE

A similar weapon fire resulting weight, managing about three times a minute. Muskets were inaccurate—firing at any range over 100m (330ft), was pointless—but devastating at close range against advancing infantry.
THE AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

TAXATION

The Seven Years War (see pp.184-87), which ended with British victory in 1763, had cost Britain’s wealth and military power, and the colonists believed that this should be shared. However, since 1762 the colonies had developed a liberal society with little or no interference from London. They resented restrictions and their protest resulted in many taxes being withdrawn. They made a strong constitutional point that they should not pay British taxes without representation in the British Parliament.

VIOLENT RESISTANCE

In 1775 Boatschist dumped a cargo of tea in the harbour in protest against the tax, and the British closed down the port in retaliation. British troops then went on to quell insurrections in Lexington and Concord, where fighting began in earnest. The popular image of well-drilled British soldiers with muskets fighting, cannon-firing, country-wise frontiersmen is a simplification: the British did indeed advance with bayons fixed in an orderly line, and the Americans did employ light arms, but Washington’s aim — largely successful — was to create a professional army along European lines. To this end he hired a Pescatorial man.

THE FIRST SHOT

British forces, on a deliberate provocative mission to seize colonial arms, were attacked by a colonial militia — ‘The Massasoits’, as they were known among the Minutemen, or the Highlanders, or the men from Boston. They opened fire, killing three.

WAR AT SEA

In spite of Britain’s naval supremacy, the coastline of the Thirteen Colonies was so long, and itinerant that a successful blockade was impossible and the Americans were always able to land supplies. The colonies had a strong maritime tradition, and their lack of a war fleet was no disadvantage as Britain was unable to gain any benefit from its weight of numbers and firepower. In ships between individual ships, Americans like John Paul Jones on the Bonhomme Richard (1779) did well.

EUROPEAN SUPPORT

France and Spain came to the colony’s aid in the war against the British. How the French surprise a British boat on its way to the Cape Breton Islands, 1759.

ARMIES AND ALLIES

This was a civil war as well as a struggle for independence, and many Americans fought for Britain and King George. Some American Indians fought on both sides. The French, after their defeat in the Seven Years War, exploited the chance to retaliate against the British, although their military efforts were comparatively minor. German (or “Hessian”) mercenaries fought for the British, whose gun problems and supply problems often made them slow-moving and ineffective. George Washington’s army won at first uneventful and ill-disciplined, but after the winter ordeal at Valley Forge (1777-78) steadily improved.

VALLEY FORGE

General Washington visits Valley Forge, where 2,800 men died from cold and lack of food.

MORTAR

A muzzle-loading artillery weapon was in use since the 16th century (especially in siege), the mortar had a short, stubby barrel, the length of which was little more than twice in diameter, and fired a mortar in a high trajectory. It was particularly effective against “solid” targets, blowing a lower muffle section than an howitzer but a faster rate of fire. It was also lighter and more easily transported. This 23cm (13in) gun, in the form from 1760 to 1860, was the largest in the British service.

SPECIFICATION

Length: 1.9m
Caliber: 85m
Weight: 220kg

MERCENARIES

Britain’s Hessian troops, here on a siege platform, had little interest in the war for they were generally reliable. Some 20,000 Hessian fought alongside the British.

This model was probably used in a British effort.

INDEPENDENCE

Although there was no doubt as to who won the war, the military means were ambiguous, as was often the case in 18th-century wars. The comparative insignificance of cavalry and the scarcity of pitched battles contributed to military stalemate. While Americans shrank the old relationship with Britain, their leaders still respected British institutions, as their own form of constitution would demonstrate. But Britain the war had always been unpopular, and by the final battle at Yorktown in 1781 most British leaders were ready to accept the Declaration of Independence. With neither side able to command the resources to bring to total victory, hostilities ground to a halt gradually.

Assembly races to foreign

TELESCOPE

A ‘refracting glass’ (dichroic mirror in use to read the enemy’s flag or signal from a distance.

EMPIRES AND REVOLUTIONS

1790-1815

1763

1775

1787

1800

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BATTLES FOR INDEPENDENCE

FOR GEORGE WASHINGTON, the main aim of his under-funded Continental Army was simply to stay alive. He therefore avoided pitched battles as much as possible, assisted by the enemy’s slow movement and perhaps by the private sympathies of some British officers.

However, the British were discontented by American tactics, particularly those of Daniel Morgan’s Virginia riflemen, who were at Cowpens. The most significant battle was Saratoga, which encouraged French participation, and Yorktown, which ended the war.

MASSACHUSETTS

Lexington and Concord

At Lexington, where the first shot of the war (the “shot heard around the world”) at the April battle of Lexington and Concord, the British marched on Concord where they were then ambushed by the rebels. Largely young and inexperienced troops, the British were disorganized by the Americans’ guerrilla tactics, and after being routed they regrouped and fought a series of skirmishes during the Battle of Bunker Hill (Concord), which was won under siege.

Lexington Green

British major John Pitcairn gave the order to fire on the first day of the American revolution.

NEW JERSEY

Trenton and Princeton

New Jersey

The British held the initiative throughout the summer of 1776, but Washington, in command of the Continental Army since 1775, struck back at the end of the year. Gathering what troops he could, in just over a week, a deluge of encampment, two minor but victorious engagements, these, he captured Trenton and captured Hessian garrison, after crossing the ice-covered Delaware River on Christmas night. The Hessians were taken prisoner on the possession of badly needed supplies and were not to be a major threat to the Americans. At Princeton, coming after a series of American defeats, including the loss of New York, this double success, while relatively insignificant in military terms, helped to ensure the Americans’ flagging morale.

New Jersey

Saratoga

There were two engagements at Saratoga, one within a month of each. In June, Saratoga was a month after the Battle of Saratoga, and Washington was defeated at Trenton during the following campaign on a undisputedly against the British. This campaign went on simultaneously with another in the north where British General John Burgoyne, bearing Canada, entered into a joint New England attack on the lines of Hudson river. Here, along the banks of the Hudson river, the British were stopped by the American forces and Burgoyne suffered losses he could not afford. He fortified his position while the Americans built field fortifications further to the north. A mix of American reinforcements, and when the British turned attack, his line they were supported with more troops. The British lines had not been broken because Burgoyne had declined to reinforce Arnold who was relieved of command after the British survived a final attack but

EMPIRES AND REVOLUTIONS

BENEDICT ARNOLD

Benedict Arnold, considered a second-in-command, was one of the most talented American generals. He captivated Ticonderoga and his mouth into the British. He was born of war in a military class. Believing his ability was not recognized, he was planned to betray the Americans to the British. He was discovered, but he escaped and fought for the British. The above question is from a letter written to Washington in which he justifies his reason.

“Love my country attains my present conduct, however it may appear inconsistent to the world, who are not judge right of any man’s actions.”

“Battles for Independence.”

“Saratoga National Park. Today, a name comes alive. The Hudson river near the site of the American victory over the British in 1777, Saratoga became a national park in 1938.”

“American Revolution.”

“In an attempt to quell the rebellion, General Gage, the military governor of Massachusetts, sent a small force of British troops from Boston to Concord to seize rebel arms and munitions. In spite of its success, however, the rebels learned of the mission and the British were trapped.”

“Inspired of its name, the battle of Bunker Hill was actually fought on Breed’s Hill on the western side of the narrow inlet leading to the Charles River Basin.”

“Bunker Hill.”

“Charles River Basin. After the outbreak of hostilities at Lexington, Boston was besieged by rebel forces whose numbers were growing daily. Anticipating a British plan to capture the height north of the city, patriot leaders requested General George Washington send ordnance to Bunker Hill to train its gunners. The British, advancing, were stopped by the American fire. Bunker Hill was a costly battle for the British.”

“Bunker Hill.”

“Benedict Arnold, a contemporary American hero, under pressure elsewhere, decided to lead a contingent of American soldiers from Quebec to Ticonderoga in New York. He then teamed with British naval forces in Ticonderoga and his mouth into the British.”

“Benedict Arnold.”

“Benedict Arnold, second-in-command, was one of the most talented American generals. He captivated Ticonderoga and his mouth into the British.”

“Benedict Arnold.”
**Bonhomme Richard**

John Paul Jones was commissioned into the Continental Navy in 1776. In command of a makeshift squadron, he sailed to "liberate" the British in his flagship the Bonhomme Richard. Cruising south through the North Sea, they encountered a Baltic convoy escorted by HMS Serapis, commanded by Captain Porson. Porson held off the squadron while the two admirals negotiated. The British fired on the Bonhomme Richard as it tried to escape. With the British flag flying, the Bonhomme Richard began to take on water after firing 750 rounds.

**Dull at Sea**

In the most famous naval duel of the war, Bonhomme Richard and Brigs fought to a r Capture Ship.
FRANCE: REVOLUTION TO EMPIRE

IN 1789 IN FRANCE, the demands of commoners for political rights and an end to noble privilege erupted into full-scale revolution. By 1792 France had been declared a republic, which it remained until 1804, when Napoleon was crowned emperor. The revolution ignited a series of wars, which were both an ideological conflict between the revolution and its enemies and a continuation of the power struggle between European states.

CITIZEN ARMY

The dominance achieved by the French army in this period was rooted in the pre-revolutionary era. A royal war council, the Conseil de Guerre, envisaged a “citizen army” that would fight decisive combined-arms campaigns based on mobility and aggression, and the royal army's Inspector of artillery, Jean-Baptiste de Gribeauval, endowed France with mobile and accurate cannon commanded by trained artillery officers, including Napoleon Bonaparte. The most radical period of the revolution, from 1792 to 1794, made a citizen army a reality. The Constitution of June 1793 declared, “All Frenchmen shall be soldiers; all shall be trained to arms.” The following August 300,000 troops were raised by conscription, but it was declared the duty of every citizen to participate in the war effort.

INSTRUMENT OF POWER

Conscripts, revolutionary volunteers, and the old royal army were amalgamated into mass armies supplied by a rapidly expanding state arms industry. Extreme revolutionary gestures such as the election of officers were soon abandoned in favor of formal discipline and hierarchy, but revolutionary and patriotic enthusiasm distinguished French troops from their enemies. Men of all social backgrounds were able to win rapid promotion on merit. This was the context for the rise of Napoleon, who turned the French army into a formidable agent of personal ambition. Creating self-contained combined-arms formations, he followed an offensive strategy, pushing out and attacking the enemy in pursuit of victory.

1798-1815

NAPOLEON BONAPARTE

Born in Corsica, Napoleon was an artillery officer whose tradition to suppress street disturbances in Paris in 1795 earned him command of an army. His military successes gave him the chance to seize political power, culminating in the coup d'etat of 18 Brumaire in 1804. Napoleon won 37 major battles. A natural gambler, he even attempted a return to power from exile on Elba in 1815. Defeated at Waterloo, he lost his empire on the Spanish island of St. Helena, where he died.

MARSchal OF FRANCE

Bonaparte, one of Napoleon's 28 marshals, was a wide-ranging expert in the conduct of the French revolutionary wars.

SHOCK TACTICS

Napoleon's large armies moved swiftly by forced marches, living off the country. When battle was joined, success often depended on superior maneuver--for example, destroying a weaker part of the enemy's army and then turning with full force on the now unprepared remainder. Napoleon's ruthless aggressive application of power on the battlefield--the cannonade by heavy artillery, the infantry attack in dense columns, the mass cavalry charge--forced enemy rates were high on both sides. At the battle of Borodino in 1812 there were 74,000 casualties in one day. Napoleon saw no need to conserve manpower; fighting more could always be raised by conscription.

FRENCH DEFEAT

Britain, France's most consistent enemy, remained dormant at sea throughout the Napoleonic wars, winning the fierce and costly warship battles. On land, Napoleon suffered a steady drain on his resources in the Peninsular War, where he faced Spanish guerrillas and British intervention. He retreated himself to the Russian advance across Russia and the retreat from Moscow destroyed his experienced army. Learning from the French, other states emulated their forces--though only the Prussians began conscription--and improved their tactics. Weaker as brilliant as Napoleon, they nevertheless became increasingly capable of taking the French on and finally wear them out. The French monarchy was restored in 1814, and Napoleon's despair gamble at Waterloo the following year was a doomed effort.

BRASS CANNON

Napoleon used the pan shots. A usual calibre weapon was a not a support weapon. One in his armies once commented, "I have made use of the as it would useless."
FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY WARS

The wars between France and a varying coalition of European powers began in 1793 as a reaction to an invasion intended to restore the authority of the French monarchy, but evolved into a crusade to spread the principles of the Revolution. A by-product of this was an aggressive expansion of France's borders. From 1793, under the inspired direction of Laurens Carnot, the hundreds of thousands of new recruits raised by mass recruitment in the landes were marauded with old regulations to form a national army full of revolutionary enthusiasm. In 1794, Bonaparte they found a general of genius to lead them. But the limit to French power remained the sea, where Britain was dominant.

Fleury
From the autumn of 1793 the French revolutionaries regarded the invasion in their gallows against the coalition of foreign powers and against Royalists. In the French Senate, General Jourdan laid siege to the Belgian city of Charleroi and British forces, plus a strengthening of British, under the Prince of Orange Colberg, and several other forces. The British, having been defeated, were later driven out of Belgium at Dunkirk by 20 June. Soon after, French further columns, those on the left and right, drove back the British to the walls of a fortress of the line. Jourdan, however, had defeated the British at the battle of the heights of Valmy, a victory over the British at the battle of Valmy, hailed as a great victory and the triumph of the Revolution.

Valmy
In April 1793 France declared war on Britain and the Prussian, Austrian, Hanover, and Dutch republics advanced into France in August. The Prussian commander, the Duke of Brunswick, marched on Paris. Two French armies were commanded by Charles Dumouriez and François-Charles Kellermann, the choice of the French Republic, who chose to turn to engage the French, fearing to combine the advance with cavalry attacks across lines of communication. Brunswick's army met French forces under Kellermann, drawn up on the heights of Valmy. Subject to heavy artillery fire, the French soldiers stood firm. When the coalition infantry advanced, it was the turn of the French artillery to show its effectiveness in breaking up the blow. As Brunswick had decided that, since the French were not going to run away, the best course was to withdraw while his forces, already demoralized by French, still retained some effect. Although more a little retreat than a defeat, Valmy was hailed as a great victory and the triumph of the Revolution.

Jeanpont
In 1793, however, the newly formed French army advanced into the Austrian Netherlands. Shortly, when he came upon Austrian army led by the Duke of Brunswick at Jemappes, outside Mons. The Austrian army was heavily outnumbered but had better defensive positions. The battle began with a three-hour French artillery barrage that had little effect. Dumouriez then launched a series of frontal attacks, but the fire of Austrian guns and French Jagers armed with rifles, as well as cavalry counterattacks, repeatedly drove back the French. The Austrians were eventually driven from the field and pursued back to the former, by the end of the year the French had occupied the Austrian Netherlands.

Toulon
During the XYZ Affair, the French government, under Napoleon Bonaparte, declared war on Britain in 1793. The French force was defeated at the battle of Toulon by the British, and the French government was forced to capitate the city.

Napoleon at the Siege
Napoleon's invasion was made at the siege of Toulon. He was promoted from captain to brigadier-general in five months, exposing the enemy to artillery fire. The French took Port Meditera, the largest port of the city, on 17 December. As Napoleon had predicted, the following day he was ordered to evacuate and pull out his fleet.

I have no words to describe Buonaparte's merit: much technical skill, an equal degree of intelligence, and too sensibility for garrisons.

French officer Jacques Dumontier, reporting on the siege of Toulon, 1793

Air Warfare
The French established the world's first air force, the Compagnie d'Aéronautique, in 1774 and 1794. Hydrogen balloons, the Montgolfierr, was deployed at Montgolfier on 5 June 1774, and after success at Florian, the first balloon went into service. Napoleon did not take to the idea of aerial warfare, and the company was disbanded in 1799.

Arcle
Appointed commander of the French Army of Italy in 1796, Napoleon Bonaparte vowed to reform the army. He declared that all Frenchmen were soldiers, and the French were to be trained to fight for their country. Napoleon followed a large siege of the town of Mantua, while the Austrian army met at Mantua. There followed a large siege of the town of Arcole. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge. The French Army was decisively defeated by the Austrian Army led by Jean-Charles Davoust and the proclamation of the Alps and Arcole ridge.

Bridge Crossing
How images such as the one of Napoleon crossing the Arcole came to propaganda to match Napoleon's personal propaganda.

On the 17th, however, French flotkling moves continued Austry that he was threatened with encirclement and he retreated. Napoleon went on to sue the Austrians at Kaisers in January 1797, forcing Austria to sign the Peace of Campo Formio later that year.

The roar was like heavy thunder, and the ship reeled and shook as if she was inclined to fall in pieces. I felt a choking sensation from the smell and smoke of gunpowder.

Ship of Bones
Picture of a ship from the French revolutionary war, named the ship, the HMS Egnatas, out of bones. Horatio Nelson blocked the escape of the larger body of Spanish ships at one point engaging seven of them at the Battle of Trafalgar. Four Spanish ships were captured, two of them by Nelson, and a number of other ships suffered serious damage. The surviving Spanish ships were blocked in place; plans for an invasion of Britain were scuttled.

The Cape St Vincent
In 1790, Spain allied itself with France. The combined strength of the French and Spanish fleets threatened to end British naval superiority and open the way for an invasion of Britain. The British Mediterranean fleet under Admiral Sir John Jernyn was given the task of preventing the Spanish sailing to join French fleet. On the morning of 14 February, 1797, a joint British and French fleet was sighted off the coast of Spain, under Admiral José de Córdoba of Cape St Vincent. Despite having numerically inferior forces, the British sailed to attack, and were able to destroy the Spanish fleet in two Commodore.
NAPOLEON TAKES OVER
In 1798 Napoleon Bonaparte embarked on a campaign in Egypt that brought him more military glory but was strategically ignited by the strength of British seapower. Returning to France in the autumn of 1799, he seized power in a coup d’état. By then France had suffered a number of reverses at the hands of the Second Coalition formed by Russia, Britain, Austria, and the Ottoman empire, and in Italy Russian General Suvorov had all but driven out the French forces. Russia withdrew from the war, however, and Napoleon reversed the situation with victory at Marengo. By 1802 Napoleon had Hodgson's armies into accepting peace largely on his terms, and by the time the war resumed in 1805 he had been crowned emperor of the French.

THE EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN
Pyramids

On 2 July 1798 Napoleon landed at Alexandria, his army the largest French military force to go to war. Napoleon's invasion of Egypt marked the beginning of a series of events that would lead to his downfall. When the British arrived in Egypt, the French were unprepared to counter them. On 27 July, the French were forced to retreat from the city of Alexandria.

DEFEAT OF THE MAMLUKSES
Raised by the Pharaohs and descendants of the Israelites, the Mamluk army was renowned for its military strength. In April 1798, Napoleon's army defeated the Mamluk forces at the Battle of the Pyramids, marking the end of their power.

THE EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN
Nicé (Aboukir Bay)

In July 1798, Napoleon's forces were beaten at the Battle of Aboukir Bay. The French fleet, under Admiral Bruey, was defeated by a British fleet under Admiral Hawe. Hawe's victory was significant, as it prevented Napoleon from advancing further into the Mediterranean.

MAURICE SWORD
The fall of the French empire was marked by the fall of theica's sword during the revolution of 1848. The French revolutionary movement was able to overthrow the Bourbon monarchy and establish the First Republic.

THE EGYPTIAN CAMPAIGN
Aboukir

Napoleon's army was defeated at the Battle of Aboukir Bay, which marked the end of his campaign in Egypt. The victory was significant for the British, as it prevented Napoleon from advancing further into the Mediterranean.

THE ITALIAN CAMPAIGN
Marengo

In May 1800, Napoleon's army was defeated at the Battle of Marengo. The French army, led by Napoleon himself, was defeated by the Austrian army, led by Archduke Charles. The battle was fought near the town of Marengo, and the French army was decisively defeated.

IDEAL HERO
Ridicule Napoleon as a fool. The comic strip format is typical of José-Louis Davi, one of Napoleon's many portraitists.

MOUNTAIN PASS
The battle of Aboukir was won at sea and in land when the French army of Napoleonic rose to May 1800.

By 1805, when the Third Coalition of Britain, Austria, Russia, and Sweden was formed to fight France, Napoleon had created the impressive Grande Armée. More than 500,000 men were organized in seven corps, each commanded by a marshal. Additionally, it faced major offensives throughout northern Italy, south-western Germany, northern Italy, and France. Through September General Mack surrendered the important of his forces in a meeting afield of Napoleon's army, and the battle of Ulm is considered one of the most significant of the Napoleonic Wars.

THE DANISH CAMPAIGN
Copenhagen

In February 1801, Denmark, Russia, Sweden, and Prussia formed an armed neutrality league in reaction to British searches of neutral shipping. Britain met this challenge by sending a fleet to the Baltic Sea to attack the Danish capital under Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, who led his squadron to 12 ships of the line to sail into the Baltic. However, the British squadron was engaged in a defensive line of armed vessels, from Denmark's fortified line of Danish vessels. The battle was fought on 10 September, and Napoleon's forces were victorious.

SURRENDER TO THE SUNDER
After the Austrian surrender to Napoleon, Ulm, Iodart bent, an Austrian commander, was taken to Colmar on 10 September. Napoleon proclaimed, with good reason, "Never has a victory been so complete and so costly."
Austerlitz

Emperor Napoleon meets with his Austrian allies at the Battle of Austerlitz. The French and Austrians combine to defeat the Russian and Austrian forces led by the Austrian Emperor Francis II. The French win a decisive victory, with Emperor Napoleon emerging as one of the greatest military leaders in history.

IMPERIAL EAGLE

Napoleon's empire was expanded by the victory at the battle of Austerlitz. The French Emperor's military genius is showcased in this painting of the battle.

CAVALRY CHARGE

The cavalry charge of the French Imperial Guard is shown here. The charge is a key moment in the battle of Austerlitz, as the French cavalry charges to break the enemy's line.

"I was... under fierce and continuous canister fire... Many soldiers, now incessantly engaged in battle from 7am to 4pm, had no cartridges left. I could do nothing but retreat..."

Russian lieutenant general Przhevlensky's official report on Austerlitz, 1805

Soult, to lead his corps up onto the Prussian Heights. They emerged from the southern end of the village of Stavelot, achieving complete surprise. Each battery of the Imperial Guard was held by a small group of cavalry. One of Soult's groups moved in front of the French line to divide it, while another group charged the French line to drive them back to the bridges. Soult then was able to send his men into the rear of the enemy forces, which were already in retreat. The French then advanced, driving the enemy forces back into the village.
FRENCH SUPREMACY
THE STRENGTHS OF THE FRENCH ARMY and Napoleon's military genius enabled France to achieve an extraordinary dominance over Europe. The victories at Ulm and Austerlitz in 1805 were followed by the destruction of the Prussian and Russian armies in 1806-07 and another feat for Austria in 1809. Napoleon reorganized European borders and political life at will. Only Britain remained unsubdued; in summer 1805 Napoleon had planned an invasion, but after the British naval victory at Trafalgar this project was never revived. Instead, France attempted to impose an economic blockade through the Continental System, burning trade between Europe and Britain. French attempts to make all countries conform to this blockade were to lead to the next round of fighting.

1798-1805

LORD NELSON
Trafalgar
In October 1805 French Admiral Villeneuve, commanding a Franco-Spanish fleet of Cadiz, was called to the Mediterranean. A British fleet commanded by Lord Nelson was waiting outside the port. Nelson planned to sail his ships to windward and attack the columns perpendicular to the Franco-Spanish line, cutting it in the centre.

EXCHANGE OF BROADSides
Participants in the battle of Trafalgar described the excitement and spellbinding spectacle, such as downwinders and burners.

1806

Jena/Auerstedt
In late 1806 Napoleon concentrated almost his entire Grande Armée against the Prussians, coming off the Prussian army from Berlin. On 13 October a corps commanded by Lannes met a large Prussian force at Jena. Believing this to be the main army, Napoleon sent the bulk of his forces to join Lannes, while Berthadine and Davout were ordered to extricate the Prussians in the north. In fact, the Prussian forces at Jena were the small part of their army, commanded by Prince Hohenlohe. The main army under the Duke of Brunswick was further north at Auerstedt. The battle at Jena began with the French striking while still moving up their forces and Hohenlohe desperately awaiting reinforcements. The Prussians were decimated as they stood on the battlefield in virtual parade order. Given the French superiority of numbers, their eventual victory was assured. At Auerstedt, however, Davout found himself facing the bulk of the Prussian army, while Berthadine wondered between the two battlefields. Davout fought a superb defensive battle. Brunswick was killed early, leaving Prussian king William II in command. When Davout began to pull back on the left, Davout ordered a retreat that would turn into a rout. Over the following days the Prussians were steadily pursued by French cavalry. By 26 October, the Prussians were so battered that they fled under Ney's arrival, Russian columns, and British cavalry. Although he had certainly not been defeated, he saw the end of the French victory at Friedland the following June that the Russians were crushed forcing Emperor Alexander to see for peace.

TheBritishdefeatedthePrussians,underNey'sarrival,Russian columns, and British cavalry. Although he had certainly not been defeated, he saw the end of the French victory at Friedland the following June. The Prussians were crushed forcing Emperor Alexander to see for peace.

The Prussian defeat at Jena/Auerstedt left the Russians to bear the brunt of Napoleon's aggression. The French pursued the Russians and entire Prussian remnants into Poland. In February the French and Russians met in a battle at Eylau, both sides calling in reinforcements. In a night battle, the French came close to victory when Antoine's corps, making a frontal attack on the Russian centre directly hit the line of a 75-guns battery, was repulsed with massive casualties. More than 3,000 French cavalry, which were through the Russian infantry and overwhelmed the cannon. When Ney arrived, Russian columns began to approach, although he had certainly not been defeated, he saw the end of the French victory at Friedland the following June.
SHIP OF THE LINE

ITS ROLE AS HORATIO NELSON'S FLAGSHIP AT THE BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR MADE HMS VICTORY ONE OF THE MOST FAMOUS WARSHIPS OF ITS TIME.

Serving from 1778 to 1812, HMS Victory was one of the largest ships in the British fleet at the time of the Napoleonic wars. She was launched from Chatham dockyard in Kent in 1756, but it was another 13 years before her commission as the flagship of Admiral Augustus Keppel in the war against France. In 1778 and again in 1781 Victory led inconclusive actions near the island of Ouessant, off the coast of Brittany, northwest France. In 1793, during Britain's war with revolutionary France, she became the Royal Navy's flagship in the Mediterranean, leading the British destruction of the Spanish fleet at Cape St. Vincent, Portugal. Considered too old after this triumph, Victory sailed home to serve as a prison hospital ship, but her front hour was yet to come: in 1798 she was recommissioned as Admiral Horatio Nelson's flagship. Two years later, at the battle of Trafalgar, she brought Nelson's successful attempt to break the French line off Cadiz, Spain, although many of her crew -- including Nelson himself, who died in the ship's cockpit -- fell to French sniper fire.

ARCHETYPAL WARSHIP

Victory was a typical example of a three-decked warship, the most powerful and prestigious vessels of the day. Made chiefly of oak, around 6,000 tons were needed for its construction, the British dockyards being some of the world's largest industrial enterprises. The ship was an expensive piece of military hardware, costing an estimated £20 million in today's money to build. Firing broadsides of solid shot from around 50 guns, Victory might use up hundreds of barrels of gunpowder in an engagement; a skilled crew could get a shot off every minute or two. Warships like Victory continued to dominate naval warfare until the second half of the 19th century, when the introduction of steam-driven, ironclad battleships, firing exploding shells from revolving turrets, revolutionised naval warfare.

UNDER FIRE

The Victory at Trafalgar.

The most feared of all naval ships, Victory's wooden structure was divided into eight decks and carried 74 guns. Its bow was protected by a thick iron plating. The ship was a fearsome sight, its masts towering above the waves, its sails billowing in the wind. The deck was a maze of cannon, guns pointing in every direction, ready to fire at any moment. The crew worked tirelessly, loading gunpowder and projectiles into the gun barrels. The captain's cabin was located on the upper deck, a luxurious retreat in the midst of the chaos. The ship was a testament to the power of the British Navy.

ANKERS AND GUNS

Victory had seven anchors. The nearest weighed 42 tonnes, and the farthest 20.6 tonnes.

STERN

Fire hoses were hanged in the captain's quarters and other cabinets. Victory's stern was less decorated than the earlier ships of its type.

SICK BAY

Forward of the upper deck, the sick had had good lighting and ventilation. The food was served in two shifts.

GUN LOCK

Under the gun deck there was a lock to ensure that the powder could not go to waste. The gunpowder was stored in a separate room.

POWDER HORN

Each gun had its own powder horn to contain the gunpowder. The powder was ignited with a match or a paper wick.

GUNDENK

The masts of the ship were made of oak, and the ship was painted in a dark colour to blend in with the surroundings. The ship was a sight to behold. A large, sleek, and powerful ship, it was the pride of the British Navy. It was the ship that Horatio Nelson sailed in during the Battle of Trafalgar, and it was a ship that would go down in history as one of the greatest warships of all time.
THE PENINSULAR WAR

In 1807 France and its Spanish allies invaded Portugal to close a breach in the Continental System by which Napoleon hoped to block Britain’s trade with Europe. Then, in May 1808, the French emperor placed his brother Joseph Bonaparte on the Spanish throne. These two events sparked a war that became an ulcer draining the strength of Napoleonic France. After brutally

repressing a popular uprising in Madrid, the French faced a nationwide Spanish insurrection that turned into a guerrilla war, fought without quarter on both sides. Spain, meanwhile, keen to protect its trading interests, landed forces in Portugal. Led by Arthur Wellesley, the future Duke of Wellington, they were to drive the French out of the Iberian peninsula.
WEAPONS OF THE NAPOLEONIC ERA

PISTOLS AND CARBINES

Although flintlock muskets were the dominant firearm of the Napoleonic wars, pistols and carbines—shorter and lighter than muskets—had their place. Captain Alexander Mercer, a British artillery officer at the battle of Waterloo (see p.215), described how the French sent out "a cloud of skirmishers, who galloped terror by a fire of carbines and pistols at scarcely 40 yards from our front." Many cavalrymen went into battle with two loaded pistols, but these were only emergency backup for their principal weapon, the sword. In contrast, dragons (cavalry who often fought dismounted) typically regarded the carbine as their main arm.

MUSKETS AND RIFLES

The massed infantry in Napoleonic battles were armed with flintlock muskets. Standing in lines two or three ranks deep, with ranks firing alternately, they could unleash four volleys in the time it took an attacking column to cover the last 75m (250ft) of its advance.

Rifles, firearms with grooved barrels invented in the 16th century, were still the weapons of specialist regiments of sharpshooters.

SWORDS DRAWN

At Waterloo, dozens of British cavalry were struck from the field by Napoleon's lancers while the outnumbered British cavalry, in the foreground, prepared to launch a charging counter-charge.

EDGED WEAPONS

The Napoleonic wars were the last major conflict in which swords played a significant role. They were not used for fighting on foot, but remained the weapon of choice for the cavalry charge—except for specialist light cavalry regiments armed with poniards (or daggers) topped lances. Swords were highly effective against other cavalry and against infantry who were scattered or in flight, but they posed no threat to a tight infantry square bristling with bayonets.
NAPOLEON VANQUISHED

IN THE SPRING of 1812 Napoleon assembled an army of 614,000 men for an invasion of Russia, which had deserted his Continental System. The force included Austrians, Prussians, Poles, Italians, Swiss, and Danes—only a minority were French. Supported by a vast supply of 25,000 vehicles, the army advanced into Russia on 4 June, spread across a 480 km (300-mile) front. Achieving coherent command over this vast area, with all armies carried on bouchers, proved impossible, and supply problems mounted inexorably as the Russians fell back towards Moscow. After the battle of Borodino the French occupied Moscow, but the Russians’ refusal to surrender led to a nightmare winter retreat from which Napoleon never recovered.

THE RETREAT FROM MOSCOW

Berezina River

Crowd of poor wretches who were trying to cross the bridge were seen to fall into the stream and be sucked under the masses of ice.

The roads were like glass. The horses fell down and could not get up. Our rear guard soldiers no longer had strength to their arms. The barrels of their muskets were so cold that they stuck to their hands... The men fell frozen still all along the road... One must have seen these horrors in order to believe them!

IN THE SPRING of 1813 Napoleon assembled an army of 100,000 men for an invasion of France—Platé lost its capacity, but only 100,000 would respond to the French campaign to crush the Prussians and Austrians. After the battle of Lützen, the Allies’ numerical strength began to fall. Blücher defeated Napoleon at Laun on 9th and Schwarzenberg lost his life at Bautzen on 20th. In a last gamble, Napoleon manoeuvred to cut off the Allies, hoping to force them away from Paris. But the Allies simply ignored him and advanced to the French capital, which surrendered on 30 March. Napoleon still wanted to fight on, but his marshals refused. On 6 April the empire disintegrated, setting the Mediterranean island of Elba. The monarchy was restored in the person of Louis XVIII.

THE DEFENCE OF FRANCE

Leipzig

The city of Leipzig, Saxony, Germany

Napoleon’s Russian disaster encouraged Prussians, Swedes, and Austrians to ally against him in 1813. Although France had rebuffed in arms with fresh conscripts, these were now thoroughly outnumbered. After an indecisive campaign in Germany, Napoleon took up a defensive position on the plain around Leipzig on 14 October. The Austrian army was the first to attack him on 16 October. By 16 October the Prussians, Russians, and Swedes had also arrived. Suffering heavy casualties, Napoleon embarked on a Plan B withdrawal across the single bridge over the River Elbe. On the morning of the 19th, French engineers blew up the bridge, leaving 12,000 men on the wrong side. Some drowned attempting to cross the river; most were taken prisoners.

ALLIED VICTORY

The battle of Leipzig, also known as the battle of the Nations, was the largest battle fought in Europe before 1914.

THE NAPOLEON VERSUS ALLIES

Breastplate

The men in arms of a French heavy cavalryman is Winston Churchill’s

The Allies offered a compromise peace, but Napoleon insisted on fighting to the end. Thus, during March, the Allies’ numerical strength began to fall. Blücher defeated Napoleon at Laun on the 9th and Schwarzenberg lost his life at Bautzen on 20th. In a last gamble, Napoleon manoeuvred to cut off the Allies, hoping to force them away from Paris. But the Allies simply ignored him and advanced to the French capital, which surrendered on 30 March. Napoleon still wanted to fight on, but his marshals refused. On 6 April the empire disintegrated, setting the Mediterranean island of Elba. The monarchy was restored in the person of Louis XVIII.

FIGHTING ON

Napoleon had his staff in the defence of France. His eldest son was also in the Allies’ imperial ranks and thecohension of the French people.
NAPOLEON’S FINAL DEFEAT

In 1815 Napoleon left Elba and returned to France, landing at Cannes with an army of 1,100 men and four canoons. Resentment at the country’s continued neutrality led all the troops sent by King Louis XVIII to oppose Napoleon to join him instead, and he entered Paris on 20 March without a shot fired. The Allies—chiefly Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia—declared the former emperor an outlaw and prepared to repeat the invasion of 1814. Assembling an army of loyal veterans and young volunteers, Napoleon gambled on an offensive against British and Prussian forces in Belgium before the Austrians or Russians could arrive. The end to the “Hundred Days” of his last bid for power was brief, however; there were three battles in three days.

THE SHOTIFIED DAYS

Ligny

Advancing from Paris to致力 towards the Allies, on 13 June Napoleon crossed the Belgian border and occupied Charleroi. In front of him were two Allied armies: the Prussians, led by Blücher, and a French, German, Belgian, and Dutch force under Wellington. Together they outnumbered the French two to one, but Napoleon intended to take them on one at a time. On 16 June he advanced to attack Blücher with his main force, while sending Marshal Ney to take Quatre-Bras between the two enemy armies. Blücher drew up his forces along a ridge on each side of the village of Ligny. At 2:30pm the French attacked. Napoleon wanted to envelop the Prussians, but his plan failed on the arrival of the Count d’Erlon’s corps, D’Erlon, however, received counter-orders from Ney (see below), and arrived at Ligny late in the day from an unexpected direction, thereby confusing the French soldiers who thought they were Prussian reinforcements. It was 8pm before Napoleon threw forward his Imperial Guard to break the bottleneck Prussian line. Blücher was unprepared leading a cavalry countercharge and the Prussians withdrew under cover of darkness. Although defeated, they had not been crushed—a disaster that was to return on Napoleon at Waterloo two days later.

ORDERING THE TRUMPS

Quatre-Bras

Napoleon did not realize the British had not crossed at Quatre-Bras because he saw it as a major event which the allies of Blücher and Wellington could join up—French control would prevent the British-led forces coming to the Prussian’s assistance. However, the Prince of Orange commanding one of Wellington’s corps, had recognized the time-striking importance of taking the crossroads. On 16 June, the prince’s 5,000 Dutch troops were holding Quatre-Bras when Marshal Ney approached with a force of 24,000. The charge of Napoleon was Ney’s delay in smoking for wanted and 1:30pm before delivering a determined attack, which time Wellington was receiving with astonishment. Ney had hoped for support from 20,000 men under the Count of Ligne.

SMOKE OF BATTLE

In the operation, the battlefield—allowing Blücher at Quatre-Bras—was partially shadowed by smoke and as such was opened.

INFANTRY AIDS

The aides were sent to assure British of support by General de Ligne, who was supposed to open the attack. It was the noise which struck the French, and they recoiled. Napoleon ordered the cavalry to charge, which was delayed. Wellington, while passing the attack, had orders for the British to charge, and that the French to retreat. The French charge was delayed, and the battle was lost. Wellington ordered his forces to retreat, and the French followed.

THE HUNDRED DAYS

Waterloo

Napoleon marched the Angle-Dutch army to Mont St Jean, just south of the village of Waterloo. It was here that Wellington decided to fight. He took up a defensive position along a ridge, with most of his forces on the reverse slope for protection against artillery. He also manned two strongpoints, the chateau of Hougoumont on the right and the farm of La Haye Sainte in the center. The French were in position to attack at dawn, but they delayed. After an hour of this the French infantry charged and through shattering artillery fire managed to get on to the reverse slope, and finally hauled back by a cavalry charge. By then the Prussian infantry—the only aid by Napoleon’s delay in opening the attack—had arrived on the French.

“The day the troops were followed by a fall of men and horses like grass before the mower’s scythe.”

Captain Alexander More, Journal of the Waterloo Campaign, 1815

1799-1832

DUKE OF WELLINGTON

Irish-born Arthur Wellesley was a brilliant general whose conduct in the Peninsular campaign made him a British national hero. He attributed his success always to being "on the spot" and "doing nothing for nobody." Although he never took unnecessary risks, he was a visible presence at the British lines throughout the battle of Waterloo.
WARS IN THE AMERICAS
IN THE 50 YEARS FOLLOWING THE AMERICAN WAR OF INDEPENDENCE, THE OLD COLONIAL MASTERS WERE BANISHED FROM EVERYWHERE IN THE AMERICAS BAR CANADA AND THE CARIBBEAN. THEREAFTER, STRUGGLES OVER INTERNAL CONTROL AND DISPUTES WITH NEIGHBOURS LED TO CONFLICTS RIGHT ACROSS THE NEW AMERICAN COUNTRIES.

THE AMERICAS VERSUS EUROPE
Inspired by both the North American and the French revolution, the emerging nations of Central and South America took advantage of Spain and Portugal's weakening military might to win their independence. After war against the British in 1812, the US cemented its raison d'être, confidently asserting in the Monroe Doctrine in right to intervene wherever it chose. The US seized half of Mexico, drove the Spanish out of Cuba and cleared the American Indians from productive land to become the “Colossus of the North”. Despite the loss of most of their colonies, European powers continued to intervene in the Americas, but they would be increasingly excluded by the US, which saw it as its “manifest destiny” to dominate the New World.

CAPITAL BURNS
In 1814 Washington DC was taken by British forces under Major General Desoto. Many buildings, including the White House, were set alight.

CIVIL WAR AND REVOLUTION
With the exception of Haiti, where the French were overthrown following a slave revolt in 1791, the resolutions of independence in the Americas were won by the countries’ elites as the European powers lost their major colonies. This did not always solve questions of internal control, however, as far the largest conflict – the American Civil War – showed. While the US united and gained in power, Latin America to the south remained weak and divided, no more so than in Mexico, where the overthrow of President Porfirio Diaz in 1911 initiated a bloody, decade-long revolution. The US played a major role in the conflict, supporting the metropolitan leaders against the rural guerrillas, and the merchant classes once more swept through.

MEXICAN REVOLUTIONARIES
Breeding with aliens, northern guerrillas under Francisco “Puebla” Villa initially pose with his men for the camera.

Amercian Fights Britain
IN 1812, PRESIDENT MADISON Declared war on Britain’s high-handed pillaging of the seas, a move that played well with US expansionists who sought the annexation of Canada. Initially the Americans traded profit, but the end of the Napoleonic Wars in Europe freed up British reinforcements who blocked the coast and burnt down public buildings in Washington DC. With neither side able to force a victory, the peace treaty of 1814 restored the pre-war status quo and the US forever relinquished its designs on Canada.

African War
Lake Eric
Control of Lake Eric was key to keeping supply lines to the US-controlled Northern Territory open. For nine months the British held both the shores of the lake, but a ferocious battle for the town of Lake Itandje destroyed the British. MacDonald Osborn Perry gathered together his crews, many of them native soldiers, and the British were never again engaged. The British fleet, under the command of Captain William Borda near Pait-on-Bay, Ohio, after an unsuccessful attempt to break up Lake Erie, could not sail east in Russia, leading to the capture of the British fleet and the end of the war.

New Orleans
After the war officially ended with the signing of the Treaty of Ghent in Belgium, the news was still filtering to the Americas. Thinking the war was still at war, British Admiral Alexander Cochrane was keen to push and capture New Orleans from the Americans.ith a flotilla of more than 50 ships to transport the men of the American General Andrew Jackson. "Old Hickory" to his men, had arrived in late autumn 1814 to defend the city. In December, the British ships had penetrated to within a day’s march of the city when they received reinforcements. Jackson used this time well, reinforcing the South Carolina where he erected fortified camps protected on the right by the Mississippi river and on the left by an impenetrable swamp. The fresh troops finally arrived during the time week of January and assembled under the command of Sir Edward Pakenham, confident that they could break Jackson's seemingly thin defenses. Pakenham decided to attack at dawn to take advantage of early morning fog, but his forces on the west bank were delayed and the main columns had to advance across open fields with no cover. To make matters worse, they forgot their ladders, although these were supplied later. The battle went after the us after the US army, still consisting of both volunteers and militia.

Victory Drum
This US army song of 1814 depicts the rapid advances, being the best known of the American victory songs.
The Indians were divided, one party charging right into the camp. After driving these soldiers across the river, the Sioux changed (Custer's) soldiers below, and drove into them; these soldiers became foolish, many throwing away their guns and raising their hands, saying, "Sioux, pity us; take no prisoners."
WAR IN SOUTH AMERICA

The 19th century began with Spain in possession of most of South America. Less than 30 years later, after a series of wars of liberation, the Spanish had been completely driven out by the continent’s emerging nations. Sadly, the newly independent countries bore Simón Bolívar’s dream of South American unity and soon began to turn on each other in an often bloody struggle for territory and power.

LIBERATION
The wars of liberation fought between 1810 and 1826 resulted in the liberation of the Americas from Spanish rule. The first war of liberation was against the Spanish crown in 1810, followed by the Barrios War of 1811 and the Bolivarian War of Independence, which began in 1819.

INDEPENDENCE IN NEW GRANADA

Boyacá

DATE: 8 August 1819

LOCATION: Québec, Colombia

Forces: 10,000 Spanish

After the declaration of Argentine independence in 1816, José de San Martín, the leader of the independence movement in the south, turned his attention to the liberation of Chile. In January 1817, San Martín and Bernardo O’Higgins, the Chilean liberation leader, led a force of 4,000 troops on a 20-day trek across the Andes, during which about 2,000 men froze to death from the cold and high altitude. Despite these heavy losses, San Martín was able to surprise the rector, whose Spanish general Rafael Maroto could muster only 1,000 men to confront the advancing army. By midday on 11 February Maroto’s forces had come together at Chacabuco, just north of Santiago, and San Martín resolved to attack at dawn the next day.

PLAINT OF VICTORY

San Martín wrote: “We have destroyed the imaginary forces, scattered the mottled masses, held the banner of freedom, and laid the foundations of the new empire that we are building.”

INDEPENDENCE IN NEW GRANADA

Bolívar, known as “The Liberator,” was born in Caracas to aristocratic stock. While in Europe, he studied the idea of the Enlightenment convinced him of the need for Latin American liberation. On his return home in 1821, he assured the leadership of the revolution, subsequently becoming president of Colombia and Peru.

Under instructions from the new liberal government in Spain, General Pablo Morillo signed an armistice with Bolívar in November 1820. Bolívar, however, broke the terms by attacking the royalist garrisons at Lake Maracaibo and the two sides confronted each other on the plains of Carabobo under the command of General Miguel de la Torre, who was surprised and defeated by Bolívar’s army.

Bolívar sent a column of fanatical (patriots) and British volunteers to strike the enemy from the rear, while the cavalry attacked the center. There were heavy losses on both sides, including many rebel officers, but the royalist army was crushed. Bolívar declared that the victory marked the birth of the republic of Colombia.

BRAZIL, URUGUAY, AND URUGUAYAN TROOPS

Under the command of General Juárez de la Torre, the American Civil War. United States attacked first, leading the cavalry charge himself and blowing open the right flank. After the capture of the destroyed Rebel line and the capture of the town of Caracas, the United States victory led to the acceptance of the Ordinance of Caracas, a measure that Bolívar and other revolutionaries had hoped to accomplish.

The red coat of a Peruvian soldier as seen in his distinctive red uniform. Armies were often obliged to wear in red Bolívar’s house.

Andes

LOCATION: Caracas, Venezuela

DATE: 13–16 May 1813

Bolívar, who had joked that he was “the Liberator,” was born in Caracas to aristocratic stock. While in Europe, he studied the ideas of the Enlightenment and convinced him of the need for Latin American liberation. In 1821, he assured the leadership of the revolution, subsequently becoming president of Colombia and Peru.

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BRITISH, URUGUAY, AND URUGUAYAN TROOPS

Under the command of General Juan Manuel de Rosas, a bluff general-in-chief of Buenos Aires, there was no organized military force in Argentina. In 1812, a group of Andean patriots, led by Bernardo O’Higgins, established a republic and called for a national congress to draft a constitution.

The new republic was characterized as an extreme example of the political and social construction of the country, with a high population density and a complex social structure.

Spanish soldiers might be stirred to enthusiasm by the idea of liberating their South American brethren, but they were not eager to fight for it. Bolívar attacked the Spanish left while the British Royal Navy launched a frontal assault and repulsed the Spanish cavalry. The result was a decisive victory for the rebels, with the British taking more than 1,000 Spanish prisoners and killing 2,000 Spanish soldiers.

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MEXICO AT WAR


BREAKTHROUGH
The signing of the 1867 treaty between the United States and Mexico ended the Mexican-American War and led to the incorporation of the former Mexican territories into the United States. Mexico's forests were exploited for timber and other resources, and the country's infrastructure was developed under American influence.

1876-1911
SAN ANTONIO
Antonio López de Santa Anna was an ambitious general who rose to prominence after supporting the campaign of rebel leaders to establish an independent Mexico. He was eventual digitized in the First Mexican Republic and went on to become President of Mexico.

In 1843 the US Congress voted to annex Texas, whose leaders had agreed with President James Polk, eager to expand the country's territory. A delegation from Mexico traveled to Washington, D.C., seeking a tribute to the US government. The US government refused to make a deal, and the US-Mexico War began.

“THE FRENCH EXPEDITION
THE FRENCH REVOLUTION
THE VERACRUZ CAMPAIGN
THE VERACRUZ REVOLUTION

By 1850 Mexico was embroiled in a civil war between conservatives and liberals. The liberals were primarily bankers and elite landowners who supported the Napoleonic Code and the restoration of property rights. The conservatives, led by President Benito Juárez, wanted to return to pre-Napoleonic times and expand the class of small farmers and the lower middle class.

In 1835 Francisco Madero, a young landowner, stood against long-standing dictator Porfirio Díaz in the presidential election. Díaz's political machine had disposed of his opponents, but when the army backed Madero, he fled the country in May 1911. Madero was elected president but the forces of revolution were too strong to control. Southern peasant leader Emiliano Zapata, demanding land reform and respect for the Mexican constitution, led the revolution. Zapata was killed in 1913.

The French government, under President Napoleon III, sent an expeditionary force to Mexico in 1861 to support the regime of Emperor Maximilian. However, the French were expelled by the revolutionaries in 1867, and Mexico won its independence.

In 1887 the Veracruz Campaign, also known as the Veracruz Revolt, began when a French diplomat was assassinated in Veracruz. The French, who had been expelled from Mexico in 1867, demanded the execution of the French consul. The Mexican government refused, leading to war.

By 1890 Mexico was independent and had begun to recover from the tumultuous years of civil war.

EMPIRE AND REVOLUTIONS

COLUMBUS: The MEXICO'S INDEPENDENCE was a design classic. It allowed the flag of the to be seen without obstruction.

FEMALE FIGHTERS
Women, too, fought during the revolution. Many were widowed, disabled, and had little or no property and control. The women's movement gained momentum, and women's rights were recognized. The revolution ended in 1919 and a new constitution was established. Mexico achieved independence and a new constitution in 1917.
THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

THE ELECTION OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN as president in 1860, committed to opposing slavery's spread in the United States, led 11 Southern states to secede from the Union and form the Confederacy. In April 1861 Fort Sumter, an outpost of Federal troops in South Carolina, was bombarded. A bloody war ensued, which lasted four years and cost 600,000 lives.

NORTH AND SOUTH

The Union had a population of 35 million to the Confederacy's nine million. It also had most of America's railroads and industries. While the North manufactured almost 5.3 million Springfield rifle-muskets in the course of the war, the South was short of everything from horses to gas-powered, despite heroic efforts to create war industries and to procure weapons from Europe. Since the regular US Army numbered only 16,000, both sides had to train fresh armies from state militias and volunteers. The South eventually raised around 1.1 million soldiers to the North's 2.8 million. The Union was also overwhelmingly superior in seapower, enabling it to blockade Confederate ports and carry on amphibious operations along the coast, the most notable of which led to the capture of New Orleans in 1862. Given the disparity of forces, the South put all its faith in outside assistance, hoping Britain or France would intervene in its favor. But the issue of slavery walked in the way, compelling foreign sympathy for the Southern cause.

1861-1865

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

With no military experience, Lincoln managed the problems of war presidency with exceptional skill and determination. His whole handling of the slavery issue kept four crucial slave states loyal to the Union, while his commitment to the war raised resources in the Union ranks. Once he had found the generals he needed in Grant and Sherman, Lincoln backed them to the hilt in pursuit of total victory. His administration at the war's end was a tragedy for America.

IRONCLAD

The iron-hulled, steam-powered, paddle-wheel gunboats that operated on the Mississippi. Protected by iron armor, they took on Confederate forts along the river.

WAR PHOTOGRAPHY

Union General Joseph Hooker, captured on film by Mathew Brady, one of the first war photographers. Brady brought home the reality of the conflict in a publicurmored in an image of a woman in war

PRISON CAMPS

About 13,000 Union soldiers died of neglect and disease in the1860s. The worst was the Indiana camp in Camp, Huntsville, in its command, was created for war crimes.

MILITIAMEN

Federal troops issued their men four - men's - rations - which fed the men or the meat away at the end of the war. Some 150,000 men took their own arms and 15,000 wore black.
**NO EASY VICTORY**

**First Bull Run**

**At the Start of the Civil War, the North might have won a three-day engagement at Bull Run.**

In June 1862, when Robert E. Lee took command of the Confederate army in Virginia, a Union army had advanced up the James River to within a few miles of Richmond. By the time McDowell launched his offensive, the South might have stood a better chance of winning if it had not weathered the storm. The Confederates under Beauregard, who had assumed control of the Army of Northern Virginia, were at a disadvantage. Their forces were not as well supplied with food as the Union forces. The Union army, under the leadership of General Joseph Hooker, was better prepared for the battle.

**Shiloh**

In February 1862, with the Union army poised to cross the Tennessee River and attack Corinth, the Confederate army under Albert Sidney Johnston decided to fight. The battle, known as Shiloh, was a turning point in the war.

**Confederate Chief General James Longstreet, who had commanded the Confederate forces at Shiloh, decided to attack.**

**Seven Days Battles**

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**Fredericksburg**

Planned to capture Richmond through a rapid advance across the Rappahannock. But the presence of the Union army at the crossings prevented the Confederate forces from achieving a quick victory. The Federals were able to delay the Confederate advance and establish a defensive line.

**Chancellorsville**

After Antietam, General Ambrose Burnside took command of the Union Army of the Potomac. He planned to capture Richmond through a rapid advance across the Rappahannock. But the presence of the Union army at the crossings prevented the Confederate forces from achieving a quick victory. The Federals were able to delay the Confederate advance and establish a defensive line.

**Rebel retreat**

Rebel forces were forced to retreat across the Rappahannock. The Confederate army was defeated, and the Union forces were able to gain a foothold in the south.

**War Damage**

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**McClintock saw a chance to crush the enemy. He was too slow, however, allowing Lee to regroup his exhausted Antietam.**

McClintock still had overwhelming superiority when battle was joined, but his capture stung him from concentrating the full weight of his forces. The Confederate line held, partly due to the fog, and partly to the ConfederateHQ location at Virginia, which was not as well supplied with food as the Union forces. The Union army, under the leadership of General Joseph Hooker, was better prepared for the battle.

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**“Under repeated orders from General Magruder both brigades hurried through the swamp, the difficulties of which... cannot be exaggerated...”**

General Magruder, the Confederate commander in Virginia, was faced with the task of leading his troops across the swampy area. He was under orders to advance, but the difficulties of the area made it difficult to do so. The Confederates were eventually able to advance, but at a great cost. The Union army was able to maintain its position in the face of the Confederate advance.

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**Confederate Chief General D. R. Jones**

The Confederate attack at Malvern Hill on 1 July 1862 was a costly failure. Union artillery fired canister and de-activated infantry. Lee, appointed by the carriage, acted General John Magruder who had persisted in the attack, receiving the report, “Because of your orders, twice repeated.”
REBEL FLAG
The Confederate flag was designed to avoid being confused with the Stars and Stripes. The flag of the 13th Louisiana Regiment near the name of Gettysburg among its battle honors.

FIGHTING FOR FREEDOM
The Fort government did not tax the poor negroes to pay for the war until 1864, nor by the end of the war with 61,000 paid.

ARMY DRUM
Drummers were often, though not always, young boys. They were often quilty and could be seen in every camp in the Union army.

COST OF WAR
Some 3,500 dead at Gettysburg, and thousands of copies were issued across the battlefield after the event. It took weeks to clear the field of bodies, which quickly turned greenish due to the summer heat.
VICTORY THROUGH ATTRAITION

The Union victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg in July 1863 placed the Confederacy irreversibly on the defensive. The South's last hope of making a decisive victory was to keep the Federal forces occupied with a series of battles until the North became weary of the fighting. Lincoln and Grant did not seek a war of attrition—they would have preferred the swift annihilation of rebel armies—but they did regard crippling the Southern economy and inflicting population as a legitimate strategy. The late stages of the conflict exemplified Sherman's mastery: "War is cruelty. There is no time for generalities; we can try to reform it; the cruiser is sooner to be over."

**Vicksburg**

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**Ulysses S. Grant**

Grant resigned from the US Army in 1845, after serving in Mexico. A strict disciplinarian, he might have found it hard to live but for the Civil War. A string of victories on the Tennessee frontier permitted Lincoln that he was the man to win the victory—"the right man at the right moment.

**Wilderness and Spotsylvania**

In spring 1864 Grant ordered a three-pronged offensive toward Richmond, Virginia, and a simultaneous attack against Atlanta, Georgia. The main thrust in Virginia was delivered by the Army of the Potomac, which crossed the Rapidan River and advanced into the area of this vegetable kingdom known as the Wilderness. There, on May 5th, Grant encountered Lee's Army of Northern Virginia. The terrain inclined to break the fighting into a confused melee. The scene was obscured by smoke and mud. In the dense fighting the Union forces suffered heavy casualties, but Grant refused to retreat. Instead he sent his Rebel dead.

**Cold Harbor**

At Cold Harbor, Lee ordered a frontal attack on the Union lines, hoping to overwhelm the defending forces. The Union forces responded by advancing and pushing back the Confederate lines. The outcome was a significant Union victory, as Grant's decision to drive the Confederates out of the 10-day battle was a key factor in the Union's eventual success. The Union forces were able to push forward and take advantage of the Confederate position, allowing them to gain a strategic advantage in the battle. The victory was a turning point in the War, as it marked the end of the Confederacy's ability to launch major offensives. The Union's victory at Cold Harbor was critical in securing victory in the Civil War.

**March to the Sea**

In May 1864, Sherman led three armies in an offensive to Atlanta, Georgia. The outnumbered Confederate Army of Tennessee fought a series of skillful delaying actions, but Sherman's advance was so effective that the Union forces did not arrive in Atlanta until late July. It took four or five weeks for Sherman to occupy the city. The Army of Tennessee under Johnston withdrew southwest, believing that Sherman would be forced to press on to prevent Union supplies.

**Siege of Petersburg**

After the battle, the Union forces concentrated on the city of Petersburg, Virginia. The Union forces encircled the city of Petersburg from the south. Lee failed, however, to destroy the fortified lines of Petersburg in mid-June. Lee rapidly strengthened the city's walls, Grant had no choice but to dig his own trenches and settle down for a long siege.

**Defeat of Lee**

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**Ketchum Grenade**

The Ketchum grenade was issued to Union forces. Rebel soldiers had to carry a grenade in a blanket and throw it back. Instead, Sherman detached one of his armies to cope with Hood and led the rest southeast. Advancing virtually unopposed on a wide front, Sherman's men laid the country waste, both out of necessity, since they were living off the land, and as a deliberate attack on the Southerners' capacity to fight. The civilian and military infrastructure in their path was destroyed, damaging the Confederacy's ability to mount a war effort. Sherman captured Atlanta on September 2nd, 1864. The city fell to Union forces on September 2nd, 1864.
"A house divided against itself cannot stand."

WITNESS TO WAR

AMERICAN CIVIL WAR

The American Civil War began in a clash of apparently incompatible views of how the liberty of states might be reconciled with the liberty of individuals. It was individuals on both sides who put flesh on the bones of those competing philosophies with their blood and their suffering. The Civil War is often cited as the first industrial war, but it was also among the first conflicts where a mass of letters and diaries survive from rank-and-file soldiers to give a human insight to a battlefield where modern technology and tactics created carnage on an unprecedented scale.

Letter from James Fox at camp in Williamsport, Maryland, to his cousin Elda Fox, 11 April 1863, describing the battle of Gettysburg

"We went into Pennsylvania and stayed for some time and had a hard Battle near Gettysburg.... We went in the 3 day [of July] and got nearly all of our Division killed & wounded.... Myself and Jon come through safely.... There was a ball passed through my sleeve though it did not hurt my arm. Me and Jon came very near being taken.... When I saw we were nearly surrounded I told Jon that we would run and try to get away from them and we made our escape by doing so, while several of our boys that was with us let the Yankees take them.""

The enemy massed their troops in front of the second Brigade & at daylight charged the second, drove them from their breastworks & following them closely captured many.... The air seemed filled with theladen messengers of death.... The Yanks have fought with more desperation than they ever fought before.

Letter from William Francis Bland to Amanda Galliner Armstrong, about the battle of Spotsylvania, 7 May 1864

As well as the full-blooded butchery of battle, the Civil War figured the less dramatic but equally fatal engagements of scorched earth and siege. From the slow naval shelling at Vicksburg to the toil, heroic, and pointless Confederate resistance in the Petersburg trenches, soldiers daily faced death from disease, cold, starvation, and the pounding of enemy artillery. William Francis Bland, a miller, enlisted in the Confederate Army in April 1861, witnessing both the start and end of the war. He fought at Manassas, Cold Harbor, Cedar Mountain, Gettysburg, the Wilderness, and ended up at the siege of Petersburg in April 1865. Three times wounded, he lived to the age of 92.

Captain H. B. Hulston, article in the Memphis Daily Appeal, 1 May 1865, recounting his experiences at Andersonville Prison Camp

"Then came the scorching heats of summer, when the blood dried up in our veins, when almost disembodied spirits walked with cracking joints and rattling bones, when hundreds became insane or idiotic, and many others, who feared insanity, deliberately crossed the dead line and sat down, awaiting their turn to be shot.""

"What a cruel thing war is... to fill our hearts with hatred instead of love for our neighbors."

Captain JohnRandall Robert L. Lee

Army Camp
The Army of the Potomac, shown here in an engraving, was the major Union force in the Eastern Front during the Civil War

For those who were not killed or maimed in battle, there was another form of living death. The Civil War, which gave the world trench fighting that prefigured the modern killing fields of World War I, also bequeathed it the prison camps Andersonville, for Union prisoners, was a place of particular notoriety, so much so that its ghastly death counts, Captain War, was hung for war crimes in Washington in November 1865.

Letter from James Fox at camp in Williamsport, Maryland, to his cousin Elda Fox, 11 April 1863, describing the battle of Gettysburg
IMPERIAL CONFLICTS

The industrial revolution tilted the balance of world power conclusively in favour of Europe and North America. It not only generated wealth on an unprecedented scale but also overcame many problems of supply, enabling ambitious expeditions and distant military bases. Economic and technological growth drove colonialism like never before, creating in nations a hunger for raw materials to feed their industries and dominate world markets. The aggressive expansion of western powers inevitably sparked resistance among indigenous peoples, from the United States to Australia and from Africa to India. Many of these uprisings proved futile, however, because of another consequence of the industrial revolution: mass-produced firearms.

PATRIOTISM AND NATIONALISM

Many Europeans genuinely believed that imperial wars were a regrettable side-effect of an otherwise benevolent process—bringing civilisation to "savage"—and not an exercise of power for the benefit of the home country. Empire-building drew upon strong feelings of nationalism that, in turn, stemmed from the French and American revolutions and the Napoleonic wars, conflicts that led to new demands for freedom and self-determination. Although people were often discontented with social and economic conditions, the mass of Europeans of all classes were inspired by loyalty to the flag. This loyalty was one reason why, in countries such as Britain, conscription was not necessary until 1914. The other reason was that, for many recruits, the army was the least attractive of the few, unpromising alternatives.

GUERRILLA WARFARE AND TACTICS

In spite of the overwhelming technological superiority of the western powers, conquest did not always come easily. In some cases—in Afghanistan, for example—it did not come at all. Imperial forces sometimes achieved victory only at heavy cost in money and lives, or after preliminary defeats. Although doomed in a pitched battle regardless of their numbers, non-European forces were often far more effective when they adopted guerrilla tactics, such as small-scale attacks on civil as well as military targets. Notable exponents of guerrilla warfare included the Boers during the French conquest of Algeria (1830–47) and the Boers in the Second Boer War (1899–1902).

DESPERATE MEASURES

Facing a 90,000-strong British force, the Boers, with about 90,000 men, adopted guerrilla tactics in the Second Boer War.

RESISTING RULE

Aggressive empire-building by the western powers led to armed resistance across Africa, Asia, and Europe, particularly between 1890 and 1920.

FOREIGN RECRUITS

The badge of a German unit that, in the late 18th century British colonies in the Caribbean.

1914–1918

MARSHAL Lyautey

A statesman and soldier, Louis-Hubert-Guillaume Lyautey was France's outstanding colonial administrator. He played a key role in the French conquest of Morocco (1912–9) and later served as a commandant in Algeria. From 1913 to 1929 Lyautey was, with intervals, governor of the protectorate of Morocco, expanding its territory and combating the rebellion of the Rif people. His efforts to create a system of colonial government that co-operated with local customs and was independent from Paris.  

ZULU WARRIORS

The rest of the world was not, of course, peaceful before the advent of European imperialism. Just as in Europe, indigenous nations in the Americas, Asia, and Africa used warfare to assert their interests and ways of life. In southern Africa, for instance, the Zulu leader Shaka turned his people into a nation of warriors that won an empire. Along with brutal violence, Shaka introduced superior strategies, such as the three-pronged assault based on the head of a buffalo, and tactics, adopting the traditional shield as an offensive weapon to drive an opponent off balance, and introducing a mounted club and the assegai (a short, stabbing spear). The Zulu were eventually overcome by the British with their guns, but not before winning the enemy's admiration for their fighting ability.

NATIVE SOLDIERS

Adaptation often existed among both Europeans and indigenous peoples for the fighting qualities of their opponents. European armies frequently turned to traditional warrior peoples to provide a cutting edge to their own forces, while necessity often necessitated large-scale recruitment among the local people. British India was won and maintained mainly by Indian troops known as sepoys. The sepoys' success in was largely due to their adoption of British discipline, which turned the predominantly Hindu soldiers into excellent infantry. In North America, the local knowledge of the American Indians made them, with modern weapons, superior fighters in the forest. In the 19th century one of the most famous colonial military units was the Zouaves, members of the Zouave people of Algeria and Morocco, who helped the French conquer Algeria, as well as other parts of North Africa.

FIGHTING FOR FRANCE

The Zouaves, who served in the French army, are light infantry, and, as such, wear a unique dress. Their coat is small and wide and later adopted by native French units.
The Maratha princes of South India embarked on an aggressive policy of expansion. The Marathas, under the leadership of Peshwa Baji Rao, sought to establish their dominance over the Deccan. By the late 18th century, the Marathas had established a vast empire, stretching from the Ganges to the Western Ghats. The Maratha empire was known for its military prowess and its ability to adapt to changing circumstances. The Marathas were able to maintain their power by maintaining a large and well-trained army, as well as by alliances with other regional powers. Their military campaigns, particularly against the Mughal Empire and the British, were marked by their use of innovative tactics and their willingness to adopt foreign techniques. The Marathas also played a significant role in the development of Indian society, promoting education and the spread of Hinduism. However, the Maratha Empire was ultimately weakened by internal conflicts and the rise of the British East India Company. Despite their setbacks, the Marathas remained a significant power in the region until their defeat by the British in the late 18th century.
GATLING GUN

FIRST USED DURING THE AMERICAN CIVIL WAR, GATLING GUNS WERE THE PRECURSORS OF A NEW TYPE OF MACHINE GUN.

By the second half of the 19th century, improvements in engineering had made it possible to manufacture reliable multiple-barrel weapons. The gun patented by Richard Gatling in 1861 employed multiple barrels, as would all early machine guns. It also took advantage of the new brass bullet cartridge; earlier paper cartridges were dangerous, being liable to combust unpredictably. The barrel — at first six, later ten — were arranged around a cylindrical shaft. A hand-operated crank made the barrels revolve, and cartridges dropped into place from above as each barrel came around. A firing pin then struck and fired the bullet; the barrel turned and the process was repeated. As each barrel descended, its cartridge shell was ejected. The gun was produced in .50 to 0.65in calibres. INFLUENTIAL DESIGN

After seeing very limited use in the American Civil War, the gun was adopted by the US Army in 1866. Firing about 400 rounds a minute in practice, it was devastatingly effective against enemies such as Plains Indians or, for the British, the Zulus. It was also much used as a naval weapon. After a 15-year heyday, the Gatling gun and other multi-barrel machine-guns were superseded from the 1880s by single-barrel guns such as the Maxim, which used the recoil of the barrel or combustion gases to produce continuous fire without the need for a crank. In the late 20th century Gatling-style guns reappeared in weapons systems on board military aircraft and ships, such as the US Mk 15 Phalanx system, which uses a rotating cluster of six 20mm barrels.

RICHARD GATLING

Richard Jordan Gatling (1818-1903) was a peace-loving schoolmaster who, feeling that one weapon would drive Easterners from going to war

CRANE. When rotated, the breech clamp handle turns the barrels inside the cylinder. Gatling found this fiasco tested and fired once during a complete rotation.

PLAQUE. The gun was manufactured at the armory of Samuel Colt — 19th century arms manufacturer — at Hartford, Connecticut, which made thousands of thousands of firearms for the Union side in the American Civil War.

MAGAZINE SLOT. Has groove to help insertion of a perforated magazine. Bottom, the 32-round magazine cartridge holder.

LOOSENGE GEAR. This wheel was used to rotate and lower the barrels.

TRAVERSING HANDSPEW STONGAGE. On the side of the gun, used to centre the barrel and stabilize the gun to prevent its use by the enemy.

WHEEL HUB. With a turning ring secured by a central crank to a wedge-shaped flaxwheel. The turning ring enabled easier transportation.

BARRELS. Though each barrel held the 200 rounds per minute, having ten barrels reduced the risk of overheating.

ANTI-ROTATION PINS. Baffle and pin arrangement, forming a metal cap to catch lead to catch half of the gun body.
THE CONQUEST OF AFRICA

In 1880, European control in Africa extended only to South Africa and a few small coastal regions. Within 20 years, the whole continent had come under European rule. This scramble for African colonies was largely driven by European rivalries, and some events, such as the Zulu War—stemmed from the ambition of ambitious officials on the spot. The pace of occupation soon quickened. Belgian King Leopold organized the Congo as a vast personal estate in the 1870s. Ottoman weakens allowed France, and Britain to take over much of North Africa by 1882. Germany seized a string of African territories in 1884. Finally, in 1885 the Berlin Conference sanctioned and accelerated the conquest of Africa between Britain, France, and the other European powers.

**REVIEW OF APRIL 1885**

Revolt of Abd al-Qadir

In 1880, the French invaded Algeria, putting an end to an Ottoman Turkish rule, and imposing in its place. They claimed to be acting on the long-standing problem of Algerian piracy, and to liberate the country from the Turks, but their real motive were more pressing motives. French rule was harsh, and widespread resistance broke out. In the south, this was led by Abd al-Qadir (1828–48), who centered local tribes under his leadership, and was proclaimed amir of Mascara (in western Algeria) in 1852. He was an army officer, but not very successful, a guerrilla leader, and the French accorded his recognized recognition in 1857. However, when it appeared the French were, despite this, bent on total conquest, Abd al-Qadir declared a holy war. The French waged a brutal campaign, burning crops and seizing cattle, before conquering Mascara and destoning Abd al-Qadir’s arms depot. The ambush of Monte Negro killed, but the French defeated the Moorish army in 1844. Abd al-Qadir finally surrendered in 1847 and was briefly imprisoned in France. A commoner freed, and a devout Muslim, he was once released prisoner whom he could not feel free. He later became a hero in France, receiving the Legion of Honor after using 12,000 Christians from death by a French general and Moorish council in Damascus in 1860.

LEGIONNAIRES IN ACTION

The French Foreign Legion was founded in 1804 for the Algerian campaign. They are the equivalent of the British paratroopers.

**AvDux vs. Second Asante War**

**ACHILLES VS. Second Asante War**

By the 19th century, the powerful Ashanti kingdom dominated the Gold Coast (modern Ghana), while the British controlled a string of coastal forts. Ashanti king Kwadwo Kpelie re-established his authority on the coast populated a year. In November 1879, a British expedition under Sir Garrett Woolley—checked Ashanti probes. That January, the British moved into the interior with 7-pounder guns and rocket launchers. The Ashanti had no guns, and their strongest ally was disease. On 31 January Woolley’s army won a battle at Assinu, and then burned down the Ashanti capital, Kumasi. Kpelie agreed peace terms on 13 March. His kingdom splintered on 15 March, and by 1901 was a British protectorate.

RECRUITING GROUND

British officials checked the equipment of local chiefs for the Ghana War. As a result, the British attempted to arms the Asante. Kpelie was against this, and re-established his authority on the coast.

**Review of April 1885**

Revolt of Arab Pasha

Tel-el-Kebir

On 12 December 1886, the French army of 12,000 attackers faced the Egyptian army of 25,000.

**IMPERIAL EMPIRES**

Adowa

Eritrea: Northern Ethiopia

Adowa: 1 March 1889

The Battle of Adowa was a victory of imperial Ethiopia over an African country, between 1882 and 1889.

**Imperialism**

In the 1880s, the Italians, who already occupied Eritrea and Somaliland, sought to expand their colonial presence to the north. The French, under General Charles Maudslay, advanced into Tripolitania but, held by Maudslay in Tripoli in December 1895, they had to retreat to avoid the battle.

**Review of April 1885**

The Battle of Tel-el-Kebir was a battle in 1884 when the French guns and rocket launchers defeated the Egyptian guns and rockets.

**Imperialism**

The French navy was a formidable force in the Mediterranean, between 1882 and 1885.

**GORDON’S LAST STAND**

Kar主旨toun

In 1885, Muhammad Ahmad, a Muslim religious leader in Sudan, declared himself the Mahdi (“Expected One”). He began a holy war against Egyptian rule and gathered a large number of followers, the Amara (assassins), intent on establishing a pure kingdom of Islam in the Sudan. In 1883, the forces reconstituted as Egyptian army of 15,000 men led by a British officer.

**The Mahdist Revolt**

The amir of Kassala fell from power and was executed by the Mahdi’s followers. In 1885, the British forces under Lord Kitchener approached Kassala and forced the Mahdi to surrender. The Mahdi was captured and executed, and the Mahdist revolt began to subside.

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ZULU WARS

EUROPEAN EXPANSION IN SOUTH AFRICA was facilitated by political divisions and warfare amongst the African groups they encountered. Small groups linked to single leaders, often fighting against their own neighbours, were unable to resist the organised forces of the British and Africans. The Zulu, under Shaka, of a Nguni-speaking clan into a great warrior nation, the Zulu, posed the most significant threat to the Europeans.

THE ZULU PEOPLE

Shaka, whose name comes from an incantation beast and is sometimes known as “Africa’s Adam,” earned his reputation as a prophet of the human race and protector of the Zulus. A man of impressive physical strength and military skills, Shaka rose to power after the murder of Diangamagaliso (1816) and an ensuing contest for power with Zwelisho, the king’s cousin. At first, Shaka showed little interest in the Zulu kingdom. In 1819, Shaka’s young warriors commenced attacks on Zulu settlements, resulting in a war between the Zulus and Shaka’s army. In 1821, Shaka overran the entire of Natal, dead of starvation and disease. The young warriors opposed the social discipline further into central Africa. By 1828, Shaka had killed about 800,000 people (his original troops numbering 2,000), and commanded 15,000 to 30,000 troops. In 1827, Shaka was murdered by his two half-brothers, one of whom, Dingan, succeeded him.

ZULU WARRIORS

Three of Shaka’s soldiers in battle dress. They carry the characteristic short stabbing spear and large shield.

ZULU WARS OF CONQUEST

Conquests of Shaka

The Zulu Wars

The Battle of Blood River

The Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope, founded in the 17th century, had within 150 years given rise to a new nation, the Afrikaners, with few links to Europe and speaking a language no longer quite Dutch. The British captured the Cape in 1795, and from 1803 British immigration increased rapidly. The Afrikaners (also known as “Boers”) asserted British legal restrictions and more liberal attitudes to black Africans. In 1833, determined to regain freedom from British control, about 12,000 men, women, children, and their servants were emancipated at the Great Trek. Both the high and Natal appeared suitable for white settlement, and their population rose as a result of the migration. However, their lives were attacked in the Voortrekker Memorial.

The event is the battle of Blood River, where the Voortrekkers were defeated by the Zulu, led by Shaka. The Zulu defeat is portrayed in the image.

“Impression of the Zulu War. This photograph was taken by a German photographer in 1895. The Zulu are shown in their traditional dress, with their distinctive spears and shields.”

In the late 1870s the British decided to consolidate all their possessions in southern Africa in one federation. The plan was pursued by Sir Bartle Frere, high commissioner in Cape Town. He eliminated the Zulus, but the Zulu king, Lwandle Chelbebele, led a substantial armed resistance. Their military tactics were based on the Zulu approach, with the use of spears and shields. The Zulus were able to fight effectively, but they were eventually defeated by the British, who were better equipped and trained.

DANDHWINA

The British camp where the Zulus were attacked at the end of the war. The Zulus' offensive virtually came to an end after the war.

THE ENGLISH-ZULU WAR

Isandlwana

The English-Zulu War

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VICTORIA CROSS

Eugene Hooe Cross won the Victoria Cross at the Battle of Rorke’s Drift. The largest number of Victoria Crosses was awarded in the Boer War, with about 60 awarded in total.

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Boer Offensive

MALTESER AND THE FREE STATES

LACROIX and the world

The Boers had no army, only mounted units called commandos. But they had been fighting for the year, disciplined, with elected officers and up-to-date artillery as well as superior rifles (imported, it is true, from Germany). When the Boer attack on Natal, the outnumbering British forces withdrew to Ladysmith, which was cut off and besieged.

The war became a civil war, with many Africans in the Cape taking up arms against the British. But the Boers were thinly spread, and by the beginning of 1900 their offensives were running out of steam and forscibility in a way that may have been prompted by the attack on British soil. The British responded with a show of force and withdrew their forces from the area.

Relief of Mafeking

Makwena was also involved in the Lusignan rebellion of 1899, a tense period in South Africa's history. Makwena was arrested and imprisoned, but he managed to escape and continue his work as an advocate for the rights of the Xhosa people. He was eventually released and continued his political activities until his death in 1915.

Guerrilla War

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WARS OF IMPERIAL EXPANSION


First Burma War

In 1824, British forces crossed the border into British-occupied India, capturing Aye. This was the opening salvo in the conflict between the British and the Burmese for control over the region. The British were met with resistance, and the conflict lasted for several years until a treaty was signed in 1826.

Philippine-Spanish War

During the Spanish-American War of 1898, a US naval squadron entered Manila Bay on the morning of 1 May and transmitted the Spanish fleet to account for them. After the battle, the Americans occupied the Philippines, ending the Spanish colonial rule.

Spanish-American War

The Spanish-American War of 1898 was a conflict between Spain and the United States. The United States sought to acquire Cuba, the Philippines, and Guam from Spain.

United States intervention in Cuba came after three years of war. This was Cuba's second war of independence, led by the charismatic poet José Martí, and was notable for the role of the Spanish colonial government in putting down a rebellion in 1896. The war was fought against Spanish forces in Cuba and ended with the Treaty of Paris, which confirmed the independence of Cuba.

Spanish-American War

In 1898, the United States declared war on Spain, leading to the capture of Spanish territories in the Philippines, Guam, and Puerto Rico.

Battle of Manila Bay

The Battle of Manila Bay was fought on 1 July 1898, between the US fleet, under the command of Commodore George Dewey, and the Spanish fleet under the command of Admiral Pablo Garcia de la Torre.

USS Victoria in Cuba

The USS Victoria was a ship of the US Navy that participated in the Spanish-American War. It was involved in the Battle of Manila Bay and later in the capture of Puerto Rico.

World War I

The United States entered World War I in 1917, after the sinking of the Lusitania by a German submarine.

Theodore Roosevelt

Theodore Roosevelt, the 26th President of the United States, was a leader in the conservation movement and a strong advocate for conservation and the preservation of natural resources.

Rough Riders in Cuba

The Rough Riders, a group of volunteer soldiers, played a significant role in the Spanish-American War and were under the command of Major-General Leonard Wood.

Maori Wars

The Maori Wars were a series of conflicts between Maori tribes and the British government. The Maoris initially welcomed the British, but after a series of misunderstandings, the conflict escalated into full-scale warfare.

Dr. Theodore Roosevelt grew up in a family of frontier adventurers and became involved in conservation movements. He was a strong advocate for the conservation of natural resources.

Empires and Revolutions
CHINA IN TURMOIL

THROUGHOUT THE 19TH CENTURY CHINA’S QING DYNASTY WAS IN TERTIARY DECLINE. ENCROACHMENTS BY EUROPEAN AGGRESSIONS LEFT CHINA POWERLESS TO CONTROL ITS OWN ECONOMIC POLICIES AND LED TO THE LOSS OF VIETNAM TO FRANCE AND HONG KONG TO BRITAIN. PEASANTS WERE STARVING BY THE MILLIONS AND THE GOVERNMENT WAS LOSING AUTHORITY OVER ITS SUBJECTS, LEADING TO OPEN REBELLION.

CHINA IN TURMOIL

THE LAST EMPIRE

FIRST GREAT WAR

Opium War

CHINA

A series of defeats for the Qing empire against the better-equipped Europeans demonstrated that Chinese armies were incapable of defending China, and an already weak central power began to disintegrate. Losing out to foreigners at the margin of the empire and to internal rebellions, the regime initiated a programme of industrial reform, based on learning from the west while staying faithful to Chinese values. This involved treating western learning as “substance” to the superior Chinese “sources”. But the Boxer Rebellion showed (see p251), Chinese “sources” would often manifest itself as hatred for foreigners. The Qing paid for their false industrialization by being dominated by western powers. This ignominy was overshadowed, however, by the rising power of Japan, to be eclipsed by a small neighbour they considered inferior was more than many Chinese could bear. Soon, local warlords were stepping into the power vacuum left by the defeat regime.

JAPAN

For nearly three centuries Japan was controlled by a shogun of the Tokugawa clan, but increasing encroachments from Europe and America led many who had been impressed by western modernity to call for the country to modernize. The accession of the emperor Meiji in 1866 signified the end of the Tokugawa era as rival clans, the Satsuma and the Choshu, were given imperial permission to overthrow the shogun. Emperor Meiji took control of government and an astonishingly quick process of westernization began. Japan’s thrust for industrialization was driven by a desire for military power, and in less than 30 years, victories against China and then Russia left Japan a dominant force in East Asia, much to the chagrin of the decadent Europeans.

THE OLD ORDER

A group of samurai are photographed shortly before the samurai class was abolished and the ceremonial swords published in 1868.

SECOND GREAT WAR

Arrow War

IMMORAL TRADE

A British ship enters the port of Canton, China, laden with opium. Britain’s policy was profit-laden and widely liked.

China was compelled to agree to the Treaty of Nanking whereby Hong Kong was handed over to British control, a humiliation that would be ended only when the land was given back to China in 1997. In addition, British subjects would now be tried under British law, not Chinese law, for the first time. Meanwhile, Lin was hanged to Türkije in disgrace. With all restrictions on British commercial activity lifted, the next three decades would see the opium trade more than triple its value.

THE STORMING OF AMBOY

The 1867 Regiment of First Captain of the vice-Admiral of British Janus Action Against the Chinese coast.

FIELD OF COMBATE

Copies of Chinese soil from the site of the Sino-French War and the Flag on the shore of the Convention of Peking, which ended the series of the Treaty of Tientsin, provided a large indemnity to Britain and France, legalized the opium trade, and guaranteed the safety of Christian missionaries.

The ultimate indignity came with defeat against Japan and the loss of influence in Korea and Taiwan. By the end of the century, all major ports and trade routes were under foreign control. Japan, not China, was now the great economic and military power in East Asia, and the Qing empire’s days were clearly numbered.

Zulu to Guangzhou with orders to confiscate all opium widespread there by British merchants. A few days later drunken British sailors killed a Chinese villager and bloodstream broke out when the British government refused to hand the accused over to the Chinese authorities. A British fleet was dispatched in June 1841, and ordered Chinese weaponry was no match for British gunboats. After a series of ignominious defeat, the

"Let us ask, where is your conscience?" — Lin Zexu, letter to British Queen Victoria, 1843

Michael Yamamoto to occupy Guangzhou. The Second Opium War had begun. The coalition sailed north and Seymour launched an attack on Fort near Tianjin. Once more the Chinese were no match for the technologically superior Europeans, and the first phase of the war ended with the 1858 Treaty of Tianjin. A year later, China broke the truce by refusing to close foreign missions in Beijing, prompting an Anglo-French assault on the city. Emperor Xianfeng was duly removed and the Summer Palace was set on fire on the orders of British commander Lord Elgin. Xianfeng now had little choice but to sign any further agreements to the Convention of Peking, which ended the series of the Treaty of Tientsin, provided a large indemnity to Britain and France, legalized the opium trade, and guaranteed the safety of Christian missionaries.
Taiping Uprising

General Charles Gordon

Charles Gordon served in the Chinese before serving in China. After failing, government forces in the suppression of the Taiping Rebellion, the imperial government had to reorganize troops. The French were the only foreign nation that provided assistance. In 1885 he was killed in Sudan while defending Khartoum against the Mahdi. (see pg.18)

People’s Heroes

A memorial in Beijing depicts scenes of the Taiping Rebellion and of Lin Zexu destroying opium. The pictures in the embroidery are thought to be Songzili.

Tonkin War

Sino-Japanese War

Just 20 years after it had begun to modernize, Japan was ready to flex its military muscles. Korea, a Chinese protectorate, had long been attractive to the Japanese, and the failure of a pro-Japanese coup there in 1894 prompted Japan to send military forces. War was declared on China and although

into the river delta that formed the coast of Indochina in northern Vietnam. Both sides accused each other of aggression, and French captain Henri Lapierre Persoon was sent into Han, the administrative center of Tonkin, to excavate the “Black Flag Pirates.”

China initiated tensions that were mirror images of battles, forcing the Chinese victory to negotiate or agree to settle which of the seas would become a joint Sino-French protectorate. When the agreement was rejected in Paris, China declared war in the belief that its newly equipped army could repel the invaders. Chinese general forces led by Chiang Ching-ho, off French incursions into southern China, but the hard reality about Chinese modernization was exposed in the battle of Fuchou in August 1884. In the space of half an hour, as estimate, over three hundred French cruisers were utterly destroyed by Chinese naval firepower and torpedoes. China had no choice but to surrender both Tonkin and Annam farther south to the French.

Boxer Rebellion

The “Boxers” were a name given to a secret society known as the Boxer Chiao (“Righteous and Harmonious Fist”) for its use of banned weapons that they believed would make them invincible to bullets. The Boxers targeted foreigners—especially missionaries—and their strength in northern China grew along with foreign aggression in the area. Their message soon made its way to Beijing. In 1895, the new government in Beijing supported the Qing dynasty against foreign aggression. By 1899 the Boxers were hunting the missionary world around them, with the implicit backing of the Dowager Empress, Christian missionaries, and Chinese scholars.

In June 1900 a multination force was sent to quell the rebellion. They were repelled by imperial troops and successful in the suppression and foreign troops would be stationed at every important juncture between Beijing and Shanghai. The Qing dynasty's humiliation was total.

Japanese diplomat was killed. A large force finally captured Beijing in August, saving the foreign embassies and Chinese Christians who had been in the city since the end of 1861. The foreigners, including Bishop Lamy and the Catholic cathedral. The foreign embassies were saved. The country and its people had lost its honor and was forced to pay a heavy price. All aggressions were suppressed and foreign troops would be stationed at every important juncture between Beijing and Shanghai. The Qing dynasty's humiliation was total.

Captured Boxers

A group of imprisoned Boxers was caged for years. They were captured by the U.S. Sixth Cavalry near Beijing.

Foreign Intrusion

The wily American troops watching through the Forbidden City in Beijing saw a chance to seize China's national pride.

Sword against Bullet

Three Chinese moved fast from the news of the rebellion. Suddenly, without any talk, they formed the Boxerinstead of rifles.
THE RISE OF JAPANESE POWER

THE RESTORATION OF THE JAPANESE EMPIRE in 1868, after centuries of rule by the Tokugawa shogunate, was followed by reforms aimed at building a strong centralized administration. These changes, and in particular the abolition of the samurai monopoly on arms and the establishment of a European-style army, led to rebellions even among those who had helped overthrow the Tokugawa. Opposition to the new order was ruthlessly crushed. Once the country had been united, the new conscript army’s first targets were mineral-rich neighbour Korea and Chinese Manchuria. Japan defeated first China and then Russia to secure its position. This transformation of the Shogunate into an industrialized world power was complete.

SATSUMA REVOLT

Sakata Genshō’s support for the Meiji Restoration (see below) helped to keep the reformist Satsuma clan in power. The Satsumas cared deeply about the fate of their kin abroad, to the point of offering prisoners of war to the American warship that had fired on Commodore Matthew C. Perry’s Black Ships in 1853. The Satsumas also clung to the old etiquette of the Ronin. With this in mind, Satsuma’s leader, Katsu Kaishū, maintained that his son, Hara Katsuji, was entitled to be treated as a Ronin even though he was still a minor. This issue was to become crucial in the Satsuma Rebellion of 1877.

BOSHIN WAR

The militarized Bakufu, the government in exile, was riddled with internal conflict. In the early 1870s, the Satsuma-Hashidate, the Bakufu’s closest rivals, revolted to stop the pace of change. They were soon defeated by imperial forces, but remnants of the old regime continued to organize on the island of Tsushima, to the west of Korea.

SIEGE OF PORT ARTHUR

Japanese troops are seen in a trench near the port of Port Arthur in January 1904. The city was at the end of the Manchurian railway line, which served as a link between Russian, Chinese and Japanese interests. The Japanese Army launched an attack in the hope of taking Russia’s Far Eastern port, which was a major naval base for the Russo-Japanese War. The siege was a major turning point in the war, as it forced the Russian fleet to retreat and led to the Japanese capture of Port Arthur.

MANCHURIAN MARCH

Japanese troops march along the Manchuria-Chinese border in the 1930s. The Manchurian Incident, in which Chinese soldiers were killed during a mock battle near the Chinese border, was used by Japan as an excuse to invade Manchuria in 1931. This led to the establishment of the puppet-state of Manchukuo, which was dominated by Japan. The invasion was a significant step in Japan’s expansionist policy, which aimed to secure new territory and resources to support Japan’s growing industrial economy.

TSUSHIMA

A Japanese battleship is seen in the waters off Tsushima Island during the Russo-Japanese War. The Battle of Tsushima, fought in May 1905, was a decisive victory for Japan, which emerged as a major naval power. The battle was a turning point in the war, as it demonstrated the effectiveness of Japan’s new fleet and its ability to challenge Russia’s naval supremacy in the Far East.

WINTER WAR

Russian forces see the Russian cruiser Mirnyy, which was sunk by the Japanese during the Winter War, in 1940. The Winter War, fought between Finland and the Soviet Union from December 1939 to March 1940, was a major conflict in the early stages of World War II. The war was a victory for Finland, which managed to defend itself against the much larger Soviet forces and gained territory in the process.

In the wake of the Winter War, the Soviet Union sought to expand its influence in the region. This led to conflict with Japan, which had also set its sights on the area. The result was the outbreak of the Second Sino-Japanese War, which was fought between China and Japan from 1937 to 1945.

In 1941, Japan attacked the United States and Britain in the Pacific, triggering the entry of the United States and the United Kingdom into the war. This led to the end of the war in 1945, with the defeat of Japan and the surrender of the Axis powers.
NATIONALISM AND MODERNIZATION

FROM 1815 TO 1914 Europe was free of the near constant warfare between major powers that had characterized the preceding centuries. Apart from some sharp but short outbreaks of war between 1848 and 1871, associated with the creation of new nation states in Germany and Italy, armed conflicts were concentrated in marginal areas in or around the Ottoman empire. But long periods of peace did not lead to the demilitarization of the European powers.

ARMED PEACE

As well as fighting colonial wars, European states armed and trained to fight each other between 1871 and 1914. Except in Britain, which was protected by its navy and therefore able to depend on a small professional army, military service became a standard experience for the European male. As Europe’s population grew from around 200 million in 1850 to almost 500 million in 1914, conscription created armed forces of unprecedented size. Improved railways allowed these large armies to be moved swiftly to a battlefield, while modernized state bureaucracies organized their equipment and supply. By the late 19th century, most European countries were gripped by a militarizing patriotism encouraged by popular newspapers—the first mass media. Armed services were a source of national pride. Military manoeuvres became prominent annual events attended by monarchs and political leaders.

1871-1914

KARL VON CLAUSENVITZ

As a Prussian army officer, Karl von Clausewitz was present at many of the major battles of the Napoleonic Wars, including the great Battle of Leipzig in 1813. He became superintendent of the Berlin War College, a post that enabled him to develop his seminal and influential views on warfare. Published posthumously in 1832, On War, the central theme of his writings was that war ideally consisted “the continuation of politics by other means” and so defines as a practical instrument for achieving political ends, which should be limited to its military aspects. War, in his view and that of many modern strategists, requires the intention of violence, the use of force on a large scale, the ability to control, and the ability to control armed conflict.

THEORY OF WAR

Clausewitz’s work was written with the intention of war in mind. During the two world wars, his ideas inspired Germany in 1895.

MODERNIZATION

The Prussians set the pace for military modernization with the development of a highly professional general staff responsible for the planning and execution of large-scale warfare. All European armies were forced to follow their example. Far from being reactionary, most European military leaders sought new technologies that would give them the edge in battle. The development of airships and winged aircraft in the early 20th century, for example, was due to a large extent driven by the armed forces’ interest in their military potential. Great arm factories such as Schneider in France and Krupp in Germany mass-produced ever more powerful artillery pieces and ever more efficient rifles and machine guns. High explosive shells and smokeless propellants took over from solid shot and gunpowder. Naval forces were transformed from wooden sailing ships with cannon to steam-driven ironclads with guns mounted in rotating turrets.

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE

British nursing reformer Florence Nightingale was often called “the Lady with the Lamp” who improved the conditions of wounded soldiers in hospitals at Scutari during the Crimean War. She campaigned energetically for the reform of army sanitary arrangements, taking a special interest in the British army in India. Her efforts reached far beyond Britain and she was associated with the International Red Cross after its foundation in 1864. Thanks to her achievements, combat deaths in the 20th century were five times the pre-war annual deaths from disease.

EARLY ZEPPELIN

The German Luftschiff Zeppelin was developed in 1897. The military implications of such machines were immediately appreciated.

PRUSIAN RIFLE

The Dreyse needle-loading rifle was adopted by the Prussian army in 1841.

UNLIMITED ENDS

The European wars of the 1848–71 period were in some ways precursive. Prussia’s swift victories over Austria in 1866 and France in 1870–71 appeared to show that modern armies could be effective instruments for fighting limited wars for limited political ends, in line with contemporary thinking. But the battle of Solferino and the battles of the Crimean War showed another side of the coin—the huge numbers of men who died in battle, the huge number of wounded, and the huge number of casualties. The war’s effect was to make the prospect of large-scale war much more impossible to imagine. Rather, the policies of Europe’s major powers after 1871 implied a belief in short, decisive wars (hence the stress on larger and larger concentrated armies) and the industrial might to back them up.

SLIDE TO WAR

Maintaining peace and limiting the destructiveness of war were subjects much discussed in Europe before 1914—the time of the Hague peace conferences and the Nobel Peace Prize, but European states were understandably wary of the Franco-Prussian War of 1870–71 was the pivotal point of the period. The creation of a dominant German state via the calculated use of Prussian military power left France desperate for revenge and desperately aware of weakness. Once France was allied with Russia, and Germany with Austria, the scene was set for a general conflict that many European leaders came to view as inevitable.

PEACE DELEGATES

Delegates from 26 countries met for a peace conference at the Hague in 1899. They discussed issues such as banning the use of poison gas and aerial bombardment.
ITALIAN UNIFICATION

IN THE EARLY 19TH CENTURY Italy was a collection of small states whose rulers included the king of Piedmont and Sardinia in the northwestern and the Austrian emperor in Lombardy and Venetia. Through a series of wars and uprisings between 1848 and 1870, Italy was united under the king of Piedmont.

First Custoza

**DATE:** May 24–25, 1849 **LOCATION:** Lombardy, northern Italy **CASUALTIES:** 9,500 Austrian, 23,500 Italian

In March 1849, Napoleon III made a secret treaty with Austrian Emperor Francis Joseph I to support Lombardy against Austria. In April 1849, Napoleon invaded Lombardy, hoping to gain control of a large number of horses to the war zone, the passage of a large number of horses to Napoleon's army. The Austrian army confronted the French in September, despite Napoleon's previous victory. The Austrians used their artillery to devastating effect by firing canister into the French.

SIEGE OF ROME

**DATE:** July 25–30, 1849 **LOCATION:** Rome, Italy **CASUALTIES:** 11,600 French, 1,100 Italian

In February 1849, France invaded the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies, which had been defeated by Austrian forces in 1815. The French army, led by General MacMahon, captured Naples and proceeded to march on Rome. In May 1849, the French army reached Rome, and the Papal States were annexed to the French Empire.

**WAR OF ITALIAN INDEPENDENCE**

Garibaldi's Redshirts

**DATE:** May 24–25, 1859 **LOCATION:** Lombardy, northern Italy **CASUALTIES:** 380 French, 5,000 Italian

In May 1859, Napoleon III declared war on Austria. The French army, led by General Bugeaud, fought against the Austrians near Custoza, northern Italy. The French army was victorious, and the Austrians were forced to retreat.

ZOLAS IN ACTION


**SECOND CUSTOZA**

**DATE:** April 25, 1860 **LOCATION:** Custoza, northern Italy **CASUALTIES:** 8,000 French, 10,000 Italian

In April 1860, Garibaldi and his army of volunteers inflicted a defeat on the French at Custoza. Garibaldi's Redshirts were victorious, and the French army was forced to retreat.

**SECOND ITALIAN INDEPENDENCE**

Garibaldi's Redshirts

**DATE:** May 1860 **LOCATION:** Lombardy, northern Italy **CASUALTIES:** 5,000 French, 5,000 Italian

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RISE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

**BETWEEN 1864 AND 1871**

Prussia's chief minister Otto von Bismarck led his country into three wars that resulted in the unification of Germany under the Prussian king. First came a brief, one-sided conflict with Denmark in which Prussia took over the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. Then, in alliance with Italy, the Seven Weeks War with Austria in 1866 that gave Prussia dominance over the smaller German states; and finally a war with France that concluded with the Congress of Vienna and Lorraine integrated into a new German empire.

The main instrument of Prussian victory was an army led by a professional general staff skilled in modern day networks and committed to decisive offensive warfare.

**SIEGE OF PARIS**

**FRANCO-POLISH WAR**

The French Army of Chilmon under Pafy MacMahaon, with Emperor Napoleon III in attendance, set out to invade Silesia. However, they were driven into a loop of the Meuse at Treves, and then encircled by Bismarck. On 1 September Prussian forces positioned on hill overlooking Sedan suddenly battered the French from beyond the range of any artillery response. The wounded MacMahaon was replaced by Auguste Deux, then by Emmanuel de Wimpffen, but neither could co-ordinate attempts to break out. French cavalry distinguished themselves by their bravery in charging the Prussian lines near the village of Fleurus, but futile guerreros in the face of concentrated artillery fire.

Observing the thousands of Prussian corpses, an observer commented of the slaughter of one body of homesmen that "the Frenchman is a lion, the Prussian a dog."

As the Prussians marched on Paris, the city's population was fined, and the Emperor was captured, making the Emperor a prisoner of war. After a last desperate struggle, the French surrendered.

**SEIZURE OF PARIS**

After their victory at Sedan, the Prussians forced the Parisians to surrender. A force of the capital was practically surrendered to the leadership of General Louis Bassompierre.

**SPREAD HELMET**

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THE CRIMEAN WAR AND RUSSIA IN ASIA

BY THE 19TH CENTURY RUSSIAN EXPANSION was coming into conflict with an increasingly weak Ottoman empire and, in Slovenia, with the frontiers of a series of Muslim powers, equipped to oppose Russian military might. Where outside powers revisited the prospect of further enlargement of the tsar’s domains with alarm, as in the case of Ottoman Turkey, Russia’s ambitions could be opposed. The Crimean War, which resulted from this, stymied Russian ambitions to seize the remains of the Crimean War. Sevastopol

Sevastopol

Dated: 1 October 1854–3 September 1856

The Crimean War ended with the surrender of Sevastopol, the Russian fortress on the Black Sea. A second attack on the fortress in June was followed by a decision by the British—now commanded by General Stobart—to capture the fortress. But, after a long, unsuccessful effort by the Russian army to resist, Sevastopol was taken by the British in September 1855.

CRIMEA MEDAL

This medal is a Sevastopol bar for the Crimea of Naples. Sevastopol and a second, apanese, British assault of the fortress, the French, and American, by Manvel Pius, overwhelmed the walls were overrun by Malmedy and a Russian surrender became inevitable.

DIGGING IN

British soldiers were armed with the muskets outside the besieged city of Sevastopol.

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The Crimean War

Alma

Dated: 9 September 1854

The Crimean War started when the British and French declared war on Russia. The British and French forces, commanded by General Benjamin Disraeli, were defeated by the Russian army at the Battle of Alma.

In 1853 the war against Russia and Ottoman Turkey was the first to be fought in the Balkans, and it was an important test of Russian military strength in the Balkans. The Crimean War and Russia in Asia

Alma Assaut

In the backwater campaign on the Alma, the British and French forces captured the Russian fortifications at the Battle of Alma.

After Alma, the Allies pressed on towards Sevastopol, where they were faced by the Russian army commanded by General Stobart. The British and French forces were defeated at the Battle of Balaklava, but they were able to capture Sevastopol in September 1855.

Balaklava

Dated: 25 November 1854

The Crimean War ended with the surrender of Sevastopol, the Russian fortress on the Black Sea. A second attack on the fortress in June was followed by a decision by the British—now commanded by General Stobart—to capture the fortress. But, after a long, unsuccessful effort by the Russian army to resist, Sevastopol was taken by the British in September 1855.

Shamil’s Caucasus Uprising

Dated: 1859

Shamil’s Caucasus Uprising was a series of uprisings against Russian rule in the Caucasus region. Shamil, a Muslim leader, led a rebellion against Russian imperialism and was supported by a large number of Caucasian tribes.

During the Crimean War, Russia was also involved in a series of military operations beyond the Crimean Peninsula. Russia’s military interventions included the involvement in the Turkish War of 1853–1856, the suppression of the Caucasian uprising in 1859, and the participation in the Persian War of 1856–1857.

Russia in Central Asia

Dated: 25 May 1868

Russia’s actions in Central Asia were aimed at consolidating its control over the region and expanding its influence. The Treaty of Saint Petersburg was signed to establish Russia’s control over the region, and this was followed by the Treaty of Kars in 1856, which gave Russia control over the Caucasian region.

Russia in Central Asia

Dated: 1913

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A novel against Russian exploitation, called from another point of view, the frequent talk of liberal historians on it as a sort of a hostile and provoked series of expeditions against the Khans of Bokhara, Khiva, and Kokand. In 1838 a large Russian expedition led by General Gobijeck, who in 1839 secured the capture of Bokhara, was driven back by the Khans of Bokhara and the Khoja, and finally the Russians were forced to retreat.

The Bokhara Khanate

The Bokhara Khanate, which had been established in 1529, was ruled by the Khans of Bokhara, who were the hereditary rulers of the region. The Khanate was a major power in Central Asia and was a rival of the Russian Empire. The Khanate was eventually annexed by the Russian Empire in 1868, after a series of military campaigns and negotiations.
OTTOMAN DECLINE AND THE BALKANS


THE GRAY WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

MISSOLONGHI

Thebes, the town of the Thespians, was besieged by the Ottoman forces in July 1826. The inhabitants of Thebes held out for three months, but eventually surrendered. The Ottoman forces then occupied the town and massacred the inhabitants.

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"If we are not taken off with the sword, we are like to march off with an engrossed in this mud basket. Better [to die] mortally than march-shy..."

Lord Byron, letter to Charles Boscawen from Missolonghi, 5 October 1824

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THE GREY WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

Navarino

navtis 1911

By a treaty of 1877, Britain, France, and Russia agreed to demand an immediate withdrawal of the Greek forces from the Greek War of Independence. The British commissioner in the Mediterranean, Admiral Codrington, with his French opposite number, put the proposition to the Greeks, who accepted it. Hamilton, with the Taranto fleet, sailed from Navarino as the harbour of Navarino (Piraeus), agreed by the Greeks.

THE BALKAN WAR

Edirne (Adrianople)

The Balkan War (1912–1913), also known as the First Balkan War, was a conflict among the Balkan League, a group of primarily Slavophone nations, and the Ottoman Empire. The war marked the end of the Ottoman Empire's dominance in the Balkans and the beginning of the period of Balkan nationalism and independence. The war resulted in the partition of the Ottoman Empire among Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, Montenegro, and the Ottoman Empire itself, which was forced to cede most of its European territories.

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PALACE REVOLUTION

Greece's Palace Revolutions of 1967 and 1974 led to the establishment of a military junta, known as the Cupola, which seized power and imposed a series of political changes. The coup was widely condemned by the international community, and Greece was subsequently expelled from the Council of Europe. The coup was eventually overthrown by a coalition of political parties, and Greece returned to the Council of Europe in 1974.

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ERA OF WORLD WARS

1914–PRESENT
GLOBAL WARFARE

THE OUTBREAK OF WAR BETWEEN THE major European powers in 1914 initiated a struggle for world domination that lasted until the late 1980s. Vast resources were devoted to weapons, both in terms of technological development and mass production, creating a destructive potential on a terrifying new scale. The very destructiveness of modern warfare deterred major powers from fighting all-out war with one another after 1945, but smaller-scale conflicts proliferated.

The two mighty global conflicts that dominated the history of the 20th century, World War I (1914-18) and World War II (1939-45), were in many ways linked. In Europe, both could be seen as a single struggle by Britain, France, and Russia to resist German domination—a struggle that could only be met with the additional involvement of the United States. But World War II also developed in a new form of Asian war waged by the United States, Britain, and China against Japan. The two world wars of 1914-18 were a three-sided ideological battle between extreme nationalist regimes, liberal democracies, and communists, each of which had complicated the conflicts between the great powers. The scale of the world wars was monumental—more than 70 million people lost their lives in the two conflicts. It was the age of "total war," with the entire resources of modern states mobilized in pursuit of victory. And if the whole of a nation's economy and civilian population was devoted to the war effort, it followed logically that factories and civilians were legitimate targets for military action.

WORLD WAR TECHNOLOGY

The development of military technology in the 1914-45 period was mostly an offshoot of general scientific and technological progress. Many of the weapons that shaped the character of the world wars were in place before 1914, including rapid-fire rifles, machine-guns, artillery firing high explosive shells, and submarines and mines at sea. The advent of aircraft—which, like motor vehicles and the radio, was not specifically intended for military purposes—was probably the single most radical innovation during the world wars. If air power failed to achieve the independent war-winning prowess that its most enthusiastic advocates envisioned, it nevertheless had a dramatic effect both on land and sea battles, as well as in the strategic bombing of enemy populations and industrial centres.

HOT AND COLD WARS

The period after 1945 was shaped by two factors: the introduction of nuclear weapons—the power of which was demonstrated in the destruction of the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945—and the confrontation between the United States and the Soviet Union as Americans dedicated themselves to stopping the spread of communism. By the 1950s, both superpowers had nuclear weapons and were engaged in a race to build more powerful warheads and more effective delivery systems. The destructive power of these weapons was so great that, under sane leadership, they had to agree on avoiding full-scale war. But this Cold War stand-off left plenty of scope for superpower involvement in "hot wars" at a regional level, from Korea in the 1950s to Vietnam in the 1960s and Afghanistan in the 1980s. In principle, each of the new theories made warfare more impersonal and distant—from the dropping of bombs on an unknown target to the poisoning of a honey that launched a missile against a city thousands of kilometres away—but most of the fighting in the Afghan mountains or in the Vietnamese jungle remained as much a face-to-face infantry battle as ever.

NEW WORLD ORDER

The disintegration of the Soviet Union in 1991 left the United States as the undisputed world superpower. With no major enemy to counterbalance its power, the United States and its allies have, rightly or wrongly, been tempted to intervene in regional or civil conflicts in order to prevent massacre, punish aggression, or effect regime change. These interventions have been hampered by the increasing intolerance of the public in western countries for casualties on their own side, which has led to a growing reliance on precision-guided munitions and remote-controlled drones as a way of projecting power. Highly developed arms industries have also profited from wars with mass-produced automatic weapons, fueling a classic state of permanent warfare in some areas. Since 1945, one of the worst regions for ongoing conflict has been Africa, where, as in Europe in the Middle Ages, it has often been hard to distinguish war from violence. In the 21st century, the western response to Islamic terrorism has presented the possibility of permanent war on a global scale, in which major powers are unable to locate an enemy against whom to deploy their high-tech weaponry. The potential for a nuclear Third World War, at least for the moment, has vanished. But predictably, there is still no prospect of peace on earth.

Looking Storm: Adolf Hitler as a Nazi artist in Nuremberg, Germany, in 1933
WORLD WAR I

ON 28 JULY 1914, Austria-Hungary declared war on Serbia after the assassination of Archduke Franz Ferdinand by a Serb extremist. Within a week the major powers of Europe were at war, as Russia mobilized in support of Serbia, Austria-Hungary’s ally Germany mobilized against Russia and its ally France, and Britain entered the conflict in support of France and Belgium. By the time the war had ended, four years later, it had cost an estimated 15 million lives.

MASS WARFARE

The causes of World War I have been endlessly debated, but it perhaps suffices to say that as states are divided into hostile alliance systems and engaged in an arms race, as the European powers were, then war is highly likely. The scale of the conflict was vast from the outset – in the first week Germany alone mobilized 3.5 million men. The soldiers were mobilized to frontier zones by train and thrown into the attack. The unprecedented firepower of artillery, machine guns, and rapid-fire rifles brought to bear upon these mass armies produced awesome casualties even before stalemate set in at the end of 1914. The long haul that followed allowed modern industrialized nations to demonstrate the enormous killing power they could generate through the mass-manufacture of artillery shells and other munitions. The war soon spread, and the Ottoman empire joined Germany, and Italy joined Britain and France. But it was the entry of the United States into the war in April 1917, provoked by German submarine warfare, that gave the conflict pretensions of being a “world war.”

ASSASSINATION VICTIMS

Archduke Franz Ferdinand, here in the home of Austria-Hungary and his wife Sophie were shot dead by Roman Serb Gavrilo Princip on 28 June 1914, precipitating World War I.

MACHINE-GUNNERS

British troops trained to shoulder machines; their right machine gunned out and the 450 rounds per minute.

TECHNOLOGY

Technologically, the war was a mix of old and new. Even if cavalry failed to find an effective role where trench warfare prevailed, horses were still crucial for hauling supplies and artillery. Away from rail lines, armor advanced as fast as a man could march. Tanks began to appear in the Allied force on a significant scale towards the end of the war. Other new land weapons, such as poison gas and flamethrowers, made war more gruesome but were of limited effect. Aircraft took over the reconnaissance role from cavalry and provided aerial spotters to direct artillery fire. Hundreds of airplanes battled for superiority over the Western Front and German aerials dropped bombs on London and Paris. By 1918 aircraft were increasingly used in support of troops, while submarines and aircraft proved their worth in naval warfare, capturing even the much-touted Dreadnought battleships.

DREADNAUGHT AND ZEPPELINS

Airships were among the latest military technology. Naval reconnaissance was one of the chief roles of German Zeppelins. Hundreds of airplanes battled for superiority over the Western Front and German aerials dropped bombs on London and Paris. By 1918 aircraft were increasingly used in support of troops, while submarines and aircraft proved their worth in naval warfare, capturing even the much-touted Dreadnought battleships.

PROPAGANDA

Drum & Flag, Moral. Kleiney urged, for volunteers to join the British army in a famous poster. New techniques of stirring, designed to promote consumer goods, were applied to selling war.

THE WAR ENDS

After a final German offensive and Allied counteroffensive in 1918, Armistice ended with all the Allied troops in Germany territory.

GERMAN FIGHTER

The Fokker D.VII used a late war single-seat fighter. Its top speed was 187mph (170kph).

TRENCH WARFARE

General on the Western Front have been much criticized for launching offensives that achieved little gain at the expense of huge casualties. The combination of barbed wire, machine guns, and rapid-fire rifles gave defense the upper hand. The use of artillery bombardment on a massive scale to prepare the way for infantry attacks proved largely ineffective once troops were dug into deep trenches, although improvements in tactics, such as the use of creeping barrages, did help. Communication, mostly by telephone land line, was thoroughly inadequate for the proper command and control of such large armies. Both sides found it difficult to exploit any breakthroughs that they achieved. However, tactics evolved that permitted a return to more fluid warfare in 1918.

THE COST OF WAR

The strain on morale, both at the front and among civilians, became a crucial factor in a long war with very high casualties. Those states that could no longer command the loyalty of their citizens eventually fell apart under the pressure of total war. The Russian empire was first to collapse in the two revolutions of 1917. Austria-Hungary disintegrated into various national components in the last stages of the war. In Germany, now reduced to near-starvation by a British naval blockade and clearly facing defeat in the field by autumn 1918, Kaiser Wilhelm II was forced to dedicate, replaced by a republic. Friend of political chaos, the Ottoman empire was the last to go, falling shortly after the war’s end. The collapse on the battlefields of the Great War was unprecedented, combat deaths alone totalling between 8.5 and 10 million. Around 2 million German soldiers, 1.8 million Russian, 1.4 million French, 1.5 million Austro-Hungarian, 900,000 British empire, and 300,000 Americans died. The outcome of the war was not peace and stability but more conflict.
GERMANY HAD LONG PLANNED ITS STRATEGY FOR A WAR ON TWO FRONTS AGAINST RUSSIA AND FRANCE. ASSUMING THAT THE RUSSIANS WOULD BE SLOW TO MOBILIZE, THE GERMANS INTENDED TO WIN A LIGHTNING VICTORY OVER FRANCE AND THEN TRANSFER THEIR FORCES TO THE EASTERN FRONT. THE SCHLEFEN PLAN ENvisaged FIGHTING A HOLDING ACTION ON THE FRANCO-GERMAN BORDER WHILE THE MAIN GERMAN FORCES ADVANCED INTO FRANCE THROUGH NEUTRAL BELGIUM. VICTORY OVER FRANCE WAS TO TAKE SIX WEEKS, AFTER WHICH GERMANY WOULD TRANSFER ITS FORCES TO THE EASTERN FRONT. INSTEAD, THE INVASION OF BELGIUM BROUGHT BRITAIN INTO THE WAR AND FRENCH AND BRITISH FORCES PUSHED THE GERMANS BACK FROM THE MARNE, WHERE ON THE EASTERN FRONT A SMALLER GERMAN ARMY WAS UNEXPECTEDLY SURPRISED.

THE WESTERN FRONT

Tannenberg

The Russian army mobilized more quickly and efficiently than its enemies had believed possible. However, its forces were split between taking on the Germans and the Austro-Hungarians. The First and Second Russian armies invaded East Prussia, where, in accordance with the Schleifen Plan, the Germans stood on the defensive. Failing to stop the First Army at Gumbinnen on 20 August and threatened with encirclement by the Second Army, the south German Eighth Army commander Prittwitz proposed abandoning East Prussia. He was instantly dismissed and replaced by Hindenburg, with Ludendorff transferred from Belgium as his chief of staff. The Germans were fully aware of Russian movements, both through aerial reconnaissance and through listening to Russian radio transmissions. Exploiting the excellent railway network of East Prussia, almost the entire German Eighth Army was transferred southwards to face the Russian Second Army, leaving only a screening force in front of the Cossacks.

At the outset, the Russian army mobilized more quickly than expected, and the Cossacks advanced on the Ninth Army, which was still preparing to mobilize. In a desperate attempt to stop the Cossacks from reaching the Danube, the First Army opened a defensive line near Vinnitsa, but the Cossacks continued to advance. The Russian Eighth Army, on the other hand, was unable to advance due to bad weather and supply problems. The Cossacks continued to press the Austrian army, and the Austrian forces were forced to retreat. The Russian army, however, was unable to exploit its victory, and a stalemate ensued.

Paris fell on 21 August 1914, and the British Expeditionary Force (BEF) was ordered to the Channel to take up positions on the right of the French line. Advancing into Belgium, the BEF found itself in the line of march of von Kluck's First Army. The two forces met in Mons, where the British fought a brief but successful action, delaying the effectiveness of their rifle fire. Remaining at the BEF's corps headquarters, the British continued to contain Russian units. Marching 50-40km (30-25 miles) a day in hot weather, they continued south with the French on their left, arriving east of Paris at the start of September.
**THE WESTERN FRONT, 1915**

In 1915 the combatant countries began to marshal their resources for a long war. Waiting for industries to gear up for the mass-manufacture of munitions, both sides ran short of artillery shells. Britain and France drew on the manpower reserve of their empires to supplement their armies at the front. Neither side was committed to passive defence or a war of attrition. The Allies in particular were keen to recapture the areas of France and Belgium that were under German occupation. But the line of trenches that stretched from the Channel to the Swiss border left no room for flanking manoeuvres, while frontal attacks repeatedly failed against trenches fronted by barbed wire and defended by machine guns.

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**GERMAN INFILTRATION**

From April 1915 poison gas—a cocktail of chlorine, phosgene, diphosgene, and mustard gas—was commonly used by both sides in the war. Although much feared and hated—especially on mustard gas, which caused temporary blindness, blistered skin, and raised blisters—gas was expensive for front-line use and was widely used by the Allies. The Allies eventually withdrew to a line closer to Ypres.

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**CHEMICAL WARFARE**

Gas masks were a much-needed form of protection against the gas attack. In the spring of 1915, the British introduced the 

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**THE WESTERN FRONT, 1915**

somewhat of a failure. While half a million of his men attacked in Champagne, on the northern side of the salient, his Tenth Army would strike on the southern side at Vimy. British commander Sir John French stubbornly agreed to support the Vimy operation by attacking in the adjoining sector around Lens. The British infantry advanced behind a cloud of chlorine gas, but it failed to make any impact. When gas disposal failed to get gas to the British front, the British and French made considerable gains over the next few days, but, in the end, these successes were not enough to reverse the outcome of the battle.
“In Flanders field the poppies blow...”

John McCrae, In Flanders Fields, 1915

WITNESS TO WAR

IN THE TRENCHES

The Somme was the Via Dolorosa of the British army. Paschendaele was very nearly a
Gabley Wotdelf thinking led Haig, the British commander-in-chief, to believe that the
German army was finally at breaking point and so he ordered an offensive that he thought
would smash it in two. By now the idealism of 1914 had pained away, along with
hundreds of thousands of soldiers on both sides. Inured to suffering though they might be, the
troops who fought at Passchendaele would be indelibly imprinted on a new theatre of horror.

Private TC Bell 9th Battalion Army Cyclist Corps, 1917

“Any dent in the ground you’d stick your head down as far as you could ram it. There might be a shell-hole, there might not, but you had to lay flat on the ground when these creeping barrages came, and they were terrible things. You don’t think you’re coming out of it. There’s the blast of them, you know, and you can hear the steel, awful sound, piece of steel as it goes by you. It would cut you in half, a piece of that shell. You can’t imagine it — every night, every night, every night.”

The offensive began in July 1917. Half-crazed by the sound of shelling, the scarcely
trained, bewildered soldiers on both sides were often reduced to delusional behavior, barely
able to comprehend their surroundings, let alone act effectively in fighting troops. Advancing over the top, following in the wake of the steel rail of their own creeping barrage, the infantry faced a many-headed death, by shell splinters, exploding mines, machine-gun fire, the shot of cold steel, or the long-choking agony of gas. The first few days of fighting were controlled by a tiny salient beyond Messines Ridge, a slice of land that served only as a more effective killing field for the German defenders.

“Darkness alternates with light as bright as day. The earth trembles and shakes like a jelly... And those men who are still in the front line hear nothing but the drum-fire, the groaning of wounded comrades, the screaming of fallen horses, the wild beating of their own hearts, hour after hour, night after night. Even during the short respite granted them, their exhausted brains are haunted in the weird stillness by recollections of unlimited suffering. They have no way of escape, nothing is left them but ghastly memories and resigned anticipation... The battle-field is really nothing but one vast cemetery.”

Gustav Goetsch, a German soldier and former theology student from Baden in a letter four days before his death, 14 August 1917

Along the Merin Road, the British columns marched to their doom. The deadly storms of the
preliminary bombardment stripped the spine of German resistance, but it also reduced the canal-crossed terrain to a poth-marked, churned-up slurry of mud. With unseasonal rains added to this quagmire, the Allied assault became hopelessly emmired. Nobody could pass to the front except over duck-board and the troops thus channelled became all the more easy targets for German shells and snipers. Those who strayed from the path met an awful end, literally drowning in the mud, their lungs clogged with filth, and little or nothing could be done to save them.

Private R Le Roux 4th Canadian Division, 1917

“Any tunic open, I nearly vomited. His insides were spilling out of his stomach and he was holding himself and trying to push all this awful stuff back in. When he saw me he said, ‘Finish it for me, mate. Put a bullet in me. Go on, I want you to. Finish it!’ He had no gun himself. When I did nothing, he started to swear.”

“Three blood-soaked months later, the original objective of Passchendaele village was
almost in the Allies’ hands. On 26 October a new push was made, spearheaded by the
Canadian divisions. In just one day they suffered 12,000 casualties, a gun that could be measured at an inch for each man fallen. Haig’s great gamble had barely dented the German line and neither another year would pass and a string of “final offensives” be launched before the agony of the two armies would end. Only the rows of white crosses, the weeping blood-red fields of poppies, and a host of diaries, letters, and poems bear witness to those who fell.

Private TC Bell 9th Battalion Army Cyclist Corps, 1917

“If you could hear, at every jolt, the blood
Come gurgling from the froth-corrupted lungs,
Obscene as cancer, bitter as the cud.”

John McCrae, In Flanders Fields, 1915

“‘It was one of our infantrymen and he was
sitting on the ground, propped up on his elbow
with his tunic open. I nearly vomited. His insides were spilling out of his stomach and he was holding himself and trying to push all this awful stuff back in. When he saw me he said, ‘Finish it for me, mate. Put a bullet in me. Go on, I want you to. Finish it!’ He had no gun himself. When I did nothing, he started to swear.”

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John McCrae, In Flanders Fields, 1915
1916–1917

IN THE VAST BATTLE OF VERDUN THE Sonneur killed soldiers in their hundreds of thousands, while general strategists vainly tried to find a tactical approach that would allow them to achieve and exploit a breakthrough. By mid-1917 the Germans stood on the offensive on the Western Front, the French were ruled by caution, and the British army continued to grow and attempt massive offensives. Meanwhile, as Germany suffered under naval blockade by the British fleet, the German high command took the momentous decision to resort to unannounced U-boat warfare in February 1917. This brought the United States into the war the following April, though it was a year before the Americans had an impact on the battlefield.

THE WESTERN FRONT

GENERAL PÉTAIN

Prince Philippe-Pépin’s role as Verden made him a national hero. Appointed command-in-chief of the French army in 1917, he succeeded in spurring morale with a judicious mixture of concessions and punishment. He was a cautious and methodical commander who believed “offensive never conveys a position andにとって occupies it.”

THE NORTH SEA

Jutland

THE ROYAL NAVY

Jutland, shortly before the Queen Mary sunk

U-BOATS

Following Jutland, the Germans moved to saturation U-boat warfare.

CARNAGE AT VERDUN

Around half a million were dead at Verdun in 1916. The German pureed impetuous of inflicting massive casualties on the French without suffering lesser losses themselves.

DOUMOURNY

A dummy and bearer at Fort Douaumont, one of the most heavily armed forts at Verdun.

1916–1917

NIVELLE OFFENSIVE

General Robert Nivelle replaced Joffre as French command-in-chief in December 1917. He claimed to be able to “win the war in 48 hours” by concentrating his forces in a single massed attack and applying new tactics. After a massive bombardment of enemy lines, his infantry would advance on a wide front below a rolling barrage, supported by tanks. Nivelle suffered his first setback when the Germans successfully withdrew to the strong Hindenburg Line defences. The offensive was then repeatedly postponed because of bad weather. By the time the attack was struck on 16 April, the Germans were fully prepared. The French tanks consisted of old field gun and the rolling barrage was too far ahead of the infantry, who were consequently cut down by machine guns and shells.

WORLD WAR I RIFLES

European armies entered World War I armed with hot-activated rifles firing spring-loaded clips of multiple rounds inserted into the magazine. The British Lee-Enfield rifle fired an iron-cased bullet at a velocity of 3,000 feet per second and had a maximum range of 2,100 yards. The French Chassepot rifle had a range of 300 meters (0.300 yards) and was hand-carried. It had a range of 100 meters (100 yards).
In 1915 French commander-in-chief General Joffre planned a major offensive for the following year. It was to be a joint Anglo-French operation at the junction between the two allied forces at the Somme. The German offensive at Verdun in February 1916 changed the strategic situation, but Joffre urged the British to go ahead with the Somme offensive to take the pressure off Verdun. French participation was deeply reluctant, General Douglas Haig, commander of British forces in France since December 1915, planned the destruction of German defences by preparatory bombardments. The intensity would then advance behind a rolling barrage and occupy enemy lines almost unopposed. Tactical instructions for the battle stated, "The advancing troops must push forward as a steady pace in successive lines." The preparatory bombardment started on 11 June, the British fired over a million shells along a 30km (18.5-mile) front, while a score of German batteries were exploded under German gun positions. Yet none of this seriously affected the well-built German trenches. As tens of thousands of heavily laden British soldiers plodded across no-man's land on the evening of 1 July, the rolling barrage lifted ahead of them and Germans emerged from their trenches to meet their machine guns. The bayed wire in front of the German trenches had not been destroyed. The infantry, many of them New Army volunteers, were mown down. In one day the British suffered 35,499 casualties, 21,162 of them killed or missing. One of Haig's staff, fearing the realisation of the realisation commented that the result "only failed of success because dead men can advance no further." On the western wing of the offensive, the French did much better. Over following days and months, gains were made. The battle certainly achieved its objective of drawing German artillery and troops away from Verdun. It provided the British army with an offensive, if bloody, education in warfare. It also created a heavy toll from the German army, whose own attacks met the same fate as those of the Allies. But the Somme had not been intended as part of a war of attrition; it was supposed to achieve a decisive military advantage. Yet the losses of the Somme campaign, on 13 November, was the capture of Beaumont Hamel, which had been one of Haig's five-day objectives.
Vinny Ridge

The first day of the British operation was a striking success, especially for the Canadian Corps, commanded by General Julian Byng. The Canadians’ target was the formidable German defences on Vinny Ridge. A five-day artillery bombardment had_npc; the German defences, but the defenders were taken by surprise when Canadian troops emerged from trenches that had been dug to bring them closer to the German line. Advancing through smoke they were almost on top of the defences before the Germans responded. Many were captured in their boots, though the initial success was not exploited, the gains of the ridge were not an important victory.

The Italian Front

Caporetto

Suddenly entered the war against Austria-Hungary in 1915. After a series of engagements along the Aigove Fronts, in August 1917 the Italian at last achieved a breakthrough. Seriously weakened by massive losses in their Eastern Front war against Russia, the Austro-Hungarian empire appealed to Germany for military support. Seven divisions from Hattler’s Eighth Army at Ragusa were transferred to the Italian Front, combining with Austrian divisions to form a new army under German General Otto von Below. Italian commander General Luigi Cadorna was aware of this move and prepared his numerically superior forces on the defensive. By concentrating his forces, however, von Below achieved local superiority at the point of attack.

Mountain Artillery

Alpine mountains were difficult terrain for fighting. From trenches, machine guns, and mortars, the Austro-Hungarian artillery was capable of massing great numbers in conjunction with their forces on the main line. The Italians were initially unprepared for the scale of the attack.

Breathing Apparatus

Fighting in mountainous terrain was difficult. In order to improve the soldier’s ability to breathe, a new type of oxygen breathing apparatus was developed.

THE WESTERN FRONT

Paschendaele

The Third Battle of Ypres, popularly known as Passchendaele, was a British-led offensive campaign planned by General Haig, who had long believed in the potential for a decisive break through in Flanders. Haig gained overwhelming support for the operations from his staff officer, British Prime Minister David Lloyd George, partly through arguing that it might lead to the seizure of German submarine bases at Blackpool and Ostend on the Flankers coast. The success at Messines was taken by Haig as confirmation of his view that the German army was now near to breaking point. After a preparatory bombardment lasting 15 days and involving 6 million shells, the offensive began on 31 July with the British Fifth Army, under General Hubert Gough, backed by British and French formations. Commanded by Crown Prince Rupprecht, the Germans had prepared a defence in depth, with a relatively lightly held front line backed by powerful counterattacks.

Men with serious wounds... crawled for safety into new shell holes, and now the water was rising among them and, powerless to move, they slowly drowning. Eulogoten, 8th Warwickshire Regiment

The Germans used small-scale actions and never exhausted their artillery support. By 4 October they had taken Polygon Wood and Broodseinde. Instead of taking this chance to declare a victory and stop, however, Haig continued the offensive on Passchendaele Ridge, telling his officers: “The enemy is fighting... a good decisive blow might lead to decisive results.” This was not apparent to his troops, mostly by Canadian and Americans, who carried on the final stage of the offensive, flooding in mud as weather worsened and facing fresh German reserves supplied with more gas. The Canadians finally captured the remnants of Passchendaele village on 6 November, after a week-long battle. The cost of the battle was a subject of controversy for many years and has remained so ever since. Clearly, if Allied forces suffered heavy casualties and were demoralized by fighting in such conditions, the same was true for the Germans. However, the distinguished British military historian John Keegan has written: “The point of the battle of Passchendaele... defies explanation.”

DOUGLAS HAIG

One of the most controversial figures in British military history, Sir Douglas Haig became the commander of the British army in December 1915. He had previously commanded an Irish division in the Boer War, based on region beliefs: “I know the army, I know the troops, and I know the hands of the Divine Power.” His critics found Haig’s public appearances in 1915-17 to be at times embarrassingly similar to those of his contemporary, General Sir John French, who had been forced to resign in 1914.

SHELLED LANDSCAPE

Australian troops pass along duckboards at platform level. They were made of timber frames or lattice work, with boards or a similar material laid on top to make a solid path through the mud.
The Eastern Front

Kereneksi Offensive

Before the Fall

Russian soldiers bore arms. Tor, Nicholas II. The tsar's decision to assume command of the armed forces meant that he was field personally responsible for military successes.

Kereneksi believed that a successful offensive would restore the morale of the army and dispel peasant sentiments behind the provisional government. He seriously undermined the discipline in the armed forces, where soldiers' councils (srab) challenged the authority of officers and peasant soldiers were led to go home to serve local landowners. Launched on 1 July after a two-day preliminary barrage, the offensive at first made progress, especially against the Austrians in the south, but quickly ran out of steam as German reserves came into play. When the Germans imposed a counter-offensive in the second half of July, the Russian army was dispirited.

"If we are not fully confident of success, we should go on the offensive... The faster we throw our troops into action, the sooner their passion for politics will cool!"

Russian General Mikhail Alekseyev, before the offensive, June 1917

The Bolshevik Revolution

After the defection of Commander-in-Chief General Samoilovich, on 29 March, 1917, the Tsar's army had accepted the need to continue the war to protect the revolution against "German militarism". In April, however, Bolshevik leader Vladimir Ilyich Lenin returned from exile with German help and persuaded the Tsar's party to a policy ofpreparedness and peace. After the abdication of the Kereneksi Offensive (February), Russia had no effective army left to defend itself.

LENIN Russia

On 7 October 1917 (25 September O.S.), Lenin and the Bolsheviks captured the port of Petrograd and advanced along the Baltic, scoring a direct strike on Petrograd. General Lavr Kornilov, who had been ordered to suppress the Bolsheviks, was arrested, but on 27 October, the Bolsheviks seized control of the capital and Lenin assumed the head of a revolutionary government. He immediately declared Russia at peace in the context of a general appeal to soldiers and workers to put an end to the war against their capitalist rulers and the German armistice.

Vladimir Lenin

When World War 1 started, Russian revolutionary politician Vladimir Lenin was in exile in Switzerland, where he denounced the war as a "necessary" conflict. After the fall of the Romanovs, he was accorded a special offer of transport to Russia. His sudden and substantial increase in public power扫地革命 led him to accept the title of President of Petrograd in March 1918, but he was urged nowhere else in the world to join the newly formed fools of the Civil War and the Red-Bolshevik War.
**1918**

**THE LAST YEAR OF THE WAR**

Brought by tedious battles on the Western Front to the ultimate of the trenches finally broke. The German's gamble on unlimited submarine warfare had brought the United States into the war, but they believed victory was still possible before American troops arrived in force. Large-scale German offensives began in March 1918 achieved substantial gain but no knock-out punch, and from July the Allies counterattacked. Facing military defeat and political collapse, Germany was forced to accept armistice terms in November.

**Final Offensives**

**Belleau Wood**

In May 1918 around half a million American soldiers had arrived in France. One June the US 2nd Division was given the task of recapturing Belleau Wood. The 4th Marine Brigade attacked across an open field swept by German machine-gun fire, taking heavy casualties. The Marines and 3rd Infantry Division advanced by digging in and using their dead, but until now only regained until June 16. The battle showed the qualities of American troops, but also their inexperience which was to cost them dearly.

**1918-1919**

**John Pershing**

A veteran of wars in the Philippines and Mexico General John Pershing was selected to lead the American Expeditionary Force and persuaded US politicians and military leaders in Europe of the need for an American army. Since 1915 Pershing has been preparing American troops for the German advance, using up insubordinate newspapers, and without achieving any decisive objective.

**Stormtroopers**

Elite forces comprised the Kaiserkindle effectively pressing deep into enemy lines.

**Paris Shell Damage**

The spring offensive brought German gun Batterie Blumen (36 miles) of Paris, which was hit by over 1,000 shells.

**Second Marne**

The offensive had ended with the 10th German Army still in control of the French capital. But it was all already downhill when the Allied counteroffensive opened at dawn on 15 July. With 250,000 men, over 500 tanks, and German losses of 100,000, the Germans were forced to stage a general withdrawal over two weeks, filling back before the advance. The Allied cavalry continued to press forward, taking over 100 miles of German territory in the last four months of the war. The fighting continued through weeks of political and diplomatic maneuvering. On 20 October the German high command issued an ultimatum. On 11 November, World War I ended. Projecting a mood of balance as well as moral victory, the German military was reconciled to defeat.

**1918-1927**

**Erich Ludendorff**

Victor at the Front and Tsarist officer Ludendorff a German national hero he maintained the German war effort from August 1918, creating a partially controlled war economy and ruthlessly pursuing total victory. After the war he promoted the myth that the German army had been "stabbed in the back" by socialists and Jews, and became a leading figure in the early Nazi movement.
MARK IV TANK

TANKS WERE FIRST USED BY THE BRITISH DURING THE SOMME OFFENSIVE ON 15 SEPTEMBER 1916. EARLY MODELS WERE SLOW AND UNRELIABLE BUT SHOWED THE VEHICLE'S OVERWHELMING POTENTIAL.

In 1915 the British began designing a secret new vehicle, using the American Holt caterpillar tractor as the basis for its chassis. The Mark IV, introduced in 1917, incorporated thicker armour plating than the Mark I, unveiled the year before. Like all the early models, the Mark IV was a heavy tank in which mobility was sacrificed to armour. It was employed to lead infantry across no man's land, smashing a path through barbed wire and trenches.

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

Although they defied machine guns, heavy tanks were still vulnerable to artillery fire. When operated on over muddy ground, they could bogged or break down. At the battle of Cambrai in 1917, about 324 British heavy tanks, although left out on open ground, demonstrated what the vehicle could achieve if properly used. Lighter, quicker tanks such as the British Whippet and the French Renault FT-17—which introduced the rotating gun turret—proved their worth in the more open warfare of the war's later stages.

HULL ON TRACKS

Over 3,000 Mark IV tanks were built, more than any other model of its day. The tank went from concept to successful design over the course of World War I.

SPECIFICATION

| Gage | Steam | Rated (approx. 4 to 6.4k) | Horsepower | 15
| Calf | 5 | Weight (in tons) | 2

DITCHED TANK

Mark IV's frequently failed to cope with the mud, trenches, and camouflage. Delays in the Winston Foxtrot battlefields.

TRACK PLATE

The tank rested on two rows of metal links running around rollers. On power, around this was a roller to prevent wheels.

STEEL PLATE

Mark IV and IVc tanks had thicker armour than earlier models to withstand German armour-piercing bullets. But so, the impact of bullets on the outside steel armours lying on the tank's main, so the crew had to wear protective clothing.

ENGINE

Mark IV tanks ran on 250hp Gardner engines. The engine was exposed so that crew could keep it cooled, and the chromed was the rule and the norm, as well as the need to bridge enemy engine parts. The inner weight was easy to detect since the engine often overheat, and axle not quick.

VISION PORTS

Every crew had to wear face masks.
BETWEEN THE WARS

IN 1918 THE MILOUS HOPE was expressed that World War I would prove to have been a war to end wars. An international organization, the League of Nations, was set up in the war’s immediate aftermath to preserve peace and promote disarmament. This impulse was maintained through the following decade: in August 1928, 15 countries, including Britain, Germany, France, the United States, and Japan, signed the Kellogg-Briand Pact, solemnly outlawing war. Yet within less than five years of that agreement, Germany had a Nazi government dedicated to rearment and aggressive expansionism, and Japan had already embarked on the first of the military adventures that would lead to World War II.

AFTER WORLD WAR I

Germany never shook off the bitterness of defeat or accepted the financial sacrifice it was forced to make by the terms of the peace treaty. When reparations payments fell behind in 1923, Russio-Belgian forces occupied the industrial Ruhr; Germany’s economy, already heavily in debt, hyperinflated. Meanwhile the establishment of the first communist government in the Soviet Union created an ideological division that complicated power relations between the states. Although much of public opinion had shifted against the glorification of war—seen as shown by a surge of anti-war literature in the late 1910s—some ex-servicemen came out of World War I with a devotion to militarism and nationalism, exasperated by the fact that, who took power in Italy in 1922, and the German Nazi Party, which attempted a coup in 1923.

AGAINST WAR

Ernst Reuter’s 1929 novel All Quiet on the Western Front was one of the books that established the image of World War I as a “Jute’s shadow.”

CIVIL AND COLONIAL WARS

Between 1918 and 1923 the major armed conflicts were essentially a settlement of latent issues from World War I. In Russia a complex and immensely destructive civil war left the Bolsheviks in control of most of the former Russian empire, while a short, sharp war with Poland established Russia’s western border. Turkish nationalism defined a carve-up of Anatolia devised by a peace treaty imposed on the old Ottoman empire and fought a successful war with Greece to establish the state of Turkey. Colonial powers devoted some of the air power developed in World War I in “imperial policing” operations—the Italians against rebels in Libya, the French and Spanish against Abd el-Krim in Morocco, and the British against Kirth and the French in Iraq. The use of aerial bombardment—sometimes with poison gas—by immediate tribal peoples was regarded as an economic way of upholding authority.

ITALIAN INVASIONS

Italian troops met with local people during the invasion of Ethiopia in 1935. European dominance failed to suit Italy’s aggressive leaders.

NAZI LEADER

Adolf Hitler delivers the final blow to the Third Reich in 1945. His early experience of war shaped his brutal world view. If he were not the racial purity of the Third Reich.

SOVIET STATUE

Iron Stalin’s statue was made for the Soviet Pavilion at the Paris Exhibition of 1937. Soviet communism created an inspiring example in its repression of world politics.

SLIDE TO WAR

The 1930s was a decade of widening warfare, culminating in World War II. The collapse of German democracy under the impact of economic depression allowed Adolf Hitler’s Nazi Party to come to power in 1933. Hitler’s regime was open to the revision of World War I. It greatly enhanced German power by joining Austria and the Sudetenland area of Czechoslovakia to the Reich. In Japan, militarists gained control of the government and followed an expansionist policy in Asia, seeing Manchuria in 1931 and embarking on a full-scale invasion of China in 1937. Italy’s conquest of Ethiopia—A League of Nations member state—in 1935-36 produced such a threat that “collective security” was dead. When civil war broke out in Spain in 1936, Italian fascists and German Nazis fought for the Nationalist side, while the Soviet Union backed the Republican government.

1933-1945

BENITO MUSSOLINI

Begging Italian dictator Mussolini came to power in 1922 after threatening to march on Rome with his black-shirted paramilitary fascist combat squads. The hostility of France and Britain to the expansion of Ethiopia in 1935-36 led him to form an alliance with Hitler. Italian troops participated in the Spanish Civil War, but Mussolini hesitated to come World War II until June 1940. Invasion of Greece in World War II began when the Allies invaded Italy in October 1943 and set up a puppet ruler in southern Italian fascists killed him in the end of the war.

STAR OF DAVID

Hitler forced Anne Frank and her family into hiding in 1944.

JAPAN AT WAR

Japanese troops won the invasion of China in 1937. The start of the Sino-Japanese conflict is often regarded as the true beginning of World War II.

1914-PRESENT

FIGHTER PLANE

The German Messerschmidt Bf109 was one of the high-performance monomaxes invented in the 1930s.

AIR WARFARE

The ceiling of the 1930s differed from that of World War I primarily in the increased role of air power. The heaviest casualties caused by the Japanese bombing of Nanking in China, and the German air attack on the city of Guernica in Spain suggested that a war between the major powers might begin with the immediate laying waste of cities by bomber aircraft. As rearmament got under way in the second half of the 1930s, the key focus was on aircraft. Only the Germans devised tactics for using aircraft in conjunction with tanks and other ground forces.

BACK TO WAR

The German invasion of Poland kicked off World War II in September 1939 as Europe was plunged into a major war.
RUSSIA AND CHINA AT WAR

THE AREA OF THE GREAT EURASIAN LANDMmass stretching from the Baltic to the Pacific was the site of upheaval and wars in the early half of the 20th century. In the former Russian Empire, the Soviet Union was founded after extensive warfare between forces opposed to the revolution of 1917 and those aligned with the Russian czar. In China, a Kuomintang (nationalist) government struggled to establish its rule nationwide, resisted by warlords and communists. Exploring China's weakness, the Japanese encroached on northern China in a series of military operations between 1931 and 1933, occupying Manchuria and forcing the Chinese to withdraw all troops north of Beijing. But the timing of Japan's invasion of China in 1937 failed to achieve a swift victory, despite the capture of major cities.

RUSSIAN CIVIL WAR

Russian Civil War

**DATE: May 1918 – November 1920**

**PROTESTANTS:**

- 500,000 killed
- 10 million displaced

In mid-1918 the Russian Bolshevik government was threatened by a variety of forces: Czarist former prisoners of war, who took control of the trans-Siberian railway; forces from Britain, France, the United States, and Japan, who occupied areas around key ports; and revolutionaries in Ukraine and other ethnically distinct areas. The “White” armies led by former officers were most prominently General Anton Denikin and Admiral Alexander Kolchak — who wished to suppress the revolution. Bolshevik leader Leon Trotsky had built up the Red Army from scratch. Like the White armies, it was commanded by former officer officers, the most effective of whom was Mikhail Tukhachevsky. Trotsky attempted to foment an insurrection that resulted in the withdrawal of the Bolshevik forces (who had been on a war of raids fought by their Red Army of some 400,000 men) from the city areas. Overall, the Red Army was deploying naval power as a “wobbliness” to the east, as a war of revolution, to extract concessions from the Western powers.

POLISH-BOHEMIAN WAR

Warsaw

**DATE: July 3 – October 18, 1920**

**Location:** Warsaw

In May 1920, with the support of Romania, Czechoslovakia was invaded by Polish forces under General Józef Piłsudski. The Polish-Soviet War continued until the signing of the Peace of Riga on November 12, 1921. The Polish-Soviet conflict was fought between the Polish Union and the Soviet Union, which resulted in the partition of Poland and the creation of the Polish-Soviet Union.

**JAPAN INVADES CHINA

Japanese Invasion of China

**DATE: March 7 – November 18, 1937**

**Location:** China

On July 7, 1937, Japan sent troops to Manchuria to disrupt the negotiations between the Soviet Union and China. On August 10, Japanese troops occupied the city of Shangqiu, and the Chinese forces began their withdrawal to the city of Nanchang. On August 11, Japanese troops occupied the city of Nanchang, and the Chinese forces withdrew to the city of Nanchang. On August 12, Japanese troops occupied the city of Shangqiu, and the Chinese forces began their withdrawal to the city of Nanchang. On August 13, Japanese troops occupied the city of Shangqiu, and the Chinese forces began their withdrawal to the city of Nanchang. On August 14, Japanese troops occupied the city of Shangqiu, and the Chinese forces began their withdrawal to the city of Nanchang. On August 15, Japanese troops occupied the city of Shangqiu, and the Chinese forces began their withdrawal to the city of Nanchang. On August 16, Japanese troops occupied the city of Shangqiu, and the Chinese forces began their withdrawal to the city of Nanchang. On August 17, Japanese troops occupied the city of Shangqiu, and the Chinese forces began their withdrawal to the city of Nanchang.

**THE NIEPOTRÓW INCIDENT

**DATE: May 28 – June 18, 1939**

**Location:** Niepotrow

The Niepotrow Incident was a conflict between the Polish and Soviet Armies in the area of Niepotrow in Poland. The incident occurred on May 28, 1939, when a Polish patrol came under Soviet fire. The Polish forces responded with their own fire, and the conflict continued for several days. The incident heightened tensions between the two countries and contributed to the outbreak of World War II in September 1939.
**SPANISH CIVIL WAR**

In July 1936 army officers tried to overthrow Spain’s Popular Front government, but the attempted coup was successfully resisted by workers’ militias. The resulting civil war lasted for three years and cost at least 600,000 lives. Around 40,000 foreigners volunteered in the International Brigades for the government, or Loyalist, side, which also received arms and aircraft from the Soviet Union. Over 60,000 troops from Fascist Italy and the German Condor Legion fought for the rebels, or Nationalists, led by General Francisco Franco. Britain and France maintained a strict neutrality that contributed to Franco’s victory.

**Defence of Madrid**

In October 1936 Madrid was under attack from the Army of Madrid, supported by the south and General Emilio Mola’s Nationalist army. In response the Soviet military supplies was followed on 8 November by the first detailed information on the International Brigades. By then, Nationalist troops were already in the suburbs and the government had fled to Valencia, leaving General José Milera in command. Madrid came under artillery and aerial bombardment, but remarkably in defiance held. The 11th International Brigade, a variety of nationalities including Austrian, communist, and women’s Brigades, formed the vanguard of Soviet tanks and aircraft fought the third battle of Madrid. Madrid lasted six days for the rest of the war.

**Guadalajara**

In February 1937 the International Brigades held the city of Guadalajara in desperate fighting in the Jarama valley. In the wake of the battle, Nationalists prepared an attack towards Guadalajara, according to joint up with Franco’s forces. The initial advance on 8 March, supported by over 100 light tanks supported by artillery, broke the 18th’s held by Nationalists. The town was decided to attack Guadalajara, according to joint up with Franco’s forces. The initial advance on 8 March, supported by over 100 light tanks supported by artillery, broke the 18th’s held by Nationalists. The town was decided to attack Guadalajara, according to joint up with Franco’s forces. The initial advance on 8 March, supported by over 100 light tanks supported by artillery, broke the 18th’s held by Nationalists. The town was decided to attack Guadalajara, according to joint up with Franco’s forces. The initial advance on 8 March, supported by over 100 light tanks supported by artillery, broke the 18th’s held by Nationalists. The town was decided to attack Guadalajara, according to joint up with Franco’s forces. The initial advance on 8 March, supported by over 100 light tanks supported by artillery, broke the 18th’s held by Nationalists.

**Guernica**

In the Basque area of northern Spain, supported the Republic because it offered the most experienced forces. In spring 1937 General Mola launched a campaign against the Basque country, threatening to run it to the ground. Submissions were not immediate. The Basques put up a brave fight, but by April they were falling back towards Guernica, a major town of symbolic importance as the ‘Vadeo de Basque Country’ of Garci Lozano’s Condor Legion. The Condor Legion under the command of General Varela was carrying out all the nationalists. The Nationalist forces officially marched in, but expressly ‘without regard for civilian populations’. On the afternoon of 26 April, the Condor Legion struck at Guernica. They might have delivered a blow against Basque morale, or they might have been seeking to destroy a bridge to block the withdrawal of Basque forces. Either way, the effect was devastating. The Hospital Hermida, worst hit in first, followed by Jarabo tanks roughly echoed for bombing missions. In were after waves of ‘church towers’, dropping a mix of incendiaries and 250kg (550lb) bombs, they destroyed two-thirds of Guernica’s buildings. Basque newspaper, Father Alberto Guindases, who arrived at Guernica at the same time as the aircraft, described seeing 500 fighters.

**Ebro**

In summer 1938, in an attempt to define, the Loyalist launched a major offensive across the Ebro river. It was costly, for that, if they demonstrated their ability to fight, the western nations would see that they might not come to their aid. Under General Juan Modesto’s command, the river by boat on the night of 23-24 July, the rest of the time on rivercraft pierced the German troops. The following day 1 August, 10,000 soldiers crossed the Ebro (25 miles), but the Nationalist held a strong position at Calatayud. Both sides suffered heavy casualties in frontal assaults on fortified positions. Nationalist artillery and air support German divisions greatly helped. They were downed by Popular Armas, the newest unit, which aimed huge, their start point by mid-November. A Nationalist victory was verified and captured, completed by 1 April 1939.

**Terruel**

By the winter of 1937 the Nationalists had overran the Basque country and were preparing a offensive against Madrid to besiege the capital, General Vicente Rojo launched an offensive against the Nationalist-held city of Teruel. The attack achieved complete surprise, trapping a substantial Nationalist garrison inside a formidable outer ring of defences. The fighting was intense in the fields, as the sailors on both sides faced to die. On 5 January, after hours of hard fighting, Torell fell to the Loyalists, who then themselves surrounded with encirclement as the major thrust against Madrid began to advance. Avoid minimisations between rival frontal assaults, the Loyalists achieved a fighting withdrawal under aerial and artillery bombardment, once more worsened by the Nationalists’ growing materiel and numerical superiority.

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**SPANISH CIVIL WAR**

**Defence of Madrid**

**Guadalajara**

**Guernica**

**Ebro**

**Terruel**
HITLER'S WAR

WORLD WAR II CONSISTED OF TWO OR LESS DISTINCT CONFLICTS, ONE Fought IN EUROPE AND NORTH AMERICA, THE OTHER IN THE PACIFIC AND ASIA. BETWEEN THEM THEY ARE RECKONED TO HAVE CAUSED THE DEATHS OF OVER 50 MILLION PEOPLE. THE EUROPEAN WAR WAS A CONFLICT OF HITLER'S OWN MAKING, PLANNED AND, TO A GREAT EXTENT, EXECUTED BY HIM.

NAZI TRIUMPHS

The war in Europe began on 1 September 1939, when Germany invaded Poland, provoking a declaration of war by Britain and France. A pact with the Soviet Union, signed just days earlier, allowed Hitler to concentrate on the Western Front. From after Poland's defeat, Germany was not superior to the Allies in numbers of tanks, but it had developed Blitzkrieg tactics, combining air power and armoured divisions to achieve rapid victory in mobile warfare. In a series of lightning campaigns between 1939 and 1941, Hitler extended German control over most of Europe, with only Britain remaining undefeated. When Germany invaded the Soviet Union in June 1941, the war took on an unprecedented scale and ferocity. The following December, after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, Hitler declared war on the United States, which was already heavily involved in support of Britain.

SS INSIGNIA

The SS was a Nazi elite formation that performed well in battle but was responsible for many atrocities. It possessed SS personnel placed a key role in the elaboration of death camps where millions of Jews and other races were executed.

THE TIDE Turns

After December 1941, Germany's hopes of victory rested on crushing the Soviet armies and reducing Britain to submission by a submarine blockade, which would leave the United States confronted by a "fierce Europe" impossible to assault. But from the end of 1942, the tide of battle on the Eastern Front turned with the German defeat at Stalingrad, while in 1943, the U-boat menace was tamed. Victorious in North Africa, Allied troops landed in southern Europe in 1943, taking Germany's main ally, Italy, out of the war. Hitler was thrown back on his belief in secret weapons that might swing the war around, but although Germany developed the first operational jet aircraft and cruise and ballistic missiles—the V1 and V2—they were created too late to have a decisive effect on the war's outcome.

ALLIED VICTORY

Gradually, the United States and the Soviet Union brought their manpower and industrial potential to bear—a remarkable achievement for the Soviets, who had lost most of their industrial regions to German occupation. The Allies produced weapons that were sometimes more sophisticated than their German equivalents but sturdy and manufactured in vast numbers. The German air force—the Luftwaffe—was worn down by the British and American strategic bombing offensive that reduced German cities to ruins. By the time of the D-Day landings in June 1944, it could no longer provide effective air support. Allied air forces had developed an impressive ground-strike capability. None of the major combatants broke under the strain of war; despite a revolt by German generals, the German people fought for Hitler to the last. The alliance led by US president Franklin D. Roosevelt, British prime minister Winston Churchill, and Soviet dictator Josef Stalin also held firm in pursuit of "unconditional surrender." The war ended in 1945 with the Western Allies and the Soviet Union occupying Germany.

RED VICTORY

Soviet soldiers advance through the centre of Berlin in May 1945. By this time, once lighting and aerial bombardment had reduced most of the city to rubble,
BLITZKRIEG

THEY MADE A STRONG CONTRAST in attitudes between the two sides at the outbreak of World War II in Europe. Britain and France had not wanted war and had little enthusiasm for offensive action. In this they were misled. The French had spent a huge proportion of their military budget on the Maginot Line, a series of fortifications on the border with Germany intended for a static defensive war. Nazi Germany, on the other hand, was imbued with a spirit of ruthless aggression. German blitzkrieg tactics were based on speed and decision, hitting the enemy hard at his weakest points and exploiting his disorganization with maximum mobility. Tanks and aircraft were the key weapons that would enable Germany to win this “lightning” war.

1939–1945

HEINZ GUDERIAN
A staff officer in 1918, Guderian became an expert in armoured warfare and in the mid-1930s joined the German army — the Wehrmacht — to hit from the front on the “quick front” (tack) division. He developed and advocated the tank as an offensive weapon and led tank forces in the Battle of France, the Philippines, and the Ardennes. In December 1944, when the situation in Russia was difficult, he directed the 1945 Ardennes offensive, becoming Hitler’s chief staff in 1944.

HEINZ GUDERIAN

In February 1940 the Somme division delivered a properly prepared attack against the Maginot Line in very favourable terrain. The French paid for this by losing the 12th Infantry Division. The operation cost the French 450,000 casualties.

1940–1945

THE BATTLE OF FRANCE

On 10 May 1940 the Germans launched a long-awaited offensive in the west. Missing bold use of air attack and paratroops, they crossed the neutral Netherlands in four days. Division at Last and British tanks at Armentières, the Germans reached the English Channel in 22 days. This refitted the British 6th Armoured Division, which had been knocked out in the Battle of France.

WINTER WAR

The Finnish winter was cold and severe, and the Finns were well prepared. Finland had long winters and a strong tradition of military service. The Finns were well equipped and had a good mix of tanks and artillery. The Finnish success surprised the Red Army, which had expected a quick victory.

WINTER WAR

The Winter War

ANTITANK RIFLE
The Finnish Laki 229 rifle was designed for the “elephant caza” role and used a 93-grain 9mm bullet. It fired a 17.5mm (0.73) bullet and was designed for use in the Finnish Army. The Finnish Laki 229 rifle was designed for the “elephant caza” role and used a 93-grain 9mm bullet. It fired a 17.5mm (0.73) bullet and was designed for use in the Finnish Army.

THE BATTLE OF FRANCE

The Battle of France

DIVISION AT LAST

The British 6th Armoured Division, which had been knocked out in the Battle of France, reached the English Channel in 22 days. This refitted the British 6th Armoured Division, which had been knocked out in the Battle of France.

WINTER WAR

The Winter War

In November 1939 Stalin demanded that Finland cede part of the Karelian Isthmus to the Soviet Union. When the Finns refused, the Soviets launched a huge assault, hoping to finish the operation in two days. But led by veteran Marshal Carl Gustaf Mannerheim, the Finns held their fortresses line north of Sanginiemi, inflicting heavy casualties. Soviet columns were bogged down in the marshes and freezing conditions, and were cut out by Finnish skis troops, who enjoyed unhindered mobility.

WINTER WAR

The Winter War

FINNISH SKIS TROOP
Finnish troops spending on skis in white snow. Winter warfare is no time for women, most of whom had no winter equipment. Thousands of Swedish soldiers died of cold,
After defeating France, Hitler hoped that the British would use for peace, but, under the leadership of Winston Churchill, Britain instead adopted a posture of defiance. Hitler then ordered preparations for a cross-Channel invasion and instructed the Luftwaffe "to overcome the British air force with all its means at its disposal."

The British Fighter Command was well prepared to meet a German air offensive. A chain of radar stations was in place to warn of approaching enemy aircraft to operations rooms, where the progress of the air battle could be monitored. Planes at fighter bases were on constant readiness for take-off. After preliminary attacks over the Channel in July 1940, Luftwaffe operations began in earnest in mid-August. Whenever weather permitted, the Germans had the edge in air combat but lacked clear objectives.

On 2 September the main focus was in the English Channel, where a Luftwaffe attack on the Channel was sidelined by a heavy fog. On 3 September, the main effort was in the Battle of Britain, where the British air force was victorious. The British, however, lacked clear objectives.

British cities, they failed to defend a viable target, limiting the impact of attacks, which never exceeded 300 tons of bombs dropped a night. The "Blitz" showed no sign of breaking the British will to resist. The raids peaked by the end of May 1941, as aircraft were withdrawn for the invasion of Russia.

"Let us therefore brace ourselves to our duties and so bear ourselves that, if the British empire and the Commonwealth last for a thousand years, men will still say: 'this was their finest hour.'"

Winston Churchill, 18 June 1940

LONDON'S BURNING
St. Paul's Cathedral stands surrounded by smoke and fire after an air raid on London in December 1940 during the Blitz. As well as 40,000 killed, 50,000 civilian were injured in the bombings.
WAR IN THE MEDITERRANEAN
ITALY’S ENTRY INTO THE WAR. In June 1940
turned the Mediterranean into a theatre of conflict. Defeats for the United Kingdom – by the British in North Africa and the Greeks in Albania – drove the Germans on to a new front. In the end, Italy paid heavily for its commitment to
the desert war in North Africa, but when the Allies invaded Italy it strangled to prove itself - the ‘soft underbelly’ of Europe that Churchill had hoped when Italy surrendered to the Allies in 1940, the Germans continued a vigorous resistance on the Italian peninsula.

The Italian Campaign
Monte Cassino

The Allied invasion of mainland Italy in September 1943 was followed by a gruelling eight-month campaign against the Germans. American, British and French forces battled against the German defenders, who had been reinforced by Italian and German units. The Allies captured the city of Cassino in January 1944, but the German defenders put up a fierce resistance, and the battle for the town continued until late May.

The German General Erwin Rommel led the German forces in Italy and was known for his tactical genius. He was one of the most successful generals of World War II, but he was eventually trapped by the Allies and surrendered to them in May 1945.

The Italian Campaign
Monte Cassino

On 17 January 1944, 50,000 Allied troops landed on the beachhead at Anzio, south of Rome. The Allied forces were under the command of General Mark Clark, who had been appointed to lead the invasion. The Allied forces quickly established a beachhead, and began to advance inland towards the German positions.

The Allied forces were met with fierce resistance from the German defenders, who had been reinforced by Italian and German units. The Allies quickly captured the town of Cassino, but the German defenders put up a fierce resistance, and the battle for the town continued until late May.

The Battle for Crete

The Battle of Crete was fought in May 1941 as a result of the German decision to occupy the island. The German military planners believed that Crete was a key strategic objective that could be used as a base for further operations in the Mediterranean.

The Battle of Crete was fought between 20 and 29 May 1941, and was one of the most important battles of World War II. The German forces were under the command of General Hermann Hoth, while the British forces were under the command of General Bernard Freyberg. The battle began with a massive air assault by the German forces, who were able to quickly capture the island.

The British forces were able to launch a counter-attack, and were able to hold the German forces back for several weeks. However, the German forces were able to successfully hold the island, and were able to use it as a base for further operations in the Mediterranean.

The Battle of Crete was a significant blow to the Allied forces, who were forced to abandon their plans to invade Italy. The battle left the Allies with a significant number of casualties, and was a major setback for their efforts to win the war in Europe.
WAR AT SEA

COMMAND OF THE SEAS WAS ESSENTIAL to the Allied war effort in the European theatre. Without the Atlantic supply line to Britain would have been cut and crucial operations from the evacuation of Dunkirk to the Normandy invasion could not have taken place. Despite some spectacular operations by German surface vessels, Allied naval dominance was contested more effectively by mines and submarines. This came close to throttling the Allied war effort, just as it had been the case in World War I. Where they had sufficient range, the Luftwaffe's land-based aircraft constituted the most insurmountable menace to the Royal Navy, the carrier aircraft of which achieved some spectacular offensive successes, but were unable to provide effective fleet air defence.

In the first months of the war the German pocket battleship GfS Emden, under Captain Hans Langsdorff, managed the North Atlantic, engaging upon Allied merchant shipping. The surface ships were tracked down by a Royal Navy cruiser squadron led by Commodore Henry Harwood. The heavy cruiser Exeter and the light cruiser Ajax and Alacrity had no arrangement to match the GfS Emden's 13-in guns, but nonetheless carried the fight to the Germans. After 80 minutes fighting the Exeter was a burning wreck, while both Ajax and Alacrity had sustained severe damage. But the GfS Emden had been hit and Langsdorff sought refuge in Madeira. The German U-boats were much more resilient. Commodore Henry Harwood had tried to engage the GfS Emden, but was unable to bring the GfS Emden to the surface to finish it off.

The GfS Emden is sunk at the entrance to the Mediterranean on 12 December. Her commander, Captain Langsdorff, committed suicide three days later.

SCUTTLED SHIP

The GfS Emden is sunk at the entrance to the Mediterranean on 12 December. Her commander, Captain Langsdorff, committed suicide three days later.

The battle of the Atlantic was an affair of war waged by Germany to blockade Britain, stripping it of war material. The battle began in earnest in summer 1940, after the fall of France. The German U-boat forces, commanded by Admiral Doenitz, had already embarked on a war of attrition, and they were keen to operate from bases on France's Atlantic coast. The British responded with a carrier task group, groups of merchant ships, and deterred by naval mining. Using sonar to detect submarines and deep charges to sink stealthy U-boats, merchant shipping succeeded in limiting losses of merchant shipping. After the United States entered the war in December 1941, Allied merchant shipping was protected by the United States. Overall, Allied U-boats sank over 180,000 tonnes of shipping in one month. They could now referee at sea, giving them almost unlimited range. They were able to operate within range of the British W终极 warships, and with the U-boats' gunners trained in the latest techniques, the U-boats were a force to be reckoned with. Their only limitation was the U-boats' 1,200 tonne capacity, which was not sufficient to mount a deep-sea operation, but it was sufficient to sink ships which could pose a threat to the Allies.

ENIGMA MACHINE

The prime means of communication in World War II was the Enigma. The Enigma machine was used by the German U-boats to encode their messages. The Allies had captured German naval messages and used them to crack the code and read the U-boat's messages to the submarine's battle in the Atlantic.

SUBMARINE ATTACK

A German U-boat sank a British merchant ship in 1942. Merchant ships had one of the most important jobs in the war, to supply the Allied forces with food and raw materials to fight back against their attackers.

"Stand by for the depth-charge attack! They are falling right alongside now. A roar and a crash in the control room enough to crack our ears!"

HMS Seaward, U-397 - 66 Days Endurance

WAR AT SEA

Battle of the Atlantic

On 12 December 1940, German U-boats began to hunt in packs of 15 or 20 for maximum effect against convoys. The submarines would spread out across the sea lanes in the mid-Atlantic. When one of them located a convoy, it maintained contact while radioing headquarters with the news. Headquarters broadcast a warning signal which guided other U-boats to their prey. Once assembled, they would attack the convoy by the side and attack at night, often penetrating the escort screens on the surface to range the merchant shipping. If detected, they would sink or make repeated attacks.

CRASHED CONVAYS

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GERMAN U-BOAT TACTICS

The British navy was able to respond to the German threat with the arrival of the new British cruiser Doornrath. Doornrath's meeting mechanism, no longer able to escape in pursuit, stopped under fire from battleship Rodney and King George V. The Doornrath was finally sunk by two torpedoes from the cruiser Doornrath.
INVASION OF THE SOVIET UNION

The German invasion of the Soviet Union (Operation Barbarossa) was one of the largest military operations in history. Only a fifth of the immense force that Hitler assembled consisted of armoured or motorized formations; these were 3,500 tanks assigned to the invasion but 700,000 were trains. The invasion force was divided into three: Army Group North, striking towards Leningrad; Army Group Centre, advancing on Smolensk and Moscow; and Army Group South, heading for Kiev. In the Ukraine, Soviet dictator Joseph Stalin had clear warning of the invasion but failed to move his forces. Soviet forces were badly deployed in front of the border. The German onslaught began early on the morning of 22 June with a massive artillery bombardment and air attacks on Soviet airfields. German panzer groups and motorized infantry swiftly enveloped Soviet forces in forward positions, raking hundreds of thousands of prisoners from which

Hitler's Allies

Tanks roll on the Eastern Front. Above, a Romanian tank crew in Operation Barbarossa, along with allies of Germany.

Winter Warfare

In December 1941, alone around 133,000 German soldiers suffered from freezing cold. They had not been given winter equipment because the Soviets were expected to have been defeated by October.

Tankers

The Soviet 76mm anti-tank gun had a siege of 33,000mm (14,200 yards).

Wehrmacht

Hitler wanted to present a view of a war won by the Wehrmacht and tankbusting aircraft. After a week, the theme of the offensive proved out. In the south, Hitler's Fourth Panzer Army did better, but was hampered by a lack of good roads through to Puchkovsk, 75km (20 miles) inside the Soviet defences.

Soviet Medal

The Order of the Red Star was awarded in 1939 for services in defence of the nation. The award is for those who were awarded for services in military operations.

German Invasion of Soviet Union

Barbarossa

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German Invasion of Soviet Union

Kursk

The tank battles of 1943, especially at Kursk, were the greatest tank battle in history. Despite the fact that the Western Allies were victorious in 1944, the war did not end in 1945. The Allied invasion of Normandy in 1944 was followed by the Battle of the Bulge in 1944-45, which saw the German Army retreat and surrender. The war dragged on until 1945, with the Soviet Union playing a key role in the defeat of Nazi Germany.
In late June 1942 German Army Group South launched an offensive in the Caucasus to capture the vital Baku oilfields and so cripple the Soviet war machine. As Hitler's situation the offensive also struck at Stalingrad, a major industrial centre on the Volga. While Army Group A advanced into the Caucasus, Army Group B, comprising Friedrich Paulus's South Army and Hermann Göring's Fourth Panzer Army, headed for Stalingrad.

The city's defence was entrusted to 62nd Army under General-Volk Chvilenk, a young officer with no experience of wartime command. From 13 September the Germans attacked the Stalingrad perimeter with great ferocity, driving the Soviets back to an irregular strip along the west bank of the Volga. Soviet troops clung on, fighting for every building. Supplies and reinforcements were ferried across the Volga each night under German artillery fire. Half-destroyed apartment blocks and factory buildings - the Dzerzhinsky Tractor Works, the Red October Factory - were defended like fortresses. The Germans got inside, fighting continued from roof to floor, killing civilians and the few civilians still in the city.

On 15 September, Hitler declared publicly that the Germans would never leave the city. Stalin ordered Stalingrad to be held at any price. A second push in October took the Germans to within 20km (20miles) of the city. In November they reached the rathskugel. But still the Soviets fought on in pockets of resistance, the two armies in Chvilenk's phrase, "grapping each other in a deadly clench". Meanwhile, Zhukov viewed the massive German effort to take Stalingrad as an opportunity to encircle them. On 19 November, he launched Operation Uranus, attacking in strength from north and south of Stalingrad, stalking through Italian, Romanian, and Hungarian troops on the German flanks. The Soviet forces met on 22 November, snapping shut a giant pincer. Paulus's Sixth Army, instead of allowing the German forces inside Stalingrad to attempt a breakout, Hitler decided to keep them supplied by an air link that proved untenable beyond the Luftwaffe's capacity. Receiving no more than 10 per cent of the supplies they needed, the Germans would starved beg for mercy. Feeding off an attack by a German relief force, Zhukov's forces ground forward through the shattered city.

December, tightening the isolation of Stalingrad, fighting on despite a desperate shortage of ammunition. On 20 January Hitler promoted Paulus to field marshal. That day the German headquarters in Stalingrad was overrun and Paulus surrendered. This resistance crawled on 2 February.

"We have fought for 15 days for a single house... Already by the third day 54 German corpses are strewn in the cellars, on the landings and the staircases..."

An officer of 24th Panzer Division, October 1942

SNIPER RIFLE

Soviet Shpagin and a 5.6Kw Mois-
Nogurtov junkyard rifle with a scope sight. Try sniper Jack Zerem was killed on 14944 Stalingrad.

December, tightening the isolation around the city and freezing winter weather set in. No help came from Army Group A, which was forced by Soviet pressure to extricate itself from the Caucasus and withdraw some 20km (10miles) to the west. Surrounded by饥饿 and

Invasion of the Soviet Union

GERMAN INVASION OF SOVIET UNION

Stalingrad

Shattered City

Soviet soldier advances through the ruins of Stalingrad to scavenge "Binder's Houses", a building held by Sergeant Friedrich Biter of Forty-fourth Guards Regiment with a handful of men.
BOMBER OFFENSIVE

THE BRITISH AND AMERICAN BOMBER OFFENSIVE IN EUROPE was, according to High Command staff, intended to achieve the “destruction and dislocation of the German military, industrial, and economic systems, and the undermining of the morale of the German people.” In daylight raids from 1942 to 1945 the USAAF’s Eighth Air Force lost 26,000 killed; RAF Bomber Command’s night bombing cost 56,000 lives—half of all airmen who took part. But the German response was focused on its most important resource to home defence, including a third of their artillery, the air and the Luftwaffe. German armed forces were deprived of essential supplies, especially fuel. And hundreds of thousands of German civilians died in their raid sites.

Hamburg

British RAF’s raid adopted night-time bombing because their aircraft could not survive over Germany in daylight. House-to-house fighting took any accuracy; they launched mass attacks with front of heavy bombers against cities, hoping the sheer scale of devastation would deliver a decisive blow. By contrast, the USAAF was committed to precision on industrial and military targets. The air raids on the port city of Hamburg in summer 1943 were a combined effort of the RAF and RCAF on B-17s by day. The Germans had developed a sophisticated system of defense against night bombers: radar operators on the ground tracked the bombers and guided night fighters on to their target. Anti-aircraft fire was also directed by radar. Over Hamburg, the RAF destroyed a new countermeasure known as “window.” Bombers scattered strips of aluminium foil, which confused the radar leaving the night fighters in the dark. Blood on the night of 27-28 July 388 British bombers dropped 2,200 tons of explosives and incendiaries in just over an hour.

In spite of all that happened at Hamburg, bombing continued as a comparatively humane method. For one thing, it saved the youth of this country and of our allies from being mown down by the military as it was in the war of 1914–1918.

ARMSHAR MALIR

AIR SHARIL ARTHUR HARRIS

Head of RAF Bomber Command from 1942 to the end of the war in Europe. Harris was an ardent advocate of the bombing of enemy cities. He believed that “Sick bombs” could have won the war outright of the bombers, the industry with which to conduct raids on a large enough scale.

Dambusters

British scientist Dr Barnes Wallis designed a weapon: the “bouncing bomb” that would skip across the river, hopping over as many as possible, before bombing. This weapon used by carrier-command crew to carry out their depiction. The Dambusters attacked the Möhne, Eder, and Sorpe dams.

Braintov Dam

The Möhne dam stores a major part of the water it receives from the river Ruhr. The dam was built between 1927 and 1932.

LOCATION

Braintov, northern Germany

CAPABILITIES: American: 100 bombers, 424 aircraft, German: 27 aircraft

LAUNCHER:

13 May 1943
BOMBS: 40,000 pounds

Dambuster

Dambuster

BOMBER OFFENSIVE

Berlin and Big Week

DATE:

9–11 November 1943–25
March 1944

LOCATION:

Germany

CAPABILITIES:

RAF Bombers: Big Week
USAAF Bombers: Big Week

WERNER SANDERS

General Staff Officer

In the winter of 1943–44 the RAF launched 385 mass night raids on Berlin, accompanied by devastating raids on other cities, driven by the belief that destruction of the capital would force a German surrender. General Carl Spaatz refused to destroy the USAAF’s bomber task force with an all-out attack on the city. Big Week proved the limits of bombing.

"We can wreck Berlin from end to end if the USAAF will come in on it. It will cost us between 400 and 500 aircraft. It will cost Germany the war.

Lt. Arthur Harris, in a letter to Churchill, November 1943

Dresden

By early 1945 the first wave of fighters was in the air and combat strength of fuel had ended Germany’s Aiming for Dresden was not a military target and that the war was in any case already virtually over.

1945 Dresden was an impressively safe city, near our average of people, to destroy cities, to ignore the raids of on 16–17 March 1942
Bomber Command: 899 aircraft, German: 256 aircraft

BOMBER OFFENSIVE

Schweinfurt

Dedicated to attacking German war industries, the USAAF decided to bomb a ball-bearing factory at Schweinfurt and an aircraft factory at Regensburg. These two missions were carried out in the hope of destroying German air defences. The targets were deep inside Germany, far beyond the range of US bombers. The Schweinfurt mission was struck by a smoke screen was virtually undetected; the two targets were limed in to land in East Africa or around the original bomb had been lost.

"Blackout!" A German poster tells its people to turn off all lights as a bomb burst out.

Norden Bombsight

The USAAF’s Norden Bombsight allowed an error of 100 feet to avoid accurate bombing. In 1944, 160 bombs were dropped by 483 aircraft. 99% of bombs were on target.
BOEING B-17 FLYING FORTRESS

A SLEEK FOUR-ENGINED BOMBER, THE BOEING B-17 WAS THE PRINCIPAL AIRCRAFT USED BY THE USAF IN ITS WORLD WAR II BOMBING CAMPAIGN IN EUROPE.

The B-17 was a complex war machine that required ten men to operate: a pilot, co-pilot, navigator, radio operator, bombardier, flight engineers, and four gunners. It was bristling with guns (hence the "Flying Fortress" sobriquet), capable of flying at high altitude, and had a maximum speed of nearly 500km/h (310mph).

BOOM RUN
The role of being hit by a bomb from another B-17 above was one of the hazards of combat.

ARMAMENT
The B-17 could carry a tremendous load of up to 2,400kg (5,300lb) of bombs. Each bomb was marked with two yellow stripes at both ends, indicating that it contained T.N.T.

TURBO ENGINES
A set of superchargers allowed the engines to run at full power between 6,000 and 8,000m (19,700 and 26,250ft).

PROPULSION
Measuring 8.6m (28ft 3in) in diameter, the propellers could propel the plane to a speed of 250mph (400km/h).

OPTIONS
The B-17 could be equipped with a variety of armaments and equipment. Some 10 ball joints of the plane were cut in a specific pattern, and each armament was dropped. The gunner's position was a critical one for the crew.

Ammunition
During combat, the gunner had to fire 200 rounds a minute at 2,000m (6,560ft) to stop the target. Each magazine contained 300 rounds.

Spray bolt mount
Tail gun mount
Sense for flexible gun
Compass for radio operator
Hand-held machine gun
Upper gun mount
Nose Browning machine gun
Chin mount
Tail wheel
Bristol gun
Rear seat

SPECIFICATION
- Wing span: 31m (102ft)
- Length: 22.5m (74ft)
- Weight: 15,000kg (33,000lb)
- Max speed: 450mph
- Range: 3,200 miles

LUCKY-7! The side and co-pilot were official 'lucky 7s' and seated in this position, the machine could afford to take a lot of punishment and still get safely home.

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**Operation Overlord**

**D-Day**

June 6, 1944

**Combined Operations Force**

150,000 men, 5,500 ships, 12,000 aircraft

**German Defences**

The Allies planned the invasion of northern Europe, Operation Overlord, for May 1944. They selected five beaches in Normandy as the landing point while mounting an elaborate deception operation to make the Germans believe the blow would fall farther east on the Pas de Calais. Eisenhower was appointed Allied supreme commander, with Montgomery as commander of land forces. Montgomery's insistence on increasing the number of troops and landing craft destined to the operation forced a postponement to 5 June.

Everything was ready for that date except the weather; a gale blew up and the invasion had to be halted. Faced with an uncertain weather forecast for the following day, Eisenhower took the brave decision to go ahead regardless.

The vast armies of landing craft set off across the Channel in the middle of the night. While American and British airforce ships ahead of them carried out parachute and glider landings, with great success, inflated from the seaward beaches. The German defences on the Normandy coast were only partially complete and manned mostly by second-rate troops. The defenders were taken totally by surprise when Allied warships opened fire on the coastal fortifications. Although troops of 12 nations occupied part of the invasion force was primarily American, British, and Canadian. The bad weather had caused a higher tide than usual, creating unexpected problems getting ashore.

**Operation Overlord**

The Allied invasion of France was the largestshore-to-shore invasion in history, eight divisions were supported by 6,000 ships and 12,000 aircraft. Artificial “Mulberry” harbours were floated across the Channel. Many heavily laden soldiers sank without trace entering their landing craft in too-deep water. Nonetheless, the American landing at Utah beach and the British and Canadian landings on Sword, Juno, and Gold were more or less to plan. The American landing at Omaha beach did not. Most of the American’s tanks and artillery sank without reaching shore. Lightly-equipped infantry were tossed on the beach under fire from concrete bunkers on the cliffs above. By the end of the day the Americans had fought their way off the beach, but at heavy cost.

**British Version Charles Wilson, Gold Beach, June 1944**

In 1942 Eisenhower was appointed commander of 21st Army Group in Europe. The German defences were only partially complete and manned mostly by second-rate troops. The defenders were taken totally by surprise when Allied warships opened fire on the coastal fortifications. Although troops of 12 nations occupied part of the invasion force was primarily American, British, and Canadian. The bad weather had caused a higher tide than usual, creating unexpected problems getting ashore. The Allied invasion of France was the largest shore-to-shore invasion in history, eight divisions were supported by 6,000 ships and 12,000 aircraft. Artificial “Mulberry” harbours were floated across the Channel. Many heavily laden soldiers sank without trace entering their landing craft in too-deep water. Nonetheless, the American landing at Utah beach and the British and Canadian landings on Sword, Juno, and Gold were more or less to plan. The American landing at Omaha beach did not. Most of the American’s tanks and artillery sank without reaching shore. Lightly-equipped infantry were tossed on the beach under fire from concrete bunkers on the cliffs above. By the end of the day the Americans had fought their way off the beach, but at heavy cost.

1942-1945

**Dwight D. Eisenhower**

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GERMANY DEFENDED IN THE WEST

The failure of an attempt to assassinate Hitler in the wake of the D-Day landings meant that the war would have to be fought to a finish. Once the Allies had broken out of Normandy they rapidly liberated most of France and Belgium, and hopes were high for victory before Christmas. But Allied supply lines were stretched to the limit and German resistance once more stiffened. There were delays in bringing Antwerp into use as a supply port and Montgomery’s attempt to break through towards Antwerp in the last week of June, Montgomery there forward three armoured divisions west of the city in Operation Goodwood on 18 July while Carr was dashing by heavy bombers. Goodwood was costly and failed to produce a breakout, but it did pin substantial German forces, helping the Americans break through towards Antwerp in the last week of July.

Bulge

On 25 July US Third Army Group launched an offensive west of the Meuse to push the German Army Group B back towards the Ardennes. The breakthrough was virtually unstoppable and the Germans were driven back towards the river Meuse. By the end of the day the Allies had captured the town of St Vith in Luxembourg. This was the end of the German counteroffensive. The breakthrough was virtually unstoppable and the Germans were driven back towards the river Meuse. By the end of the day the Allies had captured the town of St Vith in Luxembourg. This was the end of the German counteroffensive. The breakthrough was virtually unstoppable and the Germans were driven back towards the river Meuse. By the end of the day the Allies had captured the town of St Vith in Luxembourg. This was the end of the German counteroffensive. The breakthrough was virtually unstoppable and the Germans were driven back towards the river Meuse. By the end of the day the Allies had captured the town of St Vith in Luxembourg. This was the end of the German counteroffensive.

Rhineland

In the spring of 1945 the Allies had to fight their way through the Rhine and then across the river itself into the heart of Germany. The north, with the ports of Hamburg, were under American control. The Rhine was cleared of obstacles by the British 21st Army Group. The German forces under Montgomery had a strong fortification known as the Siegfried Line, which consisted of a three-mile-wide line of fortifications stretching for 500 miles. The line was also strengthened with a series of barbed wire and mines, making it almost impenetrable.

Operation Market Garden

Arnhem

The operation was commanded by Lieutenant-General Horace P. Jones, who was succeeded by Lieutenant-General Sir Richard Gale. The operation was planned to be a surprise attack, but the German forces were able to anticipate it and the British forces were forced to retreat. The operation was eventually abandoned, with the Allies retreating to the south.

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Thousands of white paraschutes dropped through an inferno of flak, while Dakotas crashed in flames.

US soldiers in Arnhem, battle against the Rhine, 24 March 1945

Dakota crashed in flames. The US 82nd Airborne Division was dropped near Arnhem, but the Germans were able to counterattack and drive off the American forces. The operation was a disaster for the Allies, with over 10,000 casualties.
GERMANY DEFEATED IN THE EAST

The summer of 1944 Germany and its allies had suffered a series of military setbacks in the East. The Red Army now prepared to invade German forces. The invasion was a large-scale operation to take the war to Germany. In May, the Red Army crossed the Oder River and advanced into East Prussia. By the summer of 1944, the Red Army had captured a large part of the country and the Allies were approaching the German border. The German army was in retreat, and the Red Army was advancing towards Berlin. The city was captured on 2 May 1945, and the German surrender was announced on 8 May 1945.

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THE PACIFIC WAR

THE ORIGINS OF THE PACIFIC WAR lay in Japan's expansionist policies in China, and to the installation of Japanese troops in French Indochina, led in 1941 to an American-led embargo on oil sales to Japan. This presented the Japanese with a stark choice between abandoning imperial ambitions or fighting a war they could hardly hope to win.

JAPAN'S GAMBLE

Japan's war aims were to conquer China and overthrow the rule of European colonial powers in southeast Asia, creating a "Greater Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere" under Japanese leadership. The Europeans, either at war with or already conquered by Nazi Germany, were singularly ill-equipped to defend their colonies. Taking on the United States, however, was considered unrealistic by many Japanese leaders.

Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto, commander of the Japanese combined fleet, said, "I shall not live for the five to six months or a year, but I have utterly no confidence for the second or third year." But army leader General Tojo Hideki, Japanese prime minister from October 1941, argued that with initial victories would put Japan in a position of power that the United States would have to learn to live with. "America will be outraged at first, but then she will come to understand."

EMBATTLED CONFLICT

The Japanese achieved the early successes they needed in 1941-42 through the guile of their naval aviation and of their infantry, which was especially good at operating in jungle conditions. But after the shock of Pearl Harbor, there was no way the United States would ever come to an accommodation with imperial Japan, even though President Franklin D. Roosevelt pleaded the defeat of Germany first in America's list of priorities. Japanese mistreatment of prisoners of war was a factor that further embittered a struggle characterized by mutual racial contempt.

The Japanese were notoriously reluctant to surrender, but American soldiers courageously gave them a chance to do so. Despite its importance in the origins of the war, China turned out not to be a decisive theatre, even though millions died in the fight against Japanese occupation. Instead the war was primarily decided in the Pacific, in duels between aircraft carriers and naval battles from island to island, until the USAAF dropped atomic bombs on Japanese cities in August 1945. The sky fell with over 200,000 casualties.

UNITED we are strong

NAVAL FLAG

The Rising Sun flag was used by the Japanese navy, a flag modelled on a large coat of arms on the British Royal Navy.

BATTLESHIP KAMIKAZE

Japanese admirals were committed to the importance of battleships, in practice largely irrelevant to a naval war fought by aircraft carriers.

UNITED we will win

SUCIDE BOMBERS

U.S. B-29 Superfortresses use the bomb to bomb isolated Japanese fortifications. 1945. The sky fell with over 100,000 casualties.

DEFEATING JAPAN

The overwhelming success of the United States in war production gave the Japanese no chance in the long term. In 1944 American factories produced nearly 890,000 aircraft and over 16 million tons of shipping, enough to cope with the demands of war in the Pacific and Europe at the same time. The products of this extraordinary feat of economic organization were put at the service of the ever-improving American armed forces. By 1944 both American aircraft and their pilots were so superior that only the adoption of "kamikaze" suicide tactics could allow the Japanese to inflict any serious damage on their enemy. Pitting the spirit of samurai self-sacrifice against overwhelming odds was an admission of failure. Yet, even facing total destruction, many Japanese military leaders still resisted surrender in August 1945.

NUCLEAR WARFARE

In the late 1930s science made governments keen on the industrial and potential of atomic fission. Western Germany and Japan made little progress with nuclear weapons programmes, the US invested $2 billion in the top-secret Manhattan Project, which successfully employed around 120,000 people. Dropped on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945, atomic bombs were a triumph of American technological prowess, opening a new, dangerous era in warfare.

SURRENDER

Japanese general Yoshijiro Umezu signs surrender documents on board USS Missouri in Tokyo Bay, 2 September 1945.
JAPAN'S HIGH TIDE

IN 1941 JAPAN'S WAR PLAN was to invade southeast Asia and some Pacific islands while simultaneously attacking the US Pacific fleet in a base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. This attack, the Japanese reasoned, would stun the Americans and give Japan time to consolidate its conquests and establish a defensive perimeter from the Aleutian Islands, off the coast of Alaska, to Burma (now Myanmar). It was a risky plan that, to a remarkable degree, succeeded in its initial aims. Through cracking Japanese codes, the Allies knew of the enemy's general intentions but were sent reeling by the speed and shock of the Japanese onslaught. Japan, in admiral Chuichi Nagumo's declaration, had "woken a sleeping giant and filled her with a terrible resolve."

THE JAPANESE OFFENSIVE

Pearl Harbor

On 26 November 1941 a fleet of 31 ships, including six aircraft carriers, sailed from Japan under the command of Admiral Chuichi Nagumo, US BLAZING WARSHIPS A scene from the battle for US warships in Pearl Harbor. Japan had mistakenly prepared for the attack, developing special armor-piercing bombs.

intelligence, monitoring Japanese war preparations, missed the fleets, which maintained strict radio silence. As dawn on 7 December the first wave of Japanese aircraft took off from the carriers 600km (200 miles) north of Hawaii. Despite the threat of war with Japan, preventive measures were being observed at the US base, which was completely unprepared for the Nakajima torpedo bombers that skittered in a low altitude and the Fuki dive-bombers that plunged from above. These planes were followed by horizontal bombers lying in wait to strafe any aircraft that flew into the strait of the attack staging area. About 20 Japanese aircraft on their own, the story on the ground was one of individual courage amid collective fear. Despite the immense damage caused, the Pearl Harbor attack was a partial failure, because US fleet carriers were out of port and therefore survived.

DEADLY FIGHTERS Japanese Zero fighters scored the blows in Pearl Harbor for - up to 350 (300 planes) - and highly maneuverable, they could outmaneuver any US aircraft of the time.

"I was asked to go into the water and get sailors out that had been blown off the ships. Some were unconscious, some were dead... I brought out 10 I don't know how many." - John Gerice, US survivor of Pearl Harbor, 1941

THE JAPANESE OFFENSIVE

Hong Kong

On 8 December 1941 Japanese troops crossed the border from China. Operating with artillery and air support, they drove the British back to Hong Kong Island. The first Japanese attempts to cross the straits were repelled, but on the night of 18-19 December they established a bridgehead. Thrusting across the island, they split the defence force in two. One half surrendered on Christmas Eve, the other on Christmas Day.

taken possession Japanese troops take over after the fall of the British garrison. They killed the city until the end of the war.

THE JAPANESE OFFENSIVE

Singapore

On 8 December 1941 Japanese forces landed in Thailand and the Malay Peninsula. Two days later the British garrison at the Malayan Peninsula was lost. Singapore was taken by the Japanese. The British forces surrendered on 15 February 1942. The British prime minister, Winston Churchill, called it the "worst disaster... in British military history."

THE JAPANESE OFFENSIVE

The Philippines

The Philippines were defended by American and Filipino forces under General Douglas MacArthur. He had around 200 aircraft that were expected to play a key role in the defence, but on the first day of the war they were attacked by Japanese bombers and fighters from Formosa (now Taiwan). Meanwhile most of this air force on the ground fell into enemy hands. With the Japanese in control of the air, American military forces withdrew and the surviving B-17 bombers were brought back to the United States. Under General MacArthur, however, the Japanese were powerless to stop MacArthur's counterattack. From bases around the River Crossing Japanese soldiers storm a site in the Philippines after the US defeat. The war of horses and mules - type 89-600 middle - was typical.

THE JAPANESE OFFENSIVE

The British Surrender

British troops made a show of resistance but were overwhelmed by the Axis invasion. The British were forced to retreat, and the British empire was left in ruin.

THE JAPANESE OFFENSIVE

Burma

The British Surrender

British and Commonwealth troops, their speed of movement and superiority in the air were under the impression of overwhelming force. The British commander, General Archibald Wavell, had prepared a last-ditch defence of Singapore, at the same time linking it to the mainland. On 9 February 1942, however, the Japanese succeeded in landing on the island. Believing that he had faced superior forces, Wavell surrendered on 15 February. The British prime minister, Winston Churchill, called it the "worst disaster... in British military history."

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HONOURING JAPAN

This month was the 73rd anniversary of the attack on Pearl Harbor. The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor is remembered as one of the greatest acts of aggression in human history. The attack shocked the world and sparked the United States into war. It is a day that will live in infamy to be remembered as a turning point in World War II.

THE PACIFIC WAR

THE PRESENT
In spring 1942, Japan's Adm. Isoroku Yamamoto, who felt that his naval aircraft and pilots were superior to those of the US, sought to advance Japanese defenses perimeter in the Pacific and drive the US Pacific Fleet into battle. Yamamoto planned joint attacks on the American islands in the northern Pacific and on the US base at Midway Island, to which he sent four aircraft carriers and 16 other warships. US intelligence, having had great success with codebreaking, provided the Pacific Fleet commander Admiral Chester Nimitz with details of the Japanese plan. Nimitz chose to ignore the attack in the Aleutians and focus his forces on Midway. He had three carriers at his disposal—the Enterprise, the Hornet, and the Yorktown—and sent two battle groups to Midway. The morning of 4 June began with a heavy raid by Japanese naval aircraft against airfields on Midway. They were preparing a second raid when they came under attack from American naval aircraft. Decimator torpedoes bombers from the Hornet hit the Japanese carriers first, but all 15 were shot down by Zero fighters. A wave of torpedo bombers from the Yorktown was similarly scattered, although US Wildcat fighter pilots kept the Zeroes in check. Concentrating on the low-flying torpedo bombers, however, the Japanese fighters missed the arrival of Douglas Dauntless dive-bombers from the Yorktown and the Enterprise, which plunged down on the Japanese carriers. Within five minutes three of the Japanese carriers were burning hulks. The fourth carrier delivered a counterstrike against the Yorktown before being damaged in turn by dive-bombers from the Enterprise.

"I saw this glint in the sun and it just looked like a beautiful, silver waterfall, these dive-bombers coming down. I'd never seen such superb dive-bombing."

US pilot Jimmy Thath, recalling the battle of Midway, 1942

Bomb Damage
A Japanese Mogami-class cruiser lost her identity after being stricken by US dive-bombers. The battle of Midway shifted the balance of naval power in the Pacific in favor of the United States.
In 1942 the Japanese navy continued its offensive in the Pacific instead of standing on the defensive as initially planned. This policy led to the heavy losses at Midway that marked a turning point in the Pacific War. From then on, the Americans, faced with losing 326 aircraft and 16 ships, achieved overwhelming naval superiority in large-scale carrier battles and exploiting the experience of US Marines in amphibious warfare. In 1943 the Japanese invaded Burma in January, Crete in March, and the Solomon Islands in August. Without the need for a costly invasion of the Philippine Sea, the Americans took these islands, and the Japanese navy received a severe blow in the Battle of Midway in June 1942. This battle, in which the US Navy defeated a Japanese fleet, was a turning point in the Pacific War. The Japanese navy was never able to recover from this defeat.

**Coral Sea**

Between 20 and 24 May, the US Navy defeated the Japanese navy in the Coral Sea. The US carriers defeated the Japanese carrier force in a battle that lasted three days, during which the Japanese lost 4 carriers and 5 destroyers, while the US lost 1 carrier and 2 destroyers.

**Philippine Sea**

In June 1944 the US Navy defeated the Japanese in the Battle of the Philippine Sea. The US lost 3 carriers and 5 destroyers, while the Japanese lost 3 carriers and 19 destroyers.

**Burma**

The Japanese invaded British-ruled Burma in January 1942, and the British were able to contain the Japanese advance. The British were able to defeat the Japanese in a series of battles in the Arakan and Tenasserim Theater.

**Philippines**

In September 1944, the US Navy defeated the Japanese in the Battle of Leyte Gulf. The US lost 1 carrier and 5 destroyers, while the Japanese lost 4 carriers and 4 battleships.

**Guadalcanal**

The US Navy defeated the Japanese in the Battle of Guadalcanal in late 1942 and early 1943. The US lost 1 carrier and 6 destroyers, while the Japanese lost 2 carriers and 14 destroyers.

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battleships and cruisers to engage the rest of the Allied fleet. Aircraft flying from aircraft in the Philippines would provide air cover. However, Japanese resources were inadequate to carry out this ambitious plan effectively. Two cruisers from Admiral Kurita’s Center Force, moving north from Brunei, were sunk by a US submarine on 20 October and the next day the massive battleship Shokaku was destroyed by US naval aircraft in the Sibuyan Sea. The Japanese decoy force flew near enough to Admiral William Halsey’s Third US Fleet, but on 25 October Admiral Thomas Kincaid’s Seventh US Fleet dashed a fleet of Japanese warships in the Sibuyan Strait. The remaining battleships and cruisers of Admiral Kurita’s Center Force slipped through to engage the escort carrier carriers and destroyers protecting the landing beaches. The Allies lost two of their carriers and three destroyers, but two of Kurita’s cruisers were also disabled and he withdrew to save his remaining battleships.

ON THE BEACH
Some of the 150,000 US troops landed on Leyte landed at the point on a beach. The conquest of the island took two months.

PACIFIC WAR
Leyte Gulf

The decision by the US to invade the Philippines in October 1944 caused much to the personal agendas of General MacArthur, who in 1942 had famously promised to "return". He chose Leyte, one of the smaller islands, as the site for the first landings. The Japanese were determined to counter the invasion, despite a lack of naval aircraft after their defeat at the Philippine Sea. They devised a complex plan in which decoy forces would draw away US carriers, thus enabling Japanese

PACIFIC WAR
Okinawa

After Iwo Jima, the assault on the rugged island of Okinawa was the logical next step towards an invasion of Japan. The island’s commander, General Uchida Mineichi, created similar fortifications on those two Jima in insignificant terrains in the south of the island. He intended to hold out for a long as possible while Japanese soldiers in Fonomo and Okinawa battled the Allied fleet. The landings on 1 April 1945 by the US Tenth Army, a force of army and marines under General Simon Buckner, were unexpected. American soldiers swiftly occupied the island centre and took a relatively short time to overcome resistance in the north. But Uchida’s forces in the southern part were determined American progress to a crawl. Meanwhile, on 6 April the Japanese began massive air attacks on the Allied fleet off Okinawa. raids by up to 700 aircraft in a day overwhelmed the airdefence. Many Japanese pilots were committed to kamikaze missions, using their aircraft as flying bombs to sink the ships of US warships. American losses were heavy, with destroyers on radar picket duty between the fleet and the air bases suffering very heavily. But the attacks on Okinawa cost around 1,200 Japanese pilots. On land, American soldiers fought a savage struggle to clear bunkers, caves, and trenches. Using flamethrowers or grenades to clear strongholds, they often killed everyone inside, including civilians. General Uchida was among those who died in a bomb that landed into JAL. General Uchidais and other senior Japanese commanders committed ritual suicide before resistance ceased.

KEEPING WATCH
Later that night, the Japanese sent a signal that Japanese opposition from the east of Okinawa. The ship was a target to a kamikaze attack that killed five men.

PACIFIC WAR
Iwo Jima

The tiny volcanic island of Iwo Jima was targeted by the United States as a stepping stone to the invasion of Japan, and a potential base for future fighters. Gaining the interests of the US Japan reinforced the island’s defenses in the winter of 1943-45. General Kamekichi Tadahiro made two Jima a feature of pillboxes, bunkers, trenches, trenches, and fortified caves, densely defended by an array of artillery. Rejecting social change, Tadamichi transitioned to light in favor of heavy and held out as long as humanly possible. The strength of two Jima’s defenses, American military leaders planned to use point-blank shellfire from warships to flush out the Japanese, but President Roosevelt refused to authorize this. Still, the conventional bombardment of the island in the weeks prior to the landings was prolonged and heavy. It had little effect. The first wave of Marines approached the beaches at 6.30 on 19 February, the lead landing craft moving the beach with rocket and machine guns while supporting arm at naval forces battered Japanese positions. But when amphibious vehicles came ashore, they quickly began moving in the steep volcanic soil. The Marines were pinned on increasingly crowded beaches, exposed to fire from pillboxes on the heights of Mount Suribachi and machine guns in fortresses just above. Sheltering in shallow foxholes amid the wreckage of burned vehicles, the marines suffered about 2,000 casualties on the first day – but 30,000 of them got ashore. By the morning of 23 February they had fought their way to the top of Mount Suribachi, where they twice planted a flag, the second time for the camera. It was not until late March that resistance in the ruins and caves was finally subdued. Only 1,000 Japanese survived, mostly those too badly wounded to kill themselves.

GLOREY ELAG
US Marine near the San with stripes

PACIFIC WAR
Bombing of Japan

In June 1944 the introduction of B-29 bombers, with twice the range of B-17s, brought Japan within range of US air bases in China. At first the raids did not go well, with substantial losses to mechanical failures. From November 1944 B-29 began flying from bases in the Marianas, but still their high-altitude daylight raids were relatively ineffective. In March 1945, under General Curtis LeMay’s new tactics were adopted. B-29 were sent in low altitude by night, carrying a maximum load of incendiary bombs. Since most areas of Japanese cities consisted of close-packed wooden buildings, fire-bombing was horrifyingly effective. On 9-10 March a raid by 379 B-29s caused a firestorm that destroyed a quarter of Tokyo and killed around 80,000 people. As City after city was subjected to such attacks, the population fled to the countryside and industrial production plummeted. On 6 and 9 August B-29s from Tinian island dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, destroying the cities and incinerating millions of lives. Japan surrendered on 15 August.

DEATH CLOUD
The mushroom cloud rises. Nagasaki.

The decision to drop the atomic bomb was made by the Supreme Allied Council of 16 July 1945. The atomic bomb would be dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, destroying the cities and incinerating millions of lives. Japan surrendered on 15 August.

“We call upon the government of Japan to proclaim now the unconditional surrender of all Japanese armed forces... The alternative for Japan is prompt and utter destruction.”

Declaration of war issued by Allied leaders, 28 July 1945.
CONFLICTS SINCE 1945

SINCE THE END OF WORLD WAR II there has been no return to full-scale conflict between major powers, but nor has there been a single day without a war going on somewhere around the globe. Weapons systems of great destructive power and technological sophistication have been developed, a whole category of which—nuclear weapons—has not been used since 1945.

THE COLD WAR

From the late 1940s to the late 1980s, the two superpowers—the United States and the Soviet Union (the USSR)—continuously prepared for a Third World War that never happened. From the 1950s they engaged in a nuclear arms race that led within a decade to the era of "mutually assured destruction" (MAD), a strategic deadlock in which nuclear war was prevented by the certainty that both sides would suffer an unacceptable level of damage if one broke out. While this balance of fear prevented a world war, an American-led struggle against the spread of communism was instead fought out in a series of local wars. Whereas in the first half of the 20th century "total war" had seemed to develop almost naturally, with confrontations being as much destructive as they could muster, the Korean War of 1950-53 was in contrast set the pattern for "limited war"—limited in scope, with US soldiers fighting Chinese troops in Korea but no American attacks on China itself, and limited in weaponry, since the United States did not use the atom bombs it possessed. Many of the wars fought in the nuclear age—for example, in Vietnam—were, even so, massively destructive, partly because the limits on the conduct of war made it difficult to achieve a swift, decisive result.

GUERRILLA WARFARE

Guerrilla tactics proved a consistently effective counter to the technological superiority of major powers. Evolved from the theory and practice of Mao Zedong, communist forces in China in the 1930s and 1940s and anti-Nazi parishes in Europe in World War II, guerrilla warfare was, until the 1970s, principally a form of revolutionary warfare practiced by those fighting colonialism and imperialism. Guerrillas sought to avoid battle except on their own terms, denying their enemy targets for their superior firepower while inflicting a steady stream of losses through hit-and-run attacks. Counter-insurgency techniques varied between trying to defeat the guerrillas at their own game and seeking high-tech solutions, from exploiting the rapid mobility of helicopters to the area-bombing of jungles and mountains by B-52s.

THE NEW WORLD ORDER

The end of the Cold War in the late 1980s removed the immediate prospect of a nuclear war, but a "new world order" never materialized. The new era was characterized by wars of intervention by the United States and its allies, no longer held in check by the fear of a Soviet response. There were also wars of ethnic secession in the former Soviet Bloc and Yugoslavia. In some parts of the world—the Congo, for example, and the Sudan—a state of chronic warfare existed. The declaration of a "war on terror" by the United States in the wake of the 9/11 terrorist attacks in 2001 seemed to blur the distinction between war and peace. The world was saturated with automatic weapons, often in the hands of irregular "troops" who were no more than children. As the specter of major war between great powers receded, the prospect of endless small wars seemed increasingly probable.
THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

Chiang Kai-shek and the Chinese Communist Party in People's Liberation Army led Mao Zedong. The necessity of suppressing the Japanese invasion of China after 1937 brought the two factions together in an uneasy alliance for the duration of World War II, but Japan's defeat by the Allies in August 1945 soon re-opened the domestic conflict.

THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

Opening Campaign

Manchuria

The fall in fighting in Manchuria gave both sides time to regroup. 550,000 Nationalist troops were soon deployed in a line across northern China, cutting Manchuria off from the rest of the country and attacking Communist bases south towards the west and south. By the end of 1946, the Nationalists had captured 15 Communist-held towns, taking 3,800,000 Communist soldiers.

CARTRIDGE RIFLE

The National and supplied Mann-Neuer Model 1944 rifle was the standard rifle of the Communist troops.

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THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

Xuzhou

The decisive battle in the campaign for eastern China — and the biggest battle of the civil war — took place in the winter of 1948-49. After the August 1948 capture of Nanjing, the Nationalist armies moved into the province and started the battle. The battle ended in March 1949, with a joint Nationalist force.

THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

Mao Zedong

Mao Zedong was born in Shaoshan, Hunan, on 26 December 1893. He was educated locally and left Hunan in 1918 to work in the National University Library. There he discovered Marxism and in 1921 became a founder member of the Chinese Communist Party. Mao's main contribution to the Communist struggle was his belief in the need for grass- roots political action to build up support for the hunger protest. This enabled the Communist forces to stage a lengthy guerrilla campaign before they had experience and equipment to fight a large, regular army in late 1947.

1939-1949

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THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

Seizure of Tianjin and Beijing

As a result of their victory at Xujiahu, the Communists had broken the truce line with the Nationalists. From then on, their momentum was irresistible. Their firepower was now immense, their troops were far more mobile than those of the Nationalists.

ON PARADE

Bows and arrows; photos of Mao Zedong and others were carried in protest or to recall the Communists' sacrifices.

"Welcome to the People's Army on its arrival in Beijing! Congratulations to the people of Beijing on their liberation!"

 Communist slogans broadcast by troops entering Beijing, 22 January 1949

THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

Conquest of the South

Following their successes in the north and east, Communist troops entered south in April. Nanking, the Nationalist capital fell without a fight on 23 April, and Shanghai in May. The Nationalists had to move their government to Chongqing on 16 July, which they decided to evacuate to the island of Taiwan, taking the national flag and other symbols of the government. This was the beginning of a period in which the People's Republic of China was not recognized by the United Nations.

THE CHINESE CIVIL WAR

victory

Revolutionary propaganda poster (1949) showing jubilant people cheering Mao Zedong, the new Communist leader of the People's Republic of China.

SHANGHAI

Nationalist troops in Shanghai, now home to the People's Republic of China. Shanghai fell on 22 November 1949, in accord with the wishes of the city's citizens, who were opposed to the Communist advance. In the capital, the Communist leader Mao Zedong took Beijing the following May.
THE KOREAN WAR

AFTER 1945, KOREA was divided between a Soviet-backed North and an American-backed South. A North Korean invasion of the South in summer 1950 brought a US-led UN intervention in which 15 other countries took part. While Chinese troops entered the war after UN forces invaded the North, by the end of the war in 1953, over 30,000 US and other UN forces, around a million Chinese, and 3–4 million Koreans had died.

THE INVASION OF THE NORTH

By October 1950 North Korean forces had been cleared out of South Korea. Instead of pushing on the defensive, MacArthur decided to push on into the North. Although worried about provoking a Chinese intervention, US president Harry Truman gave authorization, signaling that troops should not advance to the Yalu river, the border with China. The US Eighth Army headed up the west coast, taking the northern capital, Pyongyang, on 12 October and continuing northwards almost unopposed, while X Corps was shifted to the east coast of North Korea, landing at Woman. The movement of X Corps proved a serious operation, and it was not established south of 26 October. By then, the first reports were coming in of clashes with Chinese soldiers who had infiltrated northern Korea. After some hesitation, MacArthur decided not to take the Chinese threat seriously. On 26 November, ordered a final drive to the Yalu river, which he believed would end the war. Within two days of beginning this advance, the Eighth Army came under attack from Chinese infantry, hundreds of thousands of whom were concealed in the mountains. On 30 November the Eighth Army was ordered to take up a defensive line on the road behind them. UN troops had to fight their way southwards through ambushes and rocket fire, suffering heavy losses of men and equipment. By the end of the month, the Eighth Army had advanced through the mountains to the Chosin reservoir. Coming under attack from Chinese infantry, thousands were killed and captured. 4 US military airports had been captured. MacArthur's division was driven from the mountains. The Chosin reservoir was captured. Coming under attack from Chinese infantry, thousands were killed and captured.

THE MEATGRINDER

In January 1951, a renewed communist offensive drove UN forces back south of Seoul. The US considered evacuating its forces from Korea, or using atomic bombs to halt the Chinese. However, General Matthew Ridgway, field commander after the death of Walker, rejected the threat. He set up a UN line from coast to coast and began an advance up the peninsula, using air and artillery bombardment to destroy the enemy without infantry assault. The Chinese responded to Ridgway's "meatgrinder" with "human wave" attacks, attempting to swamp the firepower with sheer numbers. In three months of slaughter
NUCLEAR SUBMARINE

NAUTILUS WAS THE WORLD'S FIRST NUCLEAR-POWERED SUBMARINE. ITS ADVENT DURING THE EARLY PART OF THE COLD WAR MARKED A REVOLUTIONARY NEW STEP IN NAVAL WARFARE.

The brainchild of a US Navy team headed by Hyman G. Rickover, Nautilus came into service in 1954. Its nuclear power plant meant that it could operate for long periods without refueling or surfacing. In January 1955, Nautilus demonstrated its strengths by making a record-breaking underwater voyage of 2,222km (1,381 miles) in 50 hours. In 1958, after several failed attempts, it became the first submarine to travel under the ice cap to the North Pole. Nautilus was, however, a transitional technology. It was not extraordinarily fast under water and it was armed with conventional torpedoes. Apart from its power plant, its major novelties were having no gun on deck and having a bank for each crew member, instead of the shift system for use of banks found on earlier submarines. By 1959 it was already being superseded by submarines that, through improved hull design and the use of new materials, could travel faster under water and at far greater depths than before. Whereas Nautilus had been designed for the same role as earlier submarines (to attack surface shipping), its immediate successors were primarily built as part of America's strategic nuclear forces. Armed with Polaris missiles, their primary task was to make nuclear deterrence a reality, providing a platform for nuclear missiles that were both mobile and hard to track and attack. In conventional warfare, nuclear-powered submarines found other new roles, including missile attacks on surface vessels and hunting down enemy submarines. Nautilus retired in 1980 and is preserved in Connecticut.

LAUNCH

Dedeped with flags and hoisted for its maiden launch in January 1954. Nautilus passes under the Thames River at Groton, Connecticut.
POST-COLONIAL WARS

THE ECONOMIC WEAKNESS OF MANY NATIONS after World War II, and international pressure for colonial self-determination, led to the gradual break-up of the European empires after 1945. Most colonies achieved independence through increasing self-government and negotiation, but both Portugal and to a lesser extent France tried to retain their empires, resulting in costly liberation wars in, among other places, Indochina, Algeria, and Angola. Racial desegregation of Angola by Portugal and the Congo by Belgium left both new countries ill-equipped to cope with independence, resulting in lengthy civil wars, which ill-conceived colonial boundaries caused numerous problems after independence, notably in Nigeria and the Indian subcontinent.

VIETNAMESE INDEPENDENCE

Dien Bien Phu

The light of Vietnamese independence from French rule that began in 1946 reached its climax in the siege of Dien Bien Phu. In an attempt to break the Vietnamese in the war, the French commander-in-chief, Henri Navarre decided to try to destroy the Vietnamese guerrilla position by a direct attack in which French firepower could achieve its full effects on the Vietnamese communism. General Giap, French troops marched into Dien Bien Phu, a strategic village deep in the mountainous valley in northern Vietnam. In the morning of 18 May 1940, the Viet Minh launched an attack that destroyed the French 1st Army and subsequently many French forces. The battle ended within a month, and an armistice ended French colonial rule in Vietnam and the rest of Indochina, and seriously weakened the prestige of France.

1954 - GENERAL VO Nguyen GIAP

Giau joined the Communist Party in 1953 but fled to China when the French colonial government banned him in 1959. In 1960, when he became an aide to Ho Chi Minh, the Vietnamese Communist leader, and from 1942-45 helped him organize Vietnamese resistance to Japanese occupation. In 1946, Giap took command of the Viet Minh, led them to victory against the French in 1954, and seen as the last symbol of European colonialism. He was one of the last guerrillas to surrender and was released from the POW camp in 1954.

CELEBRATING VICTORY

Fifty years on, Vietnamese soldiers want to celebrate the victory over the French at Dien Bien Phu, one of the key moments in the fight for independence.

AFGHANISTAN INDEPENDENCE

Afghanistan

The fall of the French government in 1957 marked the end of French rule in Algeria, paving the way for Algerian independence. However, the war dragged on for another two years, with a general strike in 1957. Algeria was finally granted independence in 1962.

INDO-PAKISTAN WARS

India-Pakistan War

1965 Indo-Pakistan War

The Indo-Pakistan War in 1965 was the result of the Kashmir issue, which remained unresolved after the 1947 Partition of British India. The war started on 6 October 1965 after Pakistan launched an attack on India. India responded with a counter-attack, and the war ended on 21 October 1965 with a ceasefire. The war was fought in Kashmir, where both India and Pakistan had similar military capabilities. The ceasefire agreement was reached on 21 October 1965, and both countries agreed to withdraw their forces from the border. The war was a significant turning point in Indo-Pakistan relations, leading to the signing of the Tashkent Agreement, which recognized the de facto division of Kashmir into two parts and established a joint commission to work towards a peaceful resolution of the dispute.

FRONT LINE COMBAT

The war was fought in the Kashmir region, with both countries sending reinforcements to their respective front lines. The war was characterized by air strikes, artillery bombardments, and ground battles. The war ended on 21 October 1965 with a ceasefire, and both countries agreed to withdraw their forces from the border. The peace treaty was signed on 22 October 1965 in Tashkent, Uzbekistan.

TANK WARFARE

One of the major events of the Indo-Pakistan War was the tank engagement between Indian and Pakistani forces. The tank battles were fought in the Sambhar Lake area near Jodhpur, where the Indian Army used its T-55 tanks toouting their Pakistani counterparts. The Indian Army emerged victorious in these engagements, demonstrating the superiority of its tanks over the Pakistani T-54/T-55 tanks. The war ended on 21 October 1965 with a ceasefire, and both countries agreed to withdraw their forces from the border. The peace treaty was signed on 22 October 1965 in Tashkent, Uzbekistan.
THE VIETNAM WAR


THE VIETNAM WAR

Cedar Falls

BATTLE: 28-30 JANUARY 1968
FORCES: US 34,000; NVA/VC: 10,000
LOCATIONS: DONG HOC TOWN, SOUTH VIETNAM
RESULT: DEFEAT FOR THE NVA/VC

Operation Cedar Falls was designed to direct communist forces out of their well-established base area in the “Buu Minh Triangle” outside Saigon. A blocking force was set to pin down about 10,000 NVA and VC in the triangle, while helicopter and ground assaults penetrated the “bulwark” against which the enemy had massed his forces. The operation started spectacularly, forcing the US assault divisions to abandon the operation of the helicopter lifting in troops to secure the三角形 entirely and politically. As a result, the operation was returned to the main offensive on 21 January the NVA laid siege to the US Marine base in Khe Sanh, near the demilitarized zone, that was most heavily defended. The Americans were driven out of Khe Sanh by the communists, forcing the evacuation of its population.

The main offensive followed on 31 January, intended to coincide with the Tet holiday, when many South Vietnamese soldiers would be on leave. Communist forces seized key positions in over 100 cities and villages, including the capital, Saigon, and the former imperial capital, Hue. In Saigon Viet Cong platoons ditched their way into the US embassy compound, although they were killed before they could enter the building itself.

Within a few days, more urban areas had been reclaimed by Americans and South Vietnamese forces – the latter fighting with impressive commitment and determination. However, the next phase continued in Saigon until early March, but it was here that the heaviest and most prolonged combat. The imperial palace was captured by NVA troops on 31 January and then held against a South Vietnamese counteroffensive. In February US Marines became embroiled in a house-to-house battle to retake the city, supported by naval gunfire. By the time Paris was signed on 2 March, half of the city’s buildings had been damaged or destroyed and the US had suffered 1,300 casualties. The siege of Khe Sanh lasted until 8 April, and the offensive – taking place in US presidential election year – dealt a severe blow to the US intervention, convincing the American public and politicians that the war could not be won. On 31 March President Johnson announced he was seeking to open peace negotiations with North Vietnam.

THE VIETNAM WAR

Eastertide Offensive

BATTLE: 21 MARCH-19 APRIL 1968
FORCES: US 28,000; NVA/VC: 15,000
LOCATIONS: NORTHERN VIETNAM
RESULT: DEFEAT FOR THE NVA/VC

The Americans and new strongholds to the NVA/VC supply routes from its bases to the South. The fortieth and first month the NVA made good progress. The American forces were supported by new American divisions, including B-52s, also used to level bases in the South and force the North to negotiate. The South Vietnamese government, including in Saigon, was forced to announce a cease-fire on 27 April. The bombing was continued until a peace agreement was reached in Paris on 27 January 1973.

THE VIETNAM WAR

Tet Offensive

BATTLE: 20 JANUARY-19 FEBRUARY 1968
FORCES: US 150,000; NVA/VC: 250,000
LOCATIONS: NORTH AND SOUTH VIETNAM
RESULT: DEFEAT FOR THE NVA/VC

In early 1968 General Vo Nguyen Giap, defense minister of North Vietnam, launched an offensive intended to win the war simultaneously on two fronts and cities throughout South Vietnam by Viet Cong guerrillas and North Vietnamese Army (NVA) troops were seen as a potential major uprising and undermine the American position in South Vietnam radically and politically. As a result, the main offensive on 21 January the NVA laid siege to the US Marine base in Khe Sanh, near the demilitarized zone that was most heavily defended. The Americans were driven out of Khe Sanh by the communists, forcing the evacuation of its population.

Air Cavalry

The First Cavalry Division troops fly over their C-130 helicopters during a reconnaissance mission.

RNN/Howard L.＼Cavalry troopers

Rolling Thunder

BATTLE: 30 MARCH-19 OCTOBER 1965
FORCES: US 270,000; NVA/VC: 500,000
LOCATIONS: SOUTH VIETNAM
RESULT: DEFEAT FOR THE NVA/VC

After a number of earlier "tactical raids" the United States launched a systematic air campaign against North Vietnam in March 1965. Rolling Thunder lasted for over 3 years. US Navy and Marine aircraft launched raids from carriers in the Gulf of Tonkin and from Marine bases in South Vietnam; the US Air Force operated out of bases in Thailand and B-52c of US Strategic Air Command flew from Okinawa and Guam. US aircraft encountered formidable air defenses. North Vietnamese had Soviet supplied SA-2 surface-to-air missiles (SAMs) and anti-aircraft guns, plus and as few aircraft, relying on electronic countermeasures to jam radar and on night missions to take out the SAMs. The missile-armed F-105 Thunderchief fighters that escorted the strike aircraft mostly had no gates and were flown by pilots trained for intercept missions rather than daylight. The strike aircraft had difficulty lining up precision weapons because they were armed with conventional fuses and air-dropped bombs and had to be guided onto a target with a joystick. The weather often made air strikes impossible. The political pressure on the US to end the war was so great that several attempts were made to negotiate a peace agreement. The political pressure on the US to end the war was so great that several attempts were made to negotiate a peace agreement. The political pressure on the US to end the war was so great that several attempts were made to negotiate a peace agreement. The political pressure on the US to end the war was so great that several attempts were made to negotiate a peace agreement. The political pressure on the US to end the war was so great that several attempts were made to negotiate a peace agreement.
AH-64 ATTACK HELICOPTER

THE AH-64 ATTACK HELICOPTER, DESIGNED FOR AN ANTI-TANK ROLE, USES MANY OF THE SOPHISTICATED OFFENSIVE AND DEFENSIVE TECHNOLOGIES THAT DOMINATE THE MODERN BATTLEFIELD.

The first American attack helicopter, the AH-1 Cobra, was introduced by the US Army during the Vietnam War to give support to assault helicopters landing troops in hostile territory. By the time the AH-64 Apache entered service in 1984, attack helicopters had found a new role as tank-hunters. Developed by McDonnell Douglas (now Boeing), the AH-64 performed effectively in Operation Desert Storm in 1991 and has since been used in the American invasion of Afghanistan in 2001 and the American and British invasion of Iraq in 2003. The version shown here is an AH-64D Longbow.

ATTACK AND DEFENCE

The AH-64 is a twin-engined helicopter with a crew of two. The co-pilot/gunner sits in front with the pilot above and behind. Firepower includes a chain gun and 70mm rockets, but the primary armament consists of up to 16 Hellfire anti-tank missiles. Using the helicopter’s sophisticated target-acquisition and fire-control systems, the crew can only select targets and fire; the missiles will lock onto the targets and do the rest. This “fire and forget” capacity means the helicopter can take evasive action as soon as it has fired. It was once feared that the slow-moving helicopter would be too vulnerable in battle, but the AH-64D benefits from a variety of defensive systems – for example, suppressing infra-red radiation so the helicopter is not located by heat-seeking missiles, and giving warning of incoming missiles so that countermeasures can be deployed. Using thermal imaging, the Apache can operate in all weathers and at night, hugging the terrain to avoid detection by enemy radar.

AH-64D LONGBOW

The AH-64D Longbow attack helicopter can built by the American military for the British army.

- Main rotor diameter: 14.5m (48 ft)
- Total length: 14.9m (49 ft)
- Cruise speed: 160 mph

PILOTS' CONTROLS

Although the cockpit is in charge of bringing the helicopter’s weapons, the pilot is able to operate these controls and fire the weapons remotely.

SAFETY BELT

The pilot’s safety belt is built into the seat, and the structure of the Apache means that the crew members have a 50 per cent chance of surviving ground impacts when the helicopter is a rate of 10 knots (18.5 mph) per second.

CANNY JETISON

The armoured cockpit covering the pilot and co-pilot can be detached in an emergency.

PILOTS' MONOCLE

The pilots’ monocle provides thermal imaging for night vision.
ISRAEL'S WARS

THE DECISION TO CREATE THE INDEPENDENT JEWISH STATE out of the former British mandate of Palestine in 1948 led to five major wars in the region and a long-running inactivity ("uprising") by Palestinians fighting for their own homeland. The ongoing struggles between the Jews and the Arabs has destabilized the region for more than half a century and shows little sign of abating in the near future.

ISRAELI INDEPENDENCE

Israel Independence

After the creation of the independent Jewish state, the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) was established in 1964. The PLO led a series of armed attacks against Israel, leading to the Six-Day War in 1967. Despite the success of the war, the Israeli army was heavily criticized by some, including former Israeli leaders such as Yitzhak Rabin. The war led to the occupation of the West Bank, Gaza Strip, and East Jerusalem, which became the flashpoints for future conflicts.

PONTI SAD

A small boy stands isolated in the streets of Port Said in November 1956 in a British raid on Egypt. Egyptian troops had invaded the Suez Canal Company; its shares were immediately bought by the British government and French interests. World opinion condemned the attack and Israeli troops were asked to move to the Suez Canal to prevent Egyptian forces from crossing it. The Suez Crisis led to the occupation of the Suez Canal by British forces, and the Israeli army was criticized for its role in the crisis.

CLOSE-QUARTERS COMBAT

The Israeli soldiers in Sinai were involved in close-quarters combat against the Egyptian army. During these battles, Israeli soldiers were successful in winning several key positions on the border. However, the war led to the occupation of large areas in Sinai by Israeli forces, which has been a source of contention ever since.

SA-6

Israel's surface-to-air missiles (SAMs) posed a considerable threat to Israeli planes during the Yom Kippur War. SA-6 missile launchers supplied by the Soviet Union shot down over 100 Israeli aircraft in the first day of the war. However, Israeli pilots were not aware that their radar made them visible to the enemy. Once their radar warning systems were reprogrammed, the threat from the missiles was reduced considerably.

Operation Defiant

The Israeli army launched a full-scale invasion of Lebanon in 1982. The operation was intended to destroy the PLO and its support in Lebanon. Despite initial successes, the operation was criticized for civil casualties and the long-term impact on the region.

ISRAELI COUNTERATTACK

On 16 October 1973, the Israeli army carried out a surprise attack on the Egyptian army, launching a successful counterattack. The operation led to a significant shift in the balance of power in the region.

EVEN MORE

The Israeli army continued to engage in military operations in the region, including the Six-Day War and the Yom Kippur War. The conflicts led to significant changes in the region, including the establishment of new states and changes in the power dynamics.

YOM KIPPUR WAR

Bunker on Mount Hermon

On 6 October 1973, Egypt launched a surprise attack on Israeli positions in the Sinai Desert. The attack was followed by a Soviet-made SA-6 missile attack, which led to the destruction of several Israeli aircraft. The Yom Kippur War led to a significant shift in the balance of power in the region, with Israel emerging as a major regional power.

ISRAEL'S WARS

The Six-Day War

The Six-Day War was fought between Israel and its Arab neighbors. The war ended with a clear victory for Israel, which occupied large areas of Arab territory.

When: June 1967

Where: Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Egypt, and Syria

Israel's victory in the Six-Day War marked a turning point in the conflict. Israel emerged as a major regional power, and its military superiority led to a significant shift in the balance of power in the region.

THE ISRAELI ARMY

The Israeli army was heavily criticized for its role in the Suez Crisis, which led to the occupation of the Suez Canal. The war led to the occupation of large areas in Sinai by Israeli forces, which has been a source of contention ever since.

THE PLO

The Palestine Liberation Organization was established in 1964. The PLO led a series of armed attacks against Israel, leading to the Six-Day War in 1967. Despite the success of the war, the Israeli army was heavily criticized by some, including former Israeli leaders such as Yitzhak Rabin. The war led to the occupation of the West Bank, Gaza Strip, and East Jerusalem, which became the flashpoints for future conflicts.

THE ISRAELI ARMY

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MODERN WEAPONS

THE INTRODUCTION of the German Sturm Gewehr assault rifle in 1944 pointed the way to a new era in which bolt-action magazines, still common at the end of World War II, were replaced by lighter automatic or semi-automatic rifles. Weapons such as shoulder-launched surface-to-air missiles and rocket-propelled grenades (RPGs) have enabled infantry to take on helicopters and tanks. Manufactured in massive quantities, modern small arms have ample equipped guerrillas and terrorists as well as regular armies across the world.

ASSAULT RIFLES

Lightweight and portable, assault rifles can switch between semi-automatic and fully automatic fire to deliver intensive firepower. Widely used assault rifles include the Soviet-era AK-47, the US M16, and the Belgian firm Fabrique Nationale's FAL series.

SUBMACHINE GUNS

Submachine guns combine a machine gun's automatic fire with a pistol's ammunition. Models such as the British Sten gun and the American M3 were widely used in World War II. The Sten was replaced by the Stinger in the 1980s, but the US Army largely abandoned submachine guns. Models such as the German MP5 continue to equip specialist forces, for whom its small size is a distinct advantage.

GRENade LAUNCHERS

Rifle grenades are fired from ordinary rifles or from shrapnel-style grenade launchers. The most famous grenade launcher is the Soviet-developed RPG7, which has become a familiar feature of guerrilla warfare and terrorist activity. Its warhead, which propels a jet of molten metal onto the target, can penetrate almost any tank armour.

HEAVY MACHINE GUNS

Despite the high rate of fire of assault rifles, armies still need heavier belt-fed machine guns—distinguished by their larger calibre ammunition, longer range, and higher volume of fire. The belt feed means these weapons require two men to operate them, and their weight necessitates them being disassembled and carried by several soldiers.
EUROPE AND AFRICA | 1945

CASTRO AND CUBA

Cuba

Dealing with Castro and Cuba

Fidel Castro was arrested for his part in an uprising against Cuban dictator Fulgencio Batista in 1953. Referred to as a young two-year-old Fidel went to Mexico. In 1956, he landed in Cuba with 81 men, but his force was quickly dispersed by the Cuban army. Castro took refuge in the Sierra Maestras mountains with a few followers.

including the unit’s doctor, Ernesto "Che" Guevara. Retreated behind anti-Batista elements from Cuban cities, they embarked on hit-and-run attacks against army supporters. In summer 1958 Batista launched a large-scale military operation to clear the guerrillas out of the area, but their poorly led force of about 100 men withdrew to the Sierra Maestra. Batista had no hope of the United States and was facing international sanctions.

"How close we could look into a bright future should two, three, or many Vietnams flourish throughout the world with their share of deaths and their immense tragedies, their everyday heroism and their repeated blows against imperialism." – ERNESTO "CHE" GUEVARA

In his essay to the Tricontinental Conference in January 1966, the rebel leader of the Cuban revolution pointed out the causes of guerrilla war springing up around the world, stating that the essence of the "American imperialism" is to resist uprisings, including those against Cuba.

Rebel Band

Fidel Castro in June 1957 with members of his guerrilla band, including "Che" Guevara (center, second from left).

REBELBAND

SUCCESSFUL BOLIVIA

March 1967 the camp was evicted by government forces from there on the guerrilla campaign. They outflanked the Bolivian army in the north of the country, but faced shortages of food and other essential supplies. Once Bolivian Rangers trained by the US were deployed from late July, Guevara’s men suffered serious casualties. On 8 October the surviving guerrillas were surrounded by Rangers. After a two-hour firefight, most were dead or taken prisoner. A wounded Guevara was among those captured; he died the following day.

In October 1994, ex-Bolivian police officer, and the group had no support from the local population. In the fall, the camp was abandoned, but the guerrillas continued.

Fallen Hero

The Bolivian armed forces proudly display Guevara’s body in the world’s press after his execution on 9 October 1967.

BOLIVIA

In 1960, the Bolivian Air Force shot down a Cuban-registered airplane carrying a small group of followers, including some Cubans. The Bolivian government had seized the plane and its passengers, who were not allowed to enter the country.

OSAMA BIN LADEN

The son of a Saudi billionaire, Osama bin Laden came to prominence in the 1980s as an organizer of network and and funding for the American-backed Islamic guerrillas fighting Soviet forces in Afghanistan. In the 1990s, he established a financial network to fund Islamic extremism around the globe, as well as running his own training camps in Sudan and the Taliban-controlled Afghanistan. His Al-Qaeda network is believed to have been involved in the building of US embassies in Kenya and Tanzania in 1998 and 1998 and 1999 in Kashmir in South Asia and Yemen, as well as the 9/11 operation.

WELCOME HOME

José Luis Alas, Alché and his children return home after their five-year captivity by the Red Army.

Bay of Pigs

The United States quickly decided that Cuba had to be destroyed, and in 1956 organized a brigade of Cuban exiles and trained them to the US military. Preparations were begun when John F. Kennedy, who was keen to avoid direct US involvement, became US president in 1960-61 to the CIA. When the US military invasion on 20 April 1961 was a disaster.

Exile Memorial

A monument created by Cuban exile in Miami, Florida, commemorates those who died in the Bay of Pigs invasion.

"The pictures of airplanes flying into buildings, fires burning, huge structures collapsing, having filled us with disbelief! ... and a quiet, unavenging anger." – President George W. Bush, 11 September 2001

DESSERT FIRE

A huge column of smoke rises from an airplane blown up by Pinlelau terrorists at Dawson’s Field. The terrorist attack on the airport was not the first.

Dawson’s Field

On 6 September 1970, the Popular Front for the Liberation of Palestine (PFLP) hijacked an American aircraft to New York. The hijacking of the fourth aircraft was a failed attempt. Two aircraft were flown to Dawson’s Field in Jordan at an American terrorist. The aircraft was flown to Cairo.

FALLING HERO

The Bolivian armed forces proudly display Guevara’s body in the world’s press after his execution on 9 October 1967.

"How close we could look into a bright future should two, three, or many Vietnams flourish throughout the world with their share of deaths and their immense tragedies, their everyday heroism and their repeated blows against imperialism." – ERNESTO "CHE" GUEVARA

Refugees, thousands of them, poured into Jordan. Two aircraft were flown to Dawson’s Field and Jordan, but the attack was foiled.

FALLING HERO

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Desert Fire

A huge column of smoke rises from an airplane blown up by Pinlelau terrorists at Dawson’s Field. The terrorist attack on the airport was not the first.
WARS SINCE 1980

The decade after 1980 marked the final years of the Cold War, with conflicts in Afghanistan, Nicaragua, and elsewhere adding to the tension between the United States and the Soviet Union. This situation changed in 1985, when Mikhail Gorbachev became leader of the Soviet Union and began to reform its monolithic structure. As the Soviet Union weakened in hold on eastern Europe, and itself collapsed entirely in 1991, the Cold War came to an end. In its place, long-buried ethnic conflicts resurfaced in Chechnya and Yugoslavia, while the threat posed by the Iraqi dictator Saddam Hussein led to three major wars in the Middle East since 2001: fundamentalist regimes, which is now a major contributor to world instability.

Fractured in Afghanistan

The conflict in Afghanistan that lasted almost the entire length of the 1980s had its roots in July 1979, when the country’s monarchy was overthrown and a republic established under Mohammad Daud. Islamic leaders opposed to the modernizing government fled to neighboring Pakistan, where in 1973 they set up the mujahedeen ("holy warriors") to overthrow Daud’s regime. The assassination of Daud in April 1978 by the Revolutionary Council.

On Patrol

A group of paratroopers in commemorative armor at the National Air and Space Museum. In July 1979 Saddam Hussein seized power in Iran, ousting the Shah, and continued to support the Contra, even after Congress cut off their funding. A scission in November 1984, the US continued to support the Contra, even after Congress cut off their funding. In May 1986, the Contra began to support the Contra, even after Congress cut off their funding. A scission in November 1984, the US continued to support the Contra, even after Congress cut off their funding. A scission in November 1984, the US continued to support the Contra, even after Congress cut off their funding. A scission in November 1984, the US continued to support the Contra, even after Congress cut off their funding.

Trouble on the Horizon

Iraqi soldiers at Al-Amarah to continue their work as smoke generators as they advanced in the war.

Sea Harriers

The Supreme Mastermind and Emperor of the British Sea Harrier proved to be much for the Argentine planes, 26 of whom were brought down during the conflict.

Ashmore

His first military post was in the army, before he was later deployed to the Falklands.

1990

General Norman Schwarzkopf served as the commander of the joint US Central Command and commander of operations for Desert Storm, the campaign to groove Kuwait. "Norman" Schwarzkopf was an institutional leader and embodied the command's force staff. He made a difference and won the war with minimal casualties. He retired from military service in 1993 as a four-star general.

1982

NORMAN SCHWARZKOPF

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IRAQ: WORLD WARS

IRAQ-IRAN WAR

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TROUBLE ON THE HORIZON

Iraqi soldiers at Al-Amarah to continue their work as smoke generators as they advanced in the war.
**WAR IN CHECHNYA**

Chechnya

In 1999, after the death of Yagovani’s Commissar, Yagovani himself was killed by a grenade attack. In 2001, the Chechen President, Yagovani, was killed by the Chechen President, Yagovani, and his government. In 2001, the Chechen President, Yagovani, was killed by a grenade attack. In 2001, the Chechen President, Yagovani, was killed by a grenade attack.

**RUSSIAN FIREFIGHTER**

A Russian fireight team using pressurized water is at work on the site of the suicide bomb attack in Chechnya.

In Russia, the Russian fireight team used pressurized water to extinguish the flames. In Russia, the Russian fireight team used pressurized water to extinguish the flames.

**YUGOSLAVIA**

Yugoslavia

In 1999, after the death of Yagovani’s Commissar, Yagovani himself was killed by a grenade attack. In 2001, the Chechen President, Yagovani, was killed by the Chechen President, Yagovani, and his government. In 2001, the Chechen President, Yagovani, was killed by a grenade attack. In 2001, the Chechen President, Yagovani, was killed by a grenade attack.

**WAR ON TERROR**

**Afghanistan**

Afghanistan

In Afghanistan, the Taliban government was overthrown by US-led forces in 2001. In Afghanistan, the Taliban government was overthrown by US-led forces in 2001. In Afghanistan, the Taliban government was overthrown by US-led forces in 2001. In Afghanistan, the Taliban government was overthrown by US-led forces in 2001.

**INVASION OF IRAQ**

Iraq

In 2003, the US-led forces invaded Iraq and overthrew the Saddam Hussein government. In 2003, the US-led forces invaded Iraq and overthrew the Saddam Hussein government. In 2003, the US-led forces invaded Iraq and overthrew the Saddam Hussein government. In 2003, the US-led forces invaded Iraq and overthrew the Saddam Hussein government.

**KOSOVO**

Kosovo

In 1998, the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) launched a rebellion against the Serb government. In 1998, the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) launched a rebellion against the Serb government. In 1998, the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) launched a rebellion against the Serb government. In 1998, the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA) launched a rebellion against the Serb government.

**SHOCK AND AWE**

The US-led forces launched a massive air attack on Iraq, targeting key military and strategic sites. The US-led forces launched a massive air attack on Iraq, targeting key military and strategic sites. The US-led forces launched a massive air attack on Iraq, targeting key military and strategic sites. The US-led forces launched a massive air attack on Iraq, targeting key military and strategic sites.

**TOPPLED SAIDMAN**

Saddam Hussein, the former President of Iraq, was captured by US forces in December 2003. Saddam Hussein, the former President of Iraq, was captured by US forces in December 2003. Saddam Hussein, the former President of Iraq, was captured by US forces in December 2003. Saddam Hussein, the former President of Iraq, was captured by US forces in December 2003.
“War is the continuation of politics by other means.”
KARL VON CLAUSEWITZ

“Whoever wishes for peace, let him prepare for war.”
VEGETIUS

EGYPTIAN WARFARE • CHARIOTS • KADESH • ALEXANDER THE GREAT • SIEGE ENGINES • JULIUS CAESAR • ALESIA • ROMAN LEGIONS • VISIGOths • VIKINGS LONGSHIPS • NORMANS • WARS OF ISLAM • GUNPOWDER • CRUSADES LONGBOWS • MONGOL CONQUESTS • KUBLAI KHAN • SAMURAI • CASTLES KNIGHTS • AGINCOURT • OTTOMAN WARFARE • FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE MOGUL WARLORDS • CHINESE WARFARE • THIRTY YEARS’ WAR • CRÉCY MUSKETS AND PISTOLS • ENGLISH CIVIL WAR • STANDING ARMIES CONQUISTADORES • SEVEN YEARS’ WAR • NAPOLEON • AUSTERLITZ MAN O' WAR • NATIVE AMERICAN WARFARE • CRIMEAN WAR • AMERICAN CIVIL WAR • GETTYSBURG • GATLING GUN • ZULU WARS • BOER WAR WORLD WAR I • TRENCH WARFARE • TANKS • VERDUN • GAS ATTACKS SPANISH CIVIL WAR • WORLD WAR II • BLITZKRIEG • BATTLE OF BRITAIN EL ALAMEIN • STALINGRAD • MIDWAY • BOMBER OFFENSIVE • ATOM BOMB GUERRILLA WARFARE • GULF WAR • AFGHANISTAN • SHOCK AND AWE

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