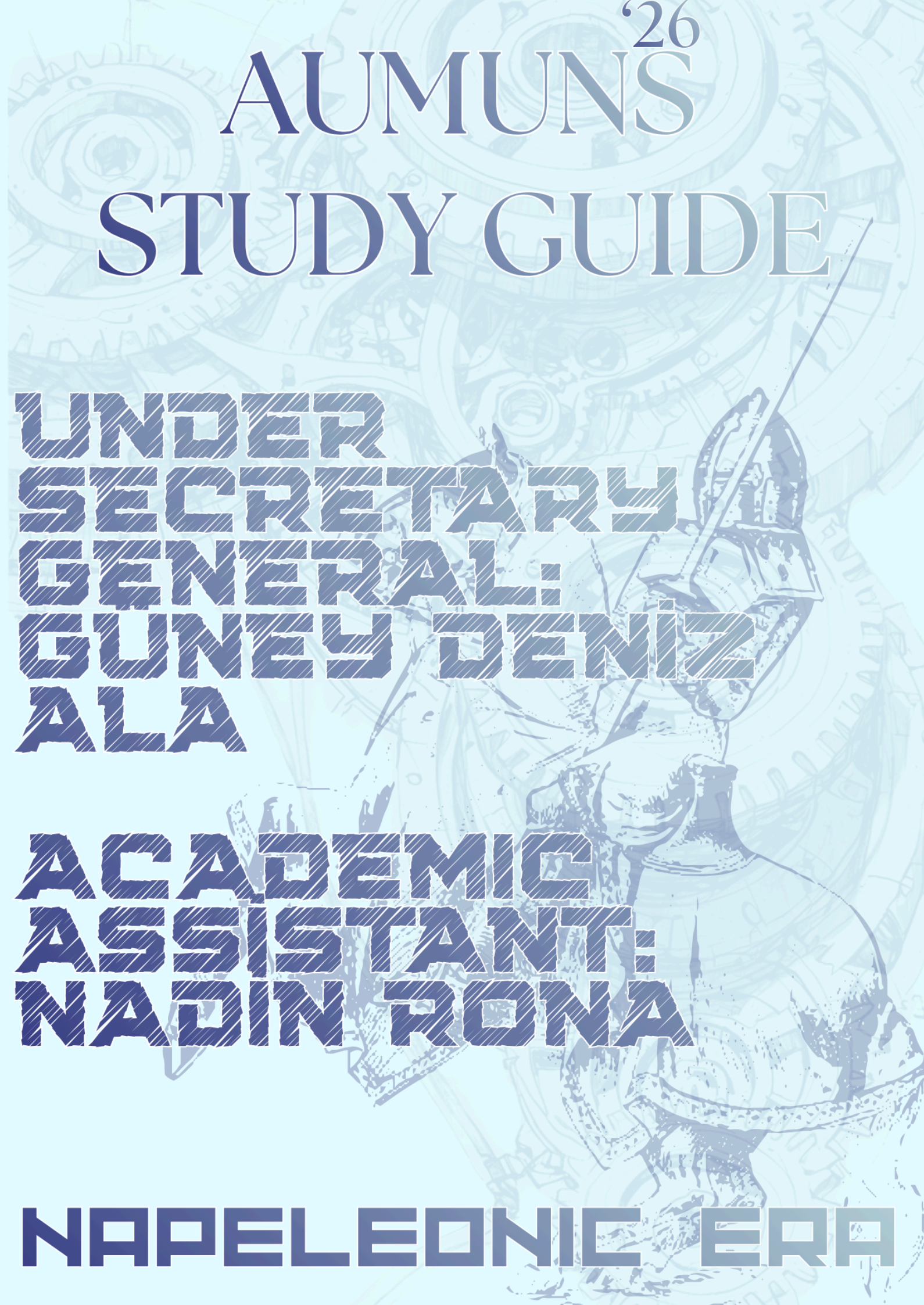
AUMUN'S '26

STUDY GUIDE



UNDER SECRETARY GENERAL: GÜNEY DENİZ ALA

ACADEMIC ASSISTANT: NADIN RONA

NAPELEONIC ERA

1. Letter From the Secretariat

Letter from Secretary-General

Honourable participants,

First order of business, I would like to welcome you all with open arms and utmost gratitude for attending our conference. I truly hope you can find a little solace and comfort with your peers here, as our conference and team truly care about you and we will be trying our best to accommodate you.

I would also like to remind you that we intend to keep everyone involved in a place of safety, and comfort. As we all witnessed the last events in our country, I can promise that those who act out of order will be taken care of and thrown out of the conference immediately.

As the Secretary-General, I offer you a variety of global problems to work on and create solutions accordingly, as it is what boils down to with every Model United Nations conference around the globe. I truly hope this will be a place where you can learn and grow both intellectually and personally. You are in a place where you will be heard, valued, and supported.

What I offered is only possible with an academic team like this, so those who I have in my team should know that I offered their positions accordingly, and knowingly. I expected the best, which they gave in return. I am truly grateful for everyone in my team, and I know for a fact that also our delegates will feel the same way I do.

Those who will be attending a conference for the first time, I hope our conference will get you hooked on MUN conferences and make you expand your horizon as much as you can in order to become a better version of yourselves in every possible area that we can offer. Attending a conference where everyone is your peer might be a little overwhelming but rest assured, me and my academic team, will be here to ensure your careers as MUNers will begin smoothly, and in any occasion that might make you uncomfortable in or outside of our formal sessions, I truly have the greatest organization team that ever existed, so you can rely on them as much as you can rely on me.

I also would like to extend my special thanks to my executive team, Ekin Su Öztürk and Emir Güneş, who gave their incredible efforts to ensure our organization team is spotless, in and out of our conference. Also, Mert Sürücü, for sticking with me throughout this almost five year old journey of MUNing, with an unbelievable amount of ups and downs, and yet we are still here.

I truly can not wait to see you all in AUMUN’26.

Truly yours,
Bedirhan CURA
Secretary General

2. *Letter From the Under Secretary-General*

Dear delegates,

Firstly I, Güney Deniz Ala, welcome you all to CC: Napoleonic Era as the Under Secretary General of this wonderful committee. My most sincere intention of you completing our committee with more historical knowledge learned, an unforgettable experience concluded and most importantly having had fun is always with you. Fiercer actions will follow after fierce actions and to find balance or to lead the French Empire to catastrophe within your hands and your hands only. Without further words, I thank my Academic Assistant Nadin, the Executive Board and await you at AUMUN'26 CC. I am alway available via my phone number below and do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Güney Deniz Ala
Under Secretary General
+90 533 549 22 10

3. *Letter From the Academic Assistant*

Dearest Delegates,

Welcome to the Napoleonic Era! My name is Nadin Rona, and I will be serving as your Academic Assistant in AUMUN'26. I hope that you will have as much joy reading this study guide as much as I and my Under Secretary-General Güney Deniz had while writing it. In this wonderful committee, you will take on roles of the most powerful figures of the First French Empire, having to battle the coalitions formed against you many times. With the created space, perhaps, there will be something we can do in the near future. For the purpose of the committee, reading the guide fully carries great importance and I highly encourage you to include personal research during the preparation. Do not be afraid to contact me in your inquiries. The sky is the

limit, and I am sure that this committee will be unforgettable for everyone participating in it.

The whole world is yours waiting to be conquered.

High Regards,
Nadin RONA
0532 262 53 67

4. Committee Procedure

Roll Call

To state your presence during a roll call, when your allocation is called out you should say ‘I’ or ‘Present’. The roll call is taken at the beginning of each session.

Tour de Table

Tour de Table is an introduction, similar to the opening speech in the General Assembly(GA) committees. You can talk about whatever you want; You can introduce yourself, talk about your plans, or give out your opinions about the current situation. Tour de Table gets taken in the beginning of each session, after the roll call.

Unmoderated Caucus

Unlike GA (General Assembly) committees, unmoderated caucuses are the main caucus you will have. Since unmoderated caucuses are the only caucus where the delegates are not chaired, they have the ability to stand up, make plans and most importantly, write directives.

Directives

Personal Directives

Personal directives are directives that include only you and the actions you will be taking. So the actions that you take will be completed by only you and the people under your command. Now, there is a format for writing and sending directives. Firstly, you need to fill the ‘From’ and ‘To’ part. The ‘From' part will include your name and the 'To’ part will include the department you are sending the directives to, which is Related Authorities (RA) or the Related Department (RD). Then, you need to write the real time in real life and the date in the committee which will be regularly changing with time updates and changing events. Lastly, you need to write the type of the directive as a headline. After the format, the real directive begins. In order to fulfill the directive’s potential to the maximum, you need to be answering all WH questions (Who, Where, Why, When and How) during the process. It is up to the writer to merge all categories but it is encouraged that you write them separately to make things easier for the crisis team to understand your directive fully.

Here is an example:

From: Menelaus Personal Directive Date: 1192BC, May 3rd

To: Related Authorities

Capturing Tiryns Time: 12.34 (Spartan Cabinet)

What: I will capture Tiryns with my 5,000 agoge men stationed on the Tiryns frontline. My soldiers will kill and destroy any enemy forces they come across, as well as any enemy military bases. Women and children in the city will not be murdered unless they attack the soldiers.

Why: Tiryns plays a crucial role in the war, and it must be captured in order to cut the enemy's supply lines.

When: Soldiers will charge at 02.00 a.m. to catch the enemy off guard. Who: I will be operating this attack, and if I fall during the war, my right-hand man, Analus, will take over. 5,000 agoge soldiers will assault the enemy under his command.

Where: 2,500 of my soldiers will charge from the southeast frontline, and the other 2,500 will charge from the west to capture Tiryns. How*: To reduce noise, the 5,000 agoge soldiers will be divided into 50 groups, with 100 soldiers per group. Soldiers will check and control their weapons before charging. Each group will have a commander, and the commanders will be the best warriors among their groups. They will be well-armed with their hoplons, xiphos, and dorus (Spartan agoge soldiers' shields, spearheads, and small swords). Each group will apply the doctrine properly to face the fewest casualties. If needed, 3 soldiers from each group will bring supplies to their own group from the frontlines, and these 3 soldiers will be picked randomly from the commanders. They will take the safest route and avoid the enemy. Our men will take the safe paths suggested by our spies. They will pray, remember how brave they are, and then honour their nation and gods by demolishing the enemy. They will not disobey their commander's orders and apply the doctrine as they say. To avoid being affected by attrition, our soldiers will study their geographical situation as well as the enemy's to use it in their favour. They will not be wearing inappropriate armour and clothing, only those that will fit the current climate. Any careless mistakes shall not be forgiven and the commanders of the groups will eliminate the soldiers who made the mistake such as sleeping on a night's watch. If by any chance a soldier catches a disease that may spread he will be killed if there are no precautions that can be taken in order to heal him without letting it spread. If the siege and the road take unusually long to take and pass they will shave properly to prevent any lice growing, mating and distracting the soldiers. Soldiers will use an offensive phalanx formation when I order them to charge, and they will slaughter each enemy troop they face. They will use the offensive formation until they face a larger enemy force to quickly capture as many critical areas as possible. If they face a larger enemy force, to be exact, 1.5 times larger than them, they will quickly change to a defensive phalanx formation and wait for recruitment while defending themselves. Their priority will be killing the enemy rather than cutting supply lines. In mountain areas, they will use the highlands in their favour and quickly oppress the enemy to finish them. Once they reach the city, their priority will be killing the

cabinet members of Tiryns. If possible, they will defenestrate them to entertain themselves. Meaning of mercy will disappear from their minds and any offers made by the enemy will be rejected for they have disrespected our Nation. After the military bases and the city are captured, soldiers will go to the possible conflict areas to recruit other soldiers. Even though we've sent spies before, our soldiers will be vigilant for any kind of trap. Their main objective is to capture the city, and for that purpose, they will sacrifice themselves without hesitation.

Joint Directives

These directives are similar to personal directives, but they include more than one delegate. The only difference is you need to add the delegate's name that is included to the "from" part, and have their signatories at the end.

Press Release/Declamation

Press releases, while not being considered a directive, follow a similar format during the preparation process. Press releases, or declarations based on the time period the committee takes place in, are usually speeches with the goal of addressing the committee. As the name suggests, they may also be speeches or statements given to media outlets, and are read by or to the general public. Press releases mostly have a goal of influencing the listeners or get support from the listeners.

Here is an example:

From: Erwin Smith Press Release Date: 845, July 23rd
To: Related Authorities
Motivating the Soldiers Time: 18.17 (Wall Maria Cabinet)

Everything that you thought had meaning: every hope, dream, or moment of happiness. None of it matters as you lie bleeding out on the battlefield. None of it changes what a speeding rock does to a body, we all die. But does that mean our lives are meaningless? Does that mean that there was no point in our being born? Would you say that of our slain comrades? What about their lives? Were they meaningless?... They were not! Their memory serves as an example to us all! The courageous fallen! The anguished fallen! Their lives have meaning because we, the living, refuse to forget them! And as we ride to certain death, we trust our successors to do the same for us! Because my soldiers do not buckle or yield when faced with the cruelty of this world! My soldiers push forward! My soldiers scream out! My soldiers RAAAAAGE!

A Press Release like that might be written before a conflict to increase the motivation and morale of soldiers, or it could be written in any way one wishes, depending on their goal. Since one is addressing your people rather than the Crisis Team, the language can be informal. Plus, press releases can prevent crises, especially those related to the public; they can be used for propaganda, making promises, or spreading misinformation. This is a different form of press release that could be submitted:

From: Rollo Declamation Date: 802, August 28th To: Related Authorities
Standing our Ground Time: 10.27 (Frankish Kingdom Cabinet)

All of my life and all of your lives have come to this point. There is nowhere else to be but here. Nowhere else to live or die but here. To be here now is the *only* thing that matters. So, gather yourselves. Gather all of your strength, all of your sweetness into an iron ball. For we will attack again and again until we reach and overcome their king or die in the attempt! We will attack! Attack! Attack! Blow the horns! Beat the drums! And have courage! For there will be no turning back. Only victory! Or death!

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5. Introduction to the Committee

When the Coup of 18–19 Brumaire (1799) brought Napoleon Bonaparte to power, the Second Coalition against France was beginning to break up. A capitulation had been signed in Holland for the withdrawal of the Anglo-Russian expeditionary force. Although the Russo-Austrian forces in Italy had won a series of victories, the course of the campaign in Switzerland had reflected growing differences between Austria and Russia. Despite Russia's subsequent abandonment of the common cause and France's recovery of control over Holland and Switzerland, the British government paid no serious attention to Bonaparte's proposals for peace in December 1799. On the one

hand the regime in France had yet to prove itself and on the other it was expected that the Austrians would make further gains.

6. *French Revolution*

6.1. Causes of the French Revolution

The Age of Enlightenment, also known as the Age of Reason, is a significant intellectual movement that emerged from the mid-seventeenth century and has reached its peak during the French Revolution. Its foundations can be traced back to the Scientific Revolution of the sixteenth century, which challenged traditional beliefs and the authority of the church with empirical and rational inquiry, especially with the invention of the printing press and the rapidly increasing number of multi-lingual schools and foundations primarily focusing on translations of these newly printed worldwide pieces of literature. Enlightenment thinkers advocated for ideas such as liberty, equality, and individual rights, shaping modern concepts of democracy, capitalism, and human rights. This era prompted significant social and political changes, inspiring independence movements as seen in France, as well as the Americas, shaking up and questioning the preexisting monarchical regimes popular in Europe.

The Age of Enlightenment influenced the views of French society, who woke up to a hierarchical system called the Estates that misrepresented them in the upcoming Estates-General (Etats-Generaux) and reflected on the taxing all over the country. The French hierarchy consisted of the untouchable King of France Louis XVI whose power was granted by God himself. Below him was the First Estate that contained the members of the Catholic Church or the clergymen. The Catholic Church nearly operated by itself when it came to taxing, in the name of God, surely. The Second Estate included the members of the aristocracy, also known as the nobility. These two estates made up about 130,000 citizens,while the Third Estate, which were commoners, made up approximately 98% of the population with 27 million citizens. The taxing was only done towards the Third Estate, which were villagers who had little to no income by themselves. In bad harvest years, the taxing would increase and while the clergymen and nobility lived lavish lifestyles using the money gathered from the poor, the Third Estate would die of starvation and miserable living conditions.In addition to these financial pressures, the French government instituted a series of harsh taxes that further undermined the lower classes. The government also enforced a labor tax. Under this statute, French citizens were required to either pay an annual tax or work two weeks out of the year for free to build or repair public roads for the French crown. As only the wealthy or middle classes could afford to pay these taxes, the poorer classes bore the physical brunt of this free labor. The calling of the Estates-General by King Louis XVI in 1788 marked a pivotal moment in the lead-up to the French Revolution. Faced with a severe financial crisis due to mounting debts from involvement in the American War of Independence and an inequitable tax system, Louis XVI recognized the need for reform. The last meeting of the Estates-General had occurred in 1614, and by the late 1780s, France was

economically strained, with the government on the brink of bankruptcy. The assembly consisted of three estates: the clergy, the nobility, and the common people, with the latter bearing the brunt of taxation. In correlation with the population percentage, the representatives of the Third Estate were the largest in number, and despite that fact they still got one vote during the voting process, same as the much lesser numbered First and Second Estates This led to the motions proposed by the Third Estate being mostly objected to by the higher estates with a two-to-one ratio.

Following the inequality persisting in the Estates-General and no true steps being taken to solve the starvation of the commoners, the Third Estate gathered in a separate legislative body called the National Assembly. The members met in the nearby royal tennis court, where they took the Tennis Court Oath on June 20, 1789, vowing that they would remain united until they had succeeded in the drafting and implementation of a new constitution for the country. While the king initially resisted the formation of the assembly and many feared that he would put an end to it altogether, he soon yielded to popular pressure and legalized the body on June 27 of that year. One action of the National Assembly shortly after its formation was the issuance of the August Decrees. These decrees essentially nullified many of the landlord-tenant obligations of rural peasants toward the owners of the land on which they lived and worked. The decrees were issued in an attempt to settle the widespread fears that were dubbed the great fear, in which workers in the countryside had begun attacking wealthy estates. Other actions include the creation of the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen, that echoed many of the sentiments expressed in the US Declaration of Independence. A collection of radical political groups opposed to the monarchy arose throughout France at the end of the eighteenth century. These organizations were popularly called clubs after Anglo-American groups that used similar methods of organization. The Jacobin Club became one of the most vocal and radical of these groups.
The Jacobin Club was founded in 1789. It was initially composed of a group of anti-royalty representatives to the Estates-General of 1789 from the province of Brittany. The Estates-General consisted of clergy, nobility, and commoners who were members of the French National Assembly. The Jacobins eventually moved to Paris, where they borrowed the name Jacobin after the converted Dominican (or Jacobin) convent in which they met. Initially, the group was comparatively small, with a restricted membership that consisted only of deputies to the Estates-General. After a shift in membership rules to allow anyone, the Jacobins quickly became one of the most popular revolutionary groups after the start of the revolution. The group may have had as many as half a million members and nine hundred chapters nationwide during its height of power. These Jacobins initially met with the goal of discussing the transfer of power from the monarchy and drafting resolutions to affect change.

During the early part of July, Parisians began to fear that King Louis XVI was planning to use mercenary troops to carry out a military coup d'état. The people of Paris became alarmed when they learned that the king was moving Swiss and German mercenary soldiers, whose loyalty was thought to be more dependable than French troops, from the provinces to positions around Versailles and the capital. Ostensibly, Louis XVI claimed that he wanted only to protect the National Assembly against possible disruption and prevent a recurrence of

the April Révellion Riots, which local authorities had been unable to quell. To most Parisians and members of the National Assembly, however, Louis's action posed a clear threat to the revolutionary movement in general and the National Assembly in particular.

Louis's determination to confront the Assembly became clear on July 11 when he suddenly dismissed Jacques Necker, the popular and self-righteous minister of finance who personified reform in the public mind. Necker's association with reform had been making him progressively more unpopular at court. The news of Necker's dismissal reached Paris on July 12 and caused crowds of people calling for Necker's reinstatement to take to the streets.

The Paris uprising lasted from July 12 through July 14. This uprising differed from others that had gone before it because of its clear sense of direction. Mainly, its participants were determined to acquire weapons with which to defend themselves, rumors that Louis's Swiss and German mercenaries were massacring civilians flew. The French guard, a military body that traditionally supplemented the police, confronted the mercenaries and forced them to withdraw.

In the face of mounting disorder, the more conservative, bourgeois elements in the city realized that steps had to be taken to preserve order. Consequently the electoral assemblies of the sixty districts of Paris, which had remained active after fulfilling their appointed task of choosing representatives of the Third Estate of Paris to the Estates-General, took charge of the city and elected a central committee. This body then went to the City Hall, where it fused with the old city council to form a new government in Paris. As chairman of the central committee, the assemblies chose Jacques de Flesselles, the head of the old municipal council. In one of its first moves, the new committee created a National Guard, which together with the French guard was supposed to combat royal oppression and keep order within the capital.

This became the spark that led to the ticking time bomb that was the Revolution.

6.2. The Process of the French Revolution

Crowds continued to roam the streets in search of arms. Some people sought arms to protect themselves from the king's mercenaries, who, it was feared, would perpetrate a massacre of patriots. Others wanted arms simply to protect themselves against the lawless elements unleashed by the uprising. The search for arms met with success on the morning of July 14 when a huge crowd of some eighty thousand people stormed the Invalides armory and took the thirty thousand muskets that had been stored there. Gunpowder was lacking. It had been moved from the Arsenal to the Bastille several days earlier. The Bastille was an old fortress-prison in the center of Paris that had been built in the 1300's to guard the city's eastern gates, but which had been used for a prison since the seventeenth century. It had largely fallen into disuse, however, and in 1789 housed only seven prisoners, five criminals and two madmen.

Although the Bastille was all but impregnable if properly defended, the crowd decided to march on it on the afternoon of July 14 to demand gunpowder. The crowd did not march on the Bastille with the intention of releasing the prisoners incarcerated there or even of attacking it. Spokesmen for the crowd and the new committee governing the city simply demanded that the Bastille's military governor, Bernard-René de Launay, withdraw his cannon from their menacing position along the citadel's walls and turn over the stores of powder to the people.

De Launay complied with the first demand. During negotiations on the second demand, however, the besiegers managed to push their way from the outer court into the inner court of the fortress, whereupon de Launay panicked and opened fire on them. The fighting raged from about one to three o'clock in the afternoon, with the people suffering most of the losses. At three o'clock, the French guard brought up a cannon. De Launay now reluctantly decided to surrender. Shortly after his capture, he was murdered along with Jacques de Flesselles, whom the people accused of misdirecting them in their search for arms, rumors say their heads were severed and carried around on pikes. The mob then turned its wrath upon the Bastille itself and proceeded to destroy it by burning it. The Paris insurrection for all practical purposes was now over. Royal troops had been driven from the capital. The National Guard eventually succeeded in disarming those rioters who still roamed the streets.

Jean-Paul Marat was born into a Swiss Calvinist family of modest circumstances. Following a home education by his parents, Marat, at the age of sixteen, went to France to study medicine. Settling in London, he obtained a medical degree and established a fairly successful practice. Returning to France in 1777, he served as personal physician to wealthy clients until 1783, after which he worked full-time in scientific research and writing. At the beginning of the revolution in 1789, Marat appeared extremely optimistic about the possibility of constitutional reform, and he explained his ideas for reform in many pamphlets. Until the violent summer of 1789, he remained more of a moderate reformer than a radical revolutionary. Influenced by Montesquieu, he advocated the establishment of a constitutional monarchy, a system of separation of powers, and a declaration of human rights that would include freedom of the press. Recognizing the idea of popular sovereignty, he wanted the Third Estate, which represented the vast majority of the people, to play the dominant role. Emphasizing the need for equality, Marat advocated an end to the special privileges enjoyed by the nobility, such as their traditional tax exemptions and special hunting rights.

On September 12, 1789, Marat began to publish a newspaper, *L'Ami du Peuple*, or Friend of the People. Early in October, Marat began to fear a counterrevolutionary plot by royalists and monarchists, and in response, he called for direct action by the Parisian sansculottes, members of the lower classes who did not wear the knee breeches of the aristocracy. Marat was a leading voice in inciting the insurrection of October 5-6, when a large angry crowd forced the royal family to move from Versailles to Paris. Because of his outspoken advocacy of sedition, the royalist police court ordered his arrest, and he went into hiding for the first of many times. Early in 1790, he sought refuge in England for three months. By then, Marat was not only denouncing royalists but also bitterly attacking moderates such as the Marquis de

Lafayette. The highly violent newspaper is deemed one of the main sources for the bloody history the Revolution ended up writing, alongside the National Assembly praising the violent protests, especially the beheading of Governor de Launay and the storming of the Bastille, giving the commoners finding the audacity to make their next goal the palace.

The Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen came into existence in the summer of 1789, born of an idea of the Constituent Assembly, which was formed by the assembly of the Estates General to draft a new Constitution, and precede it with a declaration of principles.

There were many proposals. The Constituent Assembly tasked five deputies – Démeunier, La Luzerne, Tronchet, Mirabeau et Redon – with examining the various draft declarations, combining them into a single one and presenting it to the Assembly. Article by article, the French declaration was voted on between 20 and 26 August 1789.

In its preamble and its 17 articles, it sets out the “natural and inalienable” rights, which are freedom, ownership, security, resistance to oppression; it recognizes equality before the law and the justice system, and affirms the principle of separation of powers.

Ratified on 5 October by Louis XVI under pressure from the Assembly and the people who had rushed to Versailles, it served as a preamble to the first Constitution of the French Revolution in 1791. While the text was subsequently flouted by many revolutionaries, and followed by two other declarations of the rights of man in 1793 and 1795, the text of 26 August 1789 was the one to survive, and inspired similar texts in several European and Latin American countries throughout the 19th century.

The basic principle of the Declaration was that all “men are born and remain free and equal in rights, which were specified as the rights of liberty, private property, the inviolability of the person, and resistance to oppression. All citizens were equal before the law and were to have the right to participate in legislation directly or indirectly; no one was to be arrested without a judicial order. Freedom of religion and freedom of speech were safeguarded within the bounds of public “order” and “law.” The document reflects the interests of the elites who wrote it: property was given the status of an inviolable right, which could be taken by the state only if an indemnity were given; offices and positions were opened to all citizens.

Though the Declaration would have a large-scale effect all over the world, at the time it was published, a big percentage of the common folk did not know how to read or write, and their main priority was eradicating the financial crisis the regime had put them in. Bread was scarce and very expensive, and to the 7000 women who were about to march on the Palace of Versailles, the King had not a single idea of the conditions they were living in. The Palace of Versailles is located 20 kilometers away from central Paris, and these women believed they had to destroy the physical and social barrier between them and the king and address him directly.

Acquiring sympathetic women from the Parisian streets on the way, their numbers swelled to around 10,000 people. It was at this point that they split into two groups. The larger, armed group would head to Versailles through Northern Paris. The smaller, unarmed group would follow the same route taken by the men's unsuccessful march on the 30th of August. King Louis XVI and the National Guardsmen made little attempt to stop the march. Women were seen as non-confrontational and nonviolent. They had dismissed the idea of the protest as a threat. Also, weeks before, new garrisons from the National Guardsmen had arrived in anticipation of protestors from Paris. The King believed he was safe.

When the women arrived, they dropped their weapons and immediately flooded into the National Assembly. They demanded that the men there would ensure bread was provided to Paris. Some beat priests from the Estate. The less violent women persuaded the Assembly to let them see the King. However, after little progress was made, Versailles Palace was stormed. A few fanatics ran through Marie Antionette's apartment frantically demanding her head. Yet, Marie Antoinette had escaped to her husband's room where she, King Louis XVI and their children were eventually found and escorted out of the palace. The royal family aimed to flee to the Austrian Netherlands, as Marie Antoinette was Austrian, but were caught during the Flight to Varennes, and were taken back to Paris. And now the king's lack of support for the revolution was clear to all. The public mostly saw him as a vile traitor, abandoning his people. As a result, with the Constitution of 1791 his powers were reduced to merely a constitutional monarch, a figurehead standing as the continuation of the French monarchical regime. However some radical groups, such as the aforementioned Jacobins, believed the king should be eradicated fully and were outraged at the fact that he still hasn't been removed entirely. On the 17th of July, 1791 the radicals took it to the Champ de Mars to protest, and were faced with the National Guards who blew them off using artillery, and ended up killing 30-50

civilians, with the revolutionaries being dispersed by the revolutionaries. This division created two sides: the moderates wishing to keep the king as a figurehead and the radicals wanting him to be removed. The radicals gained more support in the wake of the massacre.

The story of the guillotine begins not with cruelty, but with an ideal. In 1789, a physician named Dr. Joseph-Ignace Guillotin proposed a device that would end the centuries of unequal punishment between rich and poor. When historians ask who invented the guillotine, the answer lies not in one man, but in a generation determined to reform justice. The guillotine invention was rooted in Enlightenment values, rationality, equality, and scientific progress. Before its introduction, executions in France varied by class: nobles were beheaded by sword, while commoners faced hanging or the wheel. Guillotin's proposal sought to standardize death, making it swift, mechanical, and, at least in theory, humane.

The origin of the guillotine reflects this moral contradiction: a humanitarian reform turned into a tool of terror. As the guillotine history unfolded, it became the physical embodiment of revolutionary justice, a paradox where equality met annihilation.

The Guillotine made its debut in 1791, and was dubbed the 'National Razor'. With this method of execution, radical thinkers like Marat brought forth the idea that everyone who had previously benefitted of the unequal Estates system should get punished by being sent to the guillotine. Many aristocrats, family members of nobility members, and many other of stable income fled to neighboring countries (émigré), therefore catching the attention of neighboring monarchies.

The Legislative Assembly replaced the National Assembly, which had completed most of the work for which it was convened.
By September 1791, the deputies of the National Assembly had drafted a constitution they believed reflected the aims of the revolution. Feudalism, noble titles and the *Ancien Régime's* other institutional inequalities had been abolished. The idealistic Declaration of the Rights of Man and Citizen had been adopted as a preamble to the new constitution. Royal absolutism was dead and the king stripped of most of his executive powers.

In late September 1791, Louis XVI gave his assent to the new constitution, pledging to "maintain it at home, defend it abroad and cause its execution by all the means at my disposal". Its mission complete, the National Constituent Assembly voted for its own dissolution and handed government to the Legislative Assembly.

After the Fall of the Bastille on July 14, 1789, King Louis XVI and Queen Marie-Antoinette of France were compelled to accept a liberal constitution limiting royal power and vesting the real authority in the hands of the elected Legislative Assembly. On the surface at least, the royal family complied. In actuality, the monarchs were in contact with an espionage network that included the queen's brother, Emperor Leopold II of Austria and the Holy Roman Empire, the king of Prussia, and various German princelings. The royal family made an unsuccessful attempt to flee to the German border by leaving Paris by coach in the middle of the night. With their apprehension at the village of Varennes in July of 1791, the plot unraveled and the extent of the foreign-inspired spy network was revealed.

Indignation at the role played by foreign rulers in attempting to undermine the revolutionary government and the desire of the Girondin Party in the assembly to curry popular favor through a speedy, victorious war contributed to the French government's eventual voting to declare war on Austria and Prussia on April 20, 1792. Those two nations, which had formed an alliance in February in order to take advantage of the situation in France, had begun moving troops toward the French borders.

French troops marched into the Austrian Netherlands, but the untrained French levies were soon pushed out by the experienced imperial forces. France itself was invaded, and the important city of Lille was placed under siege. The Comte de Rochambeau resigned command and was replaced by the marquis de Lafayette. On July 11, 1792, the situation worsened for France as Spain and Sardinia entered the conflict on the side of Austria and Prussia. The alliance of powers against France was termed the First Coalition.

On August 10, 1792, King Louis XVI was driven from the Tuileries Palace by an enraged mob. After he took refuge with the assembly, he was placed under arrest and deposed—and a republic was established. The French commander, the marquis de Lafayette, was relieved of command and surrendered to the Austrians. A vote was held to suspend the monarchy entirely within the ever growing power of Robespierre and the Jacobin Club, and in what is called the Second Revolution, the motion passed.

Louis XVI was removed from his political position and title, becoming a regular citizen, and was imprisoned.

The National Convention was elected to provide a new constitution for the country after the overthrow of the monarchy. The Convention numbered 749 deputies, including businessmen, tradesmen, and many professional men. Among its early acts were the formal abolition of the monarchy and the establishment of the republic, which happened on the 21st and 22nd of September, 1792 respectively. Following the declaration of the French republic, modern ideologies like democracy, equality, liberty started to spread among commoners, alongside the

birth of the Cult of Reason. As the Church was a target to the new liberty focused government, the Church members and First Estate priests who refused to take an oath to revolution were deported or punished. The new government attempted to abolish Catholicism, which had become a symbol of oppression and institutionalized superstition, and replace it with a form of state-mandated civic religion focused on the beliefs of Reason, Liberty, and the Republic. Reason was semi-personified as a being to be celebrated. Cathedrals were reconsecrated to Reason, and elaborate ceremonies were created to refocus attention away from religious ideas and toward the advancement and perfection of the human race.

The massacres were an expression of the collective mentality in Paris in the days after the overthrow of the monarchy. The people believed that political prisoners were planning to rise up in their jails to join a counterrevolutionary plot.

The actual killing began on September 2, when a group of prisoners being transferred to Abbaye prison was attacked by an armed band. In the next four days the massacres spread to the other prisons of the city, and the civil authorities were powerless to stop them. In all, about 1,200 prisoners were killed, most after a summary trial by a hastily constituted “popular tribunal.” Of these, more than 220 were priests held for refusing to accept the Revolutionary church reorganization. The September Massacres made a profound impression abroad, where they were publicized as proof of the horrors of revolution. The responsibility for the massacres became a political issue in party struggles in the ruling National Convention, where the moderate Girondins blamed their more radical enemies, especially Jean-Paul Marat, Georges Danton, and Maximilien de Robespierre.

In December 1792, the National Convention put the deposed Louis XVI on trial for 33 charges of betrayal, sabotage or failure of leadership. After weeks of testimony and deliberation, all 693 of the Convention’s deputies found him guilty. Subsequent votes condemned him to execution without the right of appeal. On January 21st 1793, the former king was carted to the guillotine and decapitated. The trial and execution of Louis XVI caused a sensation across France and around the world. Kings had been assassinated, overthrown and toppled by military defeat – but for a reigning monarch to be tried and executed in public by his own people was almost unparalleled.

Now, the shift goes towards Charlotte Corday, a commoner Girondin from the border city of Caen. The Girondins were moderate republicans who supported a constitutional monarchy. Their implacable enemies were the Montagnards—the radical left faction consisting mainly of the Cordeliers, led by Marat and Georges Danton—and the Jacobins, led by Robespierre. Marat especially detested the Girondins, seeing them as royalist appeasers and counterrevolutionaries, all deserving the guillotine.

By 1792, Corday was an avowed Girondin. When the sans-culottes (commoner radicals in control of Paris) and Montagnards succeeded in overthrowing the Girondins on June 2, 1793, she decided to act. She blamed all that had gone wrong during the revolution on Marat's exhortations to violence. On July 9, she took the mail coach from Caen to Paris and got a room at the Hôtel de Providence, where she wrote her manifesto *Adresse aux Français amis des lois et de la paix* (address to the French people, friends of law and peace), explaining what she was about to do and why. On July 13, after buying a knife at a kiosk in the Palais-Royal, Corday gained admission to Marat's home, promising to betray Girondins from Caen. Since Caen was known as a hotbed of Girondist sentiment, Marat was eager for this information. He suffered from seborrheic dermatitis, a painful skin condition that drove him to spend most of his time in the bathtub. She found him there and stabbed him once in the heart. Marat's death cries brought help. She was instantly arrested without resistance.

The trial and execution of Marie Antoinette, formerly the queen of France, was among the opening events of the Reign of Terror during the French Revolution. Accused of a series of crimes that included conspiring with foreign powers against the security of France, Marie Antoinette was found guilty of high treason and executed on 16 October 1793. After the trial and execution of Louis XVI in January 1793, she remained imprisoned along with her sister-in-law, Madame Elizabeth, and her children: the fourteen-year-old princess Marie-Thérèse, and the eight-year-old Louis-Charles, who was recognized by royalists as Louis XVII, rightful king of France. This event is taken as the starting point of the Reign of Terror.

Led by the Committee of Public Safety, under Maximilien de Robespierre, the government sought to eliminate perceived threats to the revolution, resulting in an estimated 17,000 official executions, with thousands more imprisoned and many dying in custody. The

guillotine became a symbol of this violent phase, illustrating the extreme measures taken to enforce loyalty to revolutionary ideals. Robespierre and his followers had decided that bloodshed was unavoidable, and that there were no other means to effectively achieve the goals of the revolt. They took this philosophy a step further and determined that anyone who did not actively support the rebels was, by his silence, supporting the king and deserving death. Thus began the reign of terror as Robespierre took to the streets of Paris to search for members of the clergy and nobles and their supposed supporters. King Louis the XVI and his wife, Marie Antoinette, were convicted of treason and executed by the guillotine, a device in which a weighted blade is dropped on the victim's neck, causing immediate death by beheading. Many times there was a wicker basket on the other side of the device in which to catch the head. The Committee of Public Safety, with Robespierre as its chief, terrified the nobles, priests, and common man, as all were game to be accused of not possessing enough fervor in support of the revolt. The reign of terror came to an abrupt end ten months after its inception with the trial and execution of Robespierre himself, after the French public had had enough of his excessive condemnations that led to the executions of his closest friends and political cronies. On July 28, 1794, Maximilien de Robespierre was guillotined. An effect of the rabid violence was that the general public became aware that its own safety was in jeopardy, no matter which side of the revolution one was on. For the remainder of the war, the prime concern of the people was the protection of their physical well-being, even when it came into conflict with following the newly minted constitution and its democratic principles. The people's fear of anarchy led to authoritarian actions that seemed at odds with people's right to fair trial. In repressing looting, riots, and even public gatherings, excessive military force was used due to paranoia of another round of terror. This fear did not abate until the end of the revolution and the rise of the dictatorship and relative safety under Napoleon Bonaparte.

The Directory was unpopular, despite military successes, and faced economic crises and social unrest. It was ultimately toppled in the Coup de 18 Brumaire.

Established in response to the chaotic and bloody Reign of Terror, the Directory sought to restore stability to France by resurrecting the initial revolutionary principles of 1789. This did

little to please anyone besides the dominant bourgeois class; the leftwing Jacobins and conservative royalists both attempted to seize control of the government and engaged in a sort of political tug-o-war with the Directory in the middle. While it was fighting to survive attempted coups, the Directory also had to deal with France's economic troubles that stemmed from mountainous national debt and the depreciating value of the Revolution's paper currency, the assignat. Meanwhile, French military victories in the Revolutionary Wars lasting ten years from 1792 to 1802, put more influence and power into the hands of generals like Lazare Hoche and Napoleon Bonaparte who began interfering in national politics. Bonaparte eventually garnered enough popularity to be the face of the coup d'état that brought down the Directory and ended the Revolution itself in November 1799.

The 15-month period that followed, the Thermidorian Reaction, saw a pivot away from Jacobin radicalism and back towards stable, more conservative policies that favored the bourgeois class. The Thermidorians sought a return to the revolutionary ideals of 1789 and began to dismantle radical Jacobin laws; the Jacobins themselves were being persecuted in the First White Terror, and the Jacobin Club itself was shut down for good in November 1794. The Thermidorians promised that justice, not terror, would be the order of the day, and ended the persecution of the Catholic Church and of the aristocracy, both of which had been rampant under Jacobin rule. Yet none of their policies put food in the stomachs of starving French citizens, who were dying in droves during the bitter winter of 1794-95 due to the lack of affordable food and fuel. The Thermidorians attempted to solve the problem by issuing fresh batches of *assignats*, but this only served to further increase inflation. The steady stream of émigrés returning to the country caused a resurgence in royalism; citizens who favored life under a stable monarchy were no longer afraid to voice their thoughts now that the looming threat of the guillotine had largely subsided. Royalists began a well-funded propaganda campaign that disparaged the Republic and looked back at the old monarchy with rose-tinted glasses. Although the Thermidorians had claimed to have saved France by overthrowing Robespierre, the Republic was clearly unwell. France's economic situation was scarcely better than it had been before the Revolution, and in 1795, social unrest manifested itself in the form of popular insurrections, first from the Jacobin left (Prairial Uprising) and then from the royalist right (revolt of 13 Vendémiaire). Such were symptoms of a dangerous disease, one

that threatened to kill the Republic from within. The remedy, to the minds of the Thermidorians and others in France, was to adopt a new constitution.

The Constitution of Year III (1795), as this new constitution was known, was faintly reminiscent of its two immediate predecessors; it included the seminal Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen as its preamble, albeit in an amended form. Yet, the Thermidorian constitution was less democratic than its Jacobin cousin, limiting the voting pool to male taxpayers over the age of 21; if residing in a town with a population greater than 6,000, eligible voters also had to own or rent land worth between 100 and 200 days' labor. This decreased the number of qualified voters from roughly 6 million to approximately 1 million. To foster stability, the new constitution was intentionally difficult to amend, a process supposed to take no less than nine years to complete. The constitution also replaced the 48 districts of Paris, notorious as breeding grounds for insurrection, with 12 arrondissements.

In result, the Directory ended up becoming certainly inefficient, unable to handle the strengthening inflation and failing to uphold political power. Soon enough, a highly popular and beloved general Napoleon Bonaparte, would return from his Egypt campaign and stage a coup with Sieyes and his brother Lucien Bonaparte, abolishing any power the directory had. The Napoleonic Wars would soon ensue, ending the Revolution and starting a new era.

6.3 Effects of the French Revolution in the 19th Century

In August 1795, France's National Assembly drafted and approved a governing document. This constitution established a representative government, complete with a two-chamber (bicameral) legislature. Thus, they laid the foundations of effective government, but the infighting hardly slowed down. For four years, this fledgling government tried to manage corruption, the sluggish economy, and social unrest. Royalists and radicals alike continued trying to seize power.

Taking advantage of this multi-layered turmoil, General Napoleon Bonaparte made his move. The army he led overthrew the National Assembly. Once the dust settled, he declared the Revolution complete, and proclaimed himself the head of state.

The execution of Marie Antoinette marked the permanent turn away from absolute monarchy. Nobody said anything about the empire, though. Napoleon declared himself the French emperor in 1804, a mere five years after seizing power. He spent no time resting on his laurels. Over the next 15 years, he consolidated his power in France, while waging war across Europe. Wherever he and his troops scored a victory, he implemented the same civil changes that were taking place in France.

The French Revolution continued to provide instruction for every political change within France and influenced every other such change throughout Europe for years. Everybody saw its awful consequences and was struck by the idea the Revolution had revealed of the consequences of, and the potential for new, social orders such as it had proposed and partially followed through. Monarchs, conscious of the danger that their own subjects might increasingly strive to imitate the French if granted too many freedoms or resent them if allowed too few, appeared to have cast a blanket on the entire memory of the Revolution. If Louis XVIII or Charles X had not been able to, Napoleon III, Comte de Chambord and Thiers felt that they could tidy the event away to be forgotten. The repression on the memory of the Revolution and its consequences would become greater and more solid during the Third Republic and the Vichy regime. This would actually increase the impact and influence of the French Revolution outside France. In the Eastern and Central European countries, its perceived egalitarian heritage and the pressures of the people who, outside France, intended to follow its example in social order and in nationalism came to grips, influenced, 'misled' and fueled all sorts of unfortunate and tragic circumstances until the end of the century. Carefully kept and unseen sparks were still going to be kept alive.

In every revolution, followed by a radical change in the interests and values of the ruling class, there have been numerous achievements in material and spiritual life. The French bourgeois revolution that overthrew the power of the king and the feudal lords was fundamental, completely changing the relationship between people in France and had a

profound impact on other countries in Europe as well as around the world. Under the influence of the French Revolution, governments in other countries realized the meaning of the change, opening the era of constitutional monarchy and implementing bourgeois reformist reforms. Later on, democratic principles were developed further through the revolution of the working class, and obviously, democracy became a common value of the globe. The French Revolution was a political revolution in France, and directly affected the balance of power in the world. However, thanks to the idea of liberalism that spread deeply among the French people, the French Revolution contributed to the transformation of the whole continent, which made the society of the Old Regime. The French Revolution contributed significantly to the development of democratic principles. The basic values of the Revolution are best expressed in the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of Citizen. Equality, freedom, and human dignity are increasingly proclaimed. The idea that the government exists for the interests of the people and the responsibility to the people is increasingly gaining ground. The most impressive evidence of the spirit of liberty and fraternity can be found in the sight paintings of liberation, liberty. The topics brought up with the revolution shook regional multi-national monarchies, forcing them to come together for the resolution of the 'liberty wildfire'.

7. The Trajectory of the Napoleonic Wars

While Trafalgar marked the conclusion of France's maritime goals, the War of the Third Coalition would prove to be a significant triumph for Napoleon. In some respects, Napoleon's campaign against Austria can be seen as a defensive action compelled by the establishment of the anti-French coalition. The emperor had considered the possibility for a long time, and as early as 1803, he had devised a strategy for marching on Vienna via the Danube valley. Once it was evident that Villeneuve had not succeeded in obtaining control of the Channel, Napoleon began moving his entire army to the Rhine border as the initial stage in its advance to the Danube

The Austrians were not inactive. The beginning of the 1805 campaign was accelerated by Vienna's aim to supply its own forces while leaving a desolate land for Napoleon by obtaining the resources of Bavaria. There was also an expectation that the Bavarians, with their force of 25,000 troops, would ally with the others. In that hope,

they faced disappointment, and the Bavarians led by Karl Philipp, prince von Wrede, managed to escape to Würzburg. In the latter, however, they succeeded, and the poverty they created nearly undermined Napoleon's goals. The march of Austrian commander Karl Mack to Ulm was thus essential given the circumstances. His persistence in this vulnerable stance, though questionable against an opponent like Napoleon, was ultimately the result of Mack's determination that even in defeat, he would deliver significant damage to the French forces. Mack was aware that the Russians would be delayed in reaching a scheduled meeting point close to Passau, where the Inn and the Danube meet. By establishing a fortified camp at Ulm and gathering all the accessible supplies inside it, he anticipated that Napoleon would encircle and lay siege to him. He expected that in the ravaged nation his opponent would have to divide and consequently become an easy target for the 100,000 Russian army that had vowed to support him. For that strike, Mack had decided to use his own army as the anvil, but this scheme would not succeed.

Napoleon's initial commands instructed the French troops in Hanover to march to Würzburg, Auguste-Frédéric-Louis Viesse de Marmont's corps in Holland to advance to Mainz, and the Grande Armée to move to lower Alsace. Upon discovering that Mack was in the Black Forest, Napoleon directed his army to the left, commenced crossing the Rhine on September 25, and moved through Württemberg and Franconia in formations aimed at Mack's rear. Mack, still in Ulm, realized his peril only after it was too late. On October 7, 1805, Napoleon's troops started to cross the Danube near Donauwörth, located 50 miles (80 km) downstream from Ulm. Unsure of the Austrians' recent locations, Napoleon expanded his line along the Lech River, sending one corps toward Munich to manage the Russians if they showed up. In spite of adverse weather, a lack of supplies, and some of Napoleon's subordinates being awkward during Mack's encirclement, the Battle of Ulm resulted in a remarkable French triumph. Approximately 8,000 Austrians led by Franz von Werneck capitulated near Heidenheim on October 19, and the majority of Mack's forces were captured at or shortly after his surrender at Ulm, which was finalized on October 20. The pursuit of the fleeing Austrians was so intense that only one division could join the Russians led by Mikhail Kutuzov, who arrived at the meeting point at the Inn in mid-October with less than 40,000 troops and began to retreat as Napoleon approached. Leaving Michel Ney to escort Archduke John from Tirol, Napoleon arrived in Vienna on November 13. Archduke Charles, who was fighting against Marshal André Masséna in Italy, was summoned back to Austria but arrived too late to protect Vienna and retreated into Hungary.

Napoleon's situation quickly became insecure. He required a quick victory in order to avoid being overrun. A second Russian army had arrived with Kutuzov and the Austrians at Olmütz resulting in a total of 90,000 troops. Meanwhile the French right flank was threatened by the advance of the Austrian Archduke Charles leading 80,000

soldiers. Achieving success was crucial to prevent Prussia's intervention;
Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte's soldiers from Hanover had breached Prussian neutrality thanks to their marching through Ansbach that raised fears Prussia might react by joining the allies. Napoleon stopped his prolonged advance at Brünn. His 100,000 troops were spread over a span of 90 miles to monitor the enemy forces as he awaited the opportunity to unite against either Kutuzov or Charles for a significant confrontation. Embracing Kutuzov's misguided push in late November, Napoleon prompted him to engage in battle by retreating a short distance to take a position 7 miles (11 km) southeast of Brünn, where he efficiently and secretly assembled up to 73,000 troops behind the Goldbach (now Říčka) River. His strategy was skillful, as he deliberately left his right flank weak to entice the Russian troops to attack his nearly unprotected supply and communication route to Vienna.

24 October 1806 when the Prussian capital Berlin was taken by French forces in the aftermath of the Battle of Jena–Auerstedt. Berlin fell 15 days after the beginning of the war. Napoleon entered the city after three days, from which he issued his Berlin Decree implementing his Continental System. Large-scale plundering of Berlin took place.

Then the Battle of Eylau, the Battle of Friedland and the Treaty of Tilsit forced Prussia to give up significant lands and allow French troops in its key forts and towns. Prussia was turned into a client state of France, compelled to pay reparations, while Berlin stayed under occupation until early 1813. A fortification was also set up at the adjacent Spandau Citadel.

After Napoleon's withdrawal from Moscow (1812) Prussian troops allied with the French turned and backed Russia

This, combined with major uprisings across Prussian territory, forced French troops to retreat and abandon Berlin. The city then became a major target for the French who attempted to recapture it during the German campaign of 1813, ending only with the complete French withdrawal following the Battle of Leipzig.

Although Berlin had previously briefly been raided two times (in 1757 and 1760) during the Seven Years' War, its occupation was a major blow to the Prussian leadership. It destroyed the reputation the Prussian Army had gained during the days of Frederick the Great.

In the wake of the fall of Berlin, a major reform movement was launched to restore the fighting effectiveness of the Prussian Army and renew the nation at large in order to plan a war of revenge against France.The reformed Prussian forces playing a key role in the subsequent French retreat from Germany in 1813–14, and during Napoleon's final defeat during the Waterloo campaign in 1815.

7.1. Egypt Campaign

The aim of this effort was to undermine British trade routes, boost the French influence while establishing a scientific and administrative foothold in Egypt. Napoleon looked to cut the British' s connection to its colonies and in the big picture he had the intention of challenging British dominance in the region. Napoleon’s fleet that departed from Toulon was made up of around 36,000 troops and it reached Alexandria late June. He was victorious over the ruling Mamluks at the Battle of the Pyramids quickly. He seized control of Cairo and established a French administration. However the campaign was soon compromised by the annihilation of the French fleet at Aboukir Bay. That cut off French reinforcements and supplies. The French control faced resistance, particularly the Cairo uprising (1798), which ended with significant casualties. Napoleon wanted to strengthen French accomplishments and he advanced to Ottoman Syria to prevent an Ottoman counteroffensive. Nonetheless his attempts ended in defeat at the Siege of Acre (1799) in which the Anglo-Ottoman forces were supported by the Royal Navy so they effectively resisted French assaults.

Napoleon recognized the political chances and the strategies in France so he left Egypt in August 1799 and returned to France where he seized political control. The French military continued to resist however following his assassination, Jacques-François Menou assumed control and struggled to uphold his authority.

The British-Ottoman forces ultimately defeated the French and they surrendered in 1801.The campaign resulted in considerable military, political, and intellectual impacts. Napoleon's presence in Egypt brought European-style administration, yet it also strengthened opposition among local communities. The scientific mission that accompanied the invasion resulted in the Description de l'Égypte, a groundbreaking text that established the basis for contemporary Egyptology. The finding of the Rosetta Stone enabled the understanding of Egyptian hieroglyphs. The campaign also played a role in the emergence of Muhammad Ali of Egypt, who subsequently founded modern Egypt.

7.2. Battle of Austerlitz (Battle of the Three Emperors)

The allied assault commenced with the initial three columns advancing from their encampments behind the Pratzen plateau around Telnitz and Sokolnitz. The Austrian troops clashed at dawn while the French in Telnitz mounted a well defense. Both sides were strengthened and Legrand succeeded in his task of absorbing the full force of the assault. The competition was long and contested, yet the Russians slowly pushed back Legrand and part of Davout's corps. Multiple assaults were carried out by both infantry and cavalry and with the continual arrival of reinforcements, each side alternately gained renewed momentum. Ultimately in the morning the allies had taken control of the villages along the Goldbach from Sokolnitz going south. Davout's battle line had re-established itself over a mile behind its original location; nonetheless, it continued to engage with the French center on the Goldbach at Kobelnitz. The combat persisted between these two lines nearly until the battle's end. Davout faced over 40,000 enemy soldiers with 12,500 troops under his command.

In the middle, disarray among the allied forces had postponed the fourth column (Kolowrat), whose route was intersected by Liechtenstein's cavalry advancing the other way. The aim of this column was Kobelnitz, along with the two emperors—Francis I of Austria and Alexander I of Russia—and Kutuzov who accompanied it. The delay, nonetheless, had created a void between Kolowrat and the third column to his left. Napoleon directed Louis Saint-Hilaire's division of Soult's corps to advance towards this gap and the bare Pratzen plateau for the critical assault.Kutuzov was moving southwest when he was taken aback by the rapid approach of Soult's troops on the plateau. Napoleon possessed twice the strength of the allies here; however, Kutuzov demonstrated significant vigor, repositioned his troops to the right, and summoned his reserves.

The French secured the plateau only after a fierce struggle. Saint-Hilaire's division, positioned at the right center, was vigorously confronted by Kolowrat's column, while Gen. Mikhail Miloradovich countered the left center assault led by Dominique Vandamme. Nonetheless, the French commanders were among the most skilled combat generals in their military. The last units of the Russian second column, still not engaged in battle at the Goldbach, launched an audacious counterattack on Saint-Hilaire's right flank but were driven back. Soult then shifted to ease the strain on Davout by assaulting Sokolnitz. The Russians in Sokolnitz capitulated, a timely cavalry assault unsettled the morale of the allied left, and the Pratzen Heights were now completely under French control. Even the Russian Guard couldn't disrupt Vandamme's grip. Meanwhile, Lannes and Murat had been involved in defending the Santon. In this instance, the allied leaders showed considerable energy, yet they could not repel the French. The cavalry charges in this sector were some of the most renowned of the Napoleonic period, and François-Étienne Kellermann, the Marengo hero, stood out against the cavalry under Liechtenstein's command. The French not only maintained their position but gradually progressed and ultimately pushed the allies back at Austerlitz, thus obstructing their retreat toward Olmütz.The final

significant effort by the allies in the center resulted in some of the fiercest combat of the day; the Russian Imperial Guard, commanded by Grand Duke Constantine, pushed hard against Saint-Hilaire and Vandamme on the plateau and only retreated when the French Guard and Grenadiers intervened. Once the Russian Chevalier Guards were defeated by Marshal Jean-Baptiste Bessières and the Guard cavalry, the allies lost all hope of winning. Orders had already been dispatched to Friedrich Wilhelm von Buxhoeveden, who was in command of the three columns fighting against Davout, to fall back to Austerlitz. No additional effort was undertaken on the plateau, which was controlled by the French from Pratzen to the Olmütz route. The allied forces were divided in half, and the chaotic battle of the three Russian columns on the Goldbach was solely for survival.

The combat in Telnitz was likely the most challenging of the entire battle, but the unavoidable withdrawal, with every section now exposed to the French fire on the plateau, proved to be extremely costly. Soult now blocked the route to Austerlitz, and the allies headed southward toward Satschan. While they withdrew, the French artillery shattered the ice of the Satschan pond, causing numerous fugitives to drown.

7.3. Battle of Friedland

It was eight days after launching his summer campaign. Napoleon's troops were near Eylau and had some units dispatched towards Königsberg and Friedland in order to monitor Bennigsen's actions. Napoleon had previously instructed Marshal Jean Lannes to seize Friedland the following day, and in that evening he learned that Bennigsen had started to cross to the left bank of the Alle River at that location. Ordered to secure Königsberg with his troops yet fearing entrapment by the sea, Bennigsen took a risky step by stopping at Friedland.The Russians pushed French cavalry outposts from Friedland towards the west, and Bennigsen’s main forces started to take over the town during the night.

Lannes’s corps was the initial segment of Napoleon’s army involved in the Sortlack Wood and in front of Posthenen (around 3:00 am on June 14), and it is probable that Bennigsen aimed to eliminate it before Napoleon could bring together the majority of his troops.Both sides now used their cavalry to make the battle lines clear and the struggle between the squadrons over Heinrichsdorf ended up positively. At the same time Lannes was vigorously trying to prevent Bennigsen from moving, while Napoleon feared the Russians aimed to evade him again. Bennigsen, instead of trying to move toward Königsberg or cross the Alle once more, opted to hold his position against the marshal’s 12,000 soldiers.

By 6:00 am, Bennigsen had nearly 30,000 troops positioned across the river and was gathering to the west of Friedland. His infantry, deployed in two lines alongside artillery, extended between the route from Heinrichsdorf to Friedland and the higher bends of the Alle. To the right side of the Russian infantry, cavalry and Cossacks broadened the line toward the woods to the northeast of Heinrichsdorf, with small groups of Cossacks advancing as far as Schwonau.The left wing included some cavalry, and, across the Alle, artillery was deployed to support it. An intense and wavering gunfight persisted in the Sortlack Wood between Russian skirmishers and a portion of Lannes's forces.

The leader of Édouard Mortier's French and Polish troops arrived at Heinrichsdorf, and the Cossacks were expelled from Schwonau. Outnumbered by over two to one, Lannes persisted in resisting the Russian assaults, commanded by Prince P.I. Bagration, as Napoleon focused his troops. By midday, when Napoleon got there, 40,000 French soldiers were present at the site of the battle. His commands were succinct: Michel Ney's corps was to occupy the line between Posthenen and the Sortlack Wood, with Lannes advancing on his left to establish the center; Mortier at Heinrichsdorf would make up the left flank. Claude Victor-Perrin and the Imperial Guard were positioned in reserve behind Posthenen. Cavalry forces were gathered at Heinrichsdorf. The primary assault was intended to target the Russian left, which Napoleon immediately recognized as constricted in the tight strip of land between the river and the Posthenen millstream. Three divisions of cavalry were incorporated into the overall reserve. The developments of earlier maneuvers had resulted in both armies maintaining substantial units stationed near Königsberg. The emperor spent the afternoon organizing the newly arrived troops, with the deployment shielded by an artillery barrage.
By late afternoon everything was prepared, and at 5:00 pm Napoleon initiated his primary assault, utilizing approximately 65,000 troops. Ney, after a strong artillery bombardment, swiftly took the Sortlack Wood and advanced toward the Alle. One of Ney's divisions (Jean Marchand) pushed a section of the Russian left into the river at Sortlack. An intense cavalry assault on Marchand's left was thwarted by the dragoon division of Victor Latour-Maubourg. Before long, the Russians were clustered in the curves of the Alle, becoming an easy target for Ney's guns and those of the reserve. Ney's assault ultimately dwindled in strength, and Bennigsen's reserve cavalry launched a powerful charge that pushed him back chaotically.

Similar to Eylau, nightfall appeared to prevent a conclusive victory, yet in June, on solid terrain, the traditional agility of the French once again proved its worth. The infantry division under Pierre Dupont moved swiftly from Posthenen, while the cavalry divisions pushed the Russian squadrons back into the crowded infantry formations along the riverbank, and ultimately, artillery general Alexandre Sénarmont positioned a cluster of cannons within case-shot range. The impact of canister and grapeshot on the clustered infantry was catastrophic, and the Russian defense crumbled within moments. Ney's weary soldiers managed to chase the shattered battalions of Bennigsen's left into the lanes of Friedland. Lannes and Mortier had consistently maintained the Russian center and right on its territory, and their artillery caused significant casualties. As Friedland was observed to be ablaze, the

two marshals initiated their infantry assault. New French soldiers neared the combat zone. Dupont attacked the left side of the Russian center and put up a strong resistance however the French pushed the line gradually and the fight was quickly done with.

7.4. Battle of Aspern-Essling

Given that the French army would require rest in Vienna, Charles opted to advance there to unite with Hiller at the Marchfeld. Upon his arrival, he commanded an army of 115,000 soldiers. Napoleon could gather merely 82,000 soldiers. The 8th and 9th Corps, totaling 38,000, returned to the River Traun. They were watching Johann Kollowrath's 25,000 Austrian soldiers who were fortified on the northern shore of the Danube close to Linz. Concurrently, they were protecting Napoleon's messages to France and his present base of operations. They were also managing the problems caused by regional uprisings which had turned into a constant source of worry. Davout (who had earlier moved his corps to the southern bank of the Danube through Straubing and Enns) was conducting similar maneuvers with 35,000 soldiers near St. Polten along the River Traisen (around 40 miles west of Vienna). At the same time Lefebvre's 7th Corps made up of 22,000 soldiers was observing the movements of Archduke John's forces (particularly the 8,000 soldiers based in Innsbruck and an additional 7,000 under Jellacic located in the higher areas of the River Enns near Salzburg). Moreover, the leftover 30,000 Austrians from Archduke John's divisions were tasked with monitoring the 57,000 French troops of Eugene's Army of Italy in Carinthia and Carniola.

Francis insisted that Charles launch a rapid offensive due to their numerical advantage, but Charles was reluctant to engage in a significant assault across the Danube. Charles argued that remaining on the left bank of the river would enable the army to maintain its mobility. Napoleon aimed for an immediate clash and understood that a resolution was required quickly. He was concerned about the potential chaos behind him, the progress of John's forces, and the likelihood of Prussian intervention altering Russia's position. Furthermore, he held a negative view of the Austrians and believed that the primary army was retreating into Moravia. He believed it was unable to present a significant challenge on the northern bank of the Danube

The French aimed to cross the Danube. A preliminary effort to cross the Schwarze Lackenau was thwarted, resulting in approximately 700 French casualties. Lobau, one of the many islands that split the river into smaller channels, was chosen as the next crossing location. Meticulous arrangements were undertaken, and during the night of 19–20 May, the French crossed all the channels on the right bank to Lobau and seized control of the island. By the

evening of the 20th, numerous men had gathered there, and the final section of the Danube, situated between Lobau and the left bank, had been spanned with a bridge. Masséna's troops quickly moved to the left bank and removed the Austrian sentries. Unfazed by reports of intense assaults from Tyrol and Bohemia on his rear, Napoleon transported every available soldier to the bridges, and by dawn on the 21st, 25,000 troops in three infantry and two cavalry divisions had assembled in the Marchfeld, the expansive plain on the left bank that was also destined to be the site of the Battle of Wagram.
Charles accepted the passage without objection. He planned to launch an attack as soon as a sufficient force had crossed, aiming to do so before the remaining French army could provide support. Napoleon acknowledged the danger of such an assault, yet he simultaneously aimed to reduce it by gathering all available battalions to the location. His troops on the Marchfeld were positioned in front of the bridges looking north, with their left side in the village of Aspern (Gross-Aspern) and their right in Essling. Both locations are situated near the Danube and could not be evaded; Aspern, in fact, is directly on the edge of one of the river's channels. The French needed to bridge the spaces between the villages and also advance to allow the supporting units to assemble.

7.5. Battle of Moscow (Borodino)

The Russian troops stopped their retreat at Borodino and rapidly built defenses to interrupt the French movement towards Moscow. Napoleon worried that evading the Russians could fail and enable their escape, leading him to launch a direct frontal assault. Between 6 am and noon, intense combat varied along the 3 mile line. French artillery started to affect the scenario by noon. Yet the ongoing French assaults were not enough to breach the Russian defenses. Distant from the concealed battlefield and likely uncertain about the situation, Napoleon opted not to use the 20,000-strong Imperial Guard along with another 10,000 nearly fresh soldiers.Kutuzov stopped Napoleon from securing an important victory by uniting all his forces. As the afternoon progressed, fatigue set in for both sides which led the battle to

shift more into artillery bombardments that went on and on until night time. Kutuzov fell back overnight. A week from that Napoleon marched into Moscow unopposed. The Russians had around 45,000 losses, which comprised Prince Pyotr Ivanovich Bagration, commander of the 2nd Russian army.

The French experienced a decrease of around 30,000 troops Even after suffering considerable losses, the Russian military continued to fight and eventually forced Napoleon to retreat from Russia.

7.6. Battle of Leipzig

The Battle of Leipzig was a significant loss for Napoleon which led to the collapse of the influence the French had in Germany and Poland. The conflict happened in Leipzig - Saxony and involved around 185,000 French and allied troops led by Napoleon. They were against around a huge number of 320,000 allied forces. These allied forces comprised Austrian, Prussian, Russian, and Swedish contingents. Napoleon (after his withdrawal from Russia in 1812) launched an attack on Germany in 1813. His forces couldn't take Berlin, and they had to retreat west of the Elbe River. The allied armies raided Napoleon's supply routes through Leipzig and Napoleon had to gather his troops in the same city. It was October 16 when he effectively repelled the assaults of Schwarzenberg's 78,000 troops from the south and Blücher's 54,000 forces from the north, yet he was unable to conquer either force decisively. The number of troops around him grew during the pause on the 17th when Bennigsen and Bernadotte showed up.

The allied assault on the 18th, involving over 300,000 troops, focused on the Leipzig perimeter. Following nine hours of attacks, the French were driven back into the outskirts of the city. At 2 am on October 19, Napoleon initiated the withdrawal to the west via the sole bridge over the Elster River. Everything proceeded smoothly until a terrified corporal detonated the bridge at 1 pm, while it remained full of retreating French soldiers and posed no threat of an allied assault. The demolition resulted in 30,000 French troops in the rear guard and wounded being trapped in Leipzig, to be captured the following day. The French had 38,000 both killed and wounded. The Allied had around 55.000 personnel killed and wounded. This conflict was a sign of the conclusion of the French Empire east of the Rhine.

7.7. Six Days' Campaign

The Six Days' Campaign (10–15 February 1814) was a last sequence of triumphs for the troops of Napoleon I of France as the Sixth Coalition encircled Paris. As noted by his rival, the Austrian general Johann von Nostitz-Rieneck, this campaign showcased Napoleon's tactical brilliance "to the highest degree."

As the Napoleonic army readied to attack Blücher's Russo-Prussian Army of Silesia, the headquarters of the latter misjudged the danger. The Army of Silesia was extended while advancing towards Paris. The Russian corps commander Osten-Sacken had already established contact with Napoleon’s forward units on 8 February, yet he failed to inform Blücher. Meanwhile, the chief of staff Gneisenau committed another mistake; he assumed that Napoleon's complete maneuver from Villenauxe to Sézanne was merely a reconnaissance because the leading French cavalrymen, who had appeared, retreated. A Russian officer reached Blücher's headquarters late on the 9th and informed him and the staff that the army faced danger from the south, while on the night of the 10th, intelligence revealed that Napoleon was already at Sézanne. On the morning of the 10th, Napoleon launched an assault on the central corps of the Silesian Army located at Champaubert. Consequently, the Six Days Campaign commenced.Fought from 10 February to 15 February, during this period, Napoleon's rapid offensive caused his opponent to be unable to respond, leading to four defeats of the Army of Silesia as he engaged its components one by one in the Battle of Champaubert, where he crushed the entire corps and penetrated the central part of the enemy forces, the Battle of Montmirail and the Battle of Château-Thierry, where he defeated the forward troops and compelled them to retreat north-east across the Marne, and the Battle of Vauchamps, where he decisively repelled the force under Blücher himself. Except for Champaubert, these battles occurred with Napoleon facing a numerical disadvantage in tactics. Napoleon’s force of 30,000 soldiers, enduring 3,400 casualties, succeeded in causing 17,750 losses to Blücher’s army of 50,000–56,000 men.

The progression of the Army of Bohemia led by Prince Schwarzenberg towards Paris forced Napoleon to discontinue his chase of Blücher's army, which, despite being severely defeated and scattered, quickly received reinforcements. Five days following the loss at Vauchamps, the Army of Silesia resumed its offensive actions.

7.8. Battle of Paris

Leipzig broke Napoleon. Between October 16 and 19, 1813, his forces were crushed by the Coalition and pushed back across the Rhine. His German allies, Bavaria among them, wasted no time switching sides.

By December 1st, he had around 129,000 troops to work with. That sounds like a lot until you see what was coming: Schwarzenberg's Army of Bohemia alone had nearly 157,000 men. Add Blücher's 77,100 in the Army of Silesia, Bülow's 30,000 Prussians, and Wintzingerode's 36,000 Russians, and the gap

becomes obvious. On top of that, roughly 100,000 French soldiers were locked inside German fortresses, essentially useless for defending France.
Three armies moved in. Schwarzenberg crossed the upper Rhine near Basel on December 20, sending 12,000 troops through Switzerland ahead of the main force. Blücher followed on January 1, 1814, crossing at the middle Rhine. Wintzingerode came through the lower Rhine five days later. The French barely pushed back.
Napoleon had few real options. He pulled troops from Soult and Suchet in the southwest, where they were already dealing with British, Portuguese, and Spanish pressure. That left two fronts weaker than they should've been, and a new army that still wasn't ready.

7.9. Battle of Berlin

24 October 1806 when the Prussian capital Berlin was taken by French forces in the aftermath of the Battle of Jena–Auerstedt. Berlin fell 15 days after the beginning of the war. Napoleon entered the city after three days, from which he issued his Berlin Decree implementing his Continental System. Large-scale plundering of Berlin took place.
Then the Battle of Eylau, the Battle of Friedland and the Treaty of Tilsit forced Prussia to give up significant lands and allow French troops in its key forts and towns. Prussia was turned into a client state of France, compelled to pay reparations, while Berlin stayed under occupation until early 1813. A fortification was also set up at the adjacent Spandau Citadel.
After Napoleon's withdrawal from Moscow (1812) Prussian troops allied with the French turned and backed Russia
This, combined with major uprisings across Prussian territory, forced French troops to retreat and abandon Berlin. The city then became a major target for the French who attempted to recapture it during the German campaign of 1813, ending only with the complete French withdrawal following the Battle of Leipzig.
Although Berlin had previously briefly been raided two times (in 1757 and 1760) during the Seven Years' War, its occupation was a major blow to the Prussian leadership. It destroyed the reputation the Prussian Army had gained during the days of Frederick the Great.
In the wake of the fall of Berlin, a major reform movement was launched to restore the fighting effectiveness of the Prussian Army and renew the nation at large in order to plan a war of revenge against France.The reformed Prussian forces playing a key role in the subsequent French retreat from Germany in 1813–14, and during Napoleon's final defeat during the Waterloo campaign in 1815.

8. Warfare methods and doctrines used in the Napoleonic Wars

> Over his career as a general Napoleon fought in sixty battles, of these, he lost seven. This is an extraordinarily impressive number of victories, and his enemies knew it. Napoleon would often win battles in which he was significantly outnumbered, engaging and overwhelming the enemy when other generals would have retreated. Napoleon's main characteristic as a general was his speed, he deployed his troops quicker than his enemies, often attacking his opponent before they had the time to organise into formation. What allowed him to do this was the organisation of his armies.
>
> Generally, European armies at the time were a large mass of troops controlled by a central body. Napoleon, on the other hand, divided his army into Corps, or Corps d'armeé, divisions of 20,000 – 40,000 men commanded individually by his marshals. Each *corps* was essentially a miniature army, possessing its own artillery, infantry, cavalry, communications and administration. The *corps* would usually travel within a day's march of each other, this allowed Napoleon's army to, 'Pivot on its axis without confusion.' Manoeuvring was much easier using the *corps* system, the delegation of power to Napoleon's marshals made the chain of command shorter, improving the effectiveness of communications therefore increasing the speed of deployment and movement.

Napoleon used the *corps* system to his advantage in a number of ways, on the battlefield, the *corps* system was essential to Napoleon's tactics, especially when fighting two armies, as he did on several occasions. Napoleon's most commonly used strategy when fighting two armies was to distract half of his enemy's force, while he destroyed the other, the *corps* system made this much easier, it allowed an entire division of the army to focus on defeating one enemy, rather than worrying about both. The use of *corps* also allowed Napoleon's army to live off the land; if his army was one solid mass the land could not sustain it. However, the lower numbers of the *corps* and their spacing allowed them to forego supply lines, giving them greater mobility.

The corps was composed of all arms of the service, was self-sustaining, and could fight on its own until other corps could join in the battle. The corps itself was a headquarters to which units could be attached. It might have attached two to four divisions of infantry with their organic artillery, it had its own cavalry division and corps artillery, plus support units. With this organization a corps was expected to be able to hold its ground against, or fight off an

enemy army for a least a day, when neighboring corps could come to its aid. "Well handled, it can fight or alternatively avoid action, and maneuver according to circumstances without any harm coming to it, because an opponent cannot force it to accept an engagement but if it chooses to do so it can fight alone for a long time."

Finally the corps commander in Napoleon's army operated on mission type orders. He was expected to operate in a semi-autonomous mode using his "...own best judgment and experience, for the common strategic purpose." The corps commander followed standard procedures while maneuvering his unit. His general line of advance was dictated by the Emperor, but he was allowed full flexibility in choosing his march techniques and battle formations. Once engaged, he was in charge of his fight with the enemy, while the other commanders followed the standard procedure of marching to the sound of the guns unless instructed otherwise.

The *Grande Armée,* composed of the various *corps d'armée*, could make use of several different strategic formations for an advance: echelon, with one wing refused; wedge; and *en potencé,* in which one flank was reinforced. The most striking doctrinal development which the *corps d'armée* allowed Napoleon to make use of, was his concept of advancing the army in a battalion square, the *bataillon carré.* The formation was simple yet offered infinite flexibility. In this formation the separate corps would march along parallel roads within one or two days' march of each other. With an advance guard, a left flank, a right flank, a reserve corps, and an active cavalry screening force, the army provided itself with all round defense and could easily concentrate in any direction depending upon which corps made initial contact with the enemy. The front of an advancing *bataillon carré* might be as much as 120 miles. This system not only provided the French a degree of flexibility in operations not seen before, but was a key to deceiving the enemy as to his true objective. The *bataillon carré* threatened the enemy with an attack from many directions and forced him to try to cover all avenues of approach. It also allowed Napoleon to force his opponents into combat, often before they were ready. It was not necessary to know the exact location of the enemy army because this operational dispersal of forces allowed Napoleon to find, and then fix the enemy with a portion of his army, while the other corps converged on their victim. Opposing commanders found it difficult at best, and usually impossible to maneuver out of the way of the advancing juggernaut.

Any study of history, theory, and doctrine of warfare would not be complete without a study of Napoleon's tactics and campaigns. Superior weapons and tactics attributed very little to Napoleon's tactics. The common tactic during this time in history was the massing of troops. The French Army's main weapons differed little from his enemy. Napoleon's army would begin moving in corps size, widely spread, and along separate routes. Once the enemy's main position was located, his corps would deploy close together, advancing in a diamond shaped formation. Napoleon's main force would pin the enemy down, while the bulk of the French Army swept around to cut his communications and compel him to turn and fight at a disadvantage or to surrender.

On the offensive side, Napoleon's offensive movement was supported by massive support fire. He usually combined simultaneous attacks to his enemies' front with a main blow to his opponent's flank with infantry and cavalry. Using several variants to the main attack, he would launch a flank attack. When the enemy gradually weakened, Napoleon would launch his reserve to deliver the devastating final smash. Infantry attack columns supported by cavalry and horse artillery moved to breach the enemy's front or flank. Engaging with light cavalry, Napoleon's army would turn a disorganized retreat into a decisive rout. Tactics, combined with modem technology, began proving themselves on the battlefield with several decisive victories. History proves that leaders fight the last war with the last war's tactics.

Future military leaders continued to study and retain the innovations ofNapoleon at West Point. Baron Antoine Henri Jomini transferred Napoleon's strategy and tactics to English. Napoleon's teachings became regular academia at the newly founded West Point. Robert E. Lee and George B. McClellan studied these strategies while attending West Point and were avid members of the Napoleonic club. Lee's turning maneuver at the Second Battle ofBull Run and at the Battle of Chancellors ville were classic examples of Napoleon's strategy. All Civil War battles are related back to these Napoleonic tactics.

General George McClellan created a turning maneuver that utilized all fields of modern military disciplines. Experts state that if his plan were followed with earnest, the Civil War would have ended in a few years. The Confederate goals were to attack the rear, reclaim territory, and capture Richmon Clellan's plan demonstrated the American perfection and distinct style ofNapoleonic tactics. Civil War leaders believed tight interior lines would strategically overtake enemy forces. American soldiers drilled in rapid maneuvering by foot with tight interior lines, which always produced battlefield success. Americans were taught to use these tactics with all the resources available. The invention of the railroad allowed for rapid movement of troops and equipment. American commanders morphed the old school tactics with the railroad with great success. Military planners began planning operations with the lines of rail and water carefully protected. The protection of these valuable transportation lines and natural obstacles became fully integrated into modern warfare. Leaders well into the 21st century continue to use this doctrine today.

9. Sieges and the effects of prohibited actions in war

9.1. Siege of El Arish

On February 8, 1799, Reynier's forces arrived at Masoodiah, where French troops apprehended a Mamluk messenger who informed them that El Arish

was in Ottoman hands. Reynier dispatched a messenger to Bonaparte requesting urgent reinforcements and positioned himself on a sand dune close to El Arish. In reply, Ottoman troops advanced into a nearby palm grove and acquired provisions along with twelve cannons. Their cavalry started engaging in skirmishes with French troops. Following thirty minutes of Ottoman artillery bombardment, Reynier dispatched French forces to capture the village of El Arish. The village's Ottoman defenders evacuated and retreated into their fortress, while their cavalry fell back along the path to Gaza, using a narrow pass for concealment. The French captured all twelve cannons. The French suffered 3 fatalities, while the Ottomans reported 450 killed, wounded, and 900 taken prisoner.

On February 12, 1799, Kléber's division arrived at El Arish, and his troops commenced a siege of the Ottoman fort. Reynier's unit took up position in the palm grove close to the pass. On 14 February 1799, Reynier's troops launched an assault on an Ottoman camp, which they managed to seize, incurring 23 losses. In contrast, the Ottomans experienced around 500 fatalities, along with 900 Ottoman prisoners of war taken by the French. 1,000 troops led by Ottoman commander Ibrahim Nizam remained within the fort, and after analyzing seized supplies, Reynier set up a camp from which he initiated the siege on the fort. Simultaneously, the primary contingent of French troops led by Napoleon reached El Arish.

On 17 February 1799, Louis Caffarelli, the French commander, commenced engineering tasks. The French subsequently initiated bombardment on the Ottoman defenses. On 20 February 1799, the French launched their attack and successfully took El Arish from the Ottomans. Following the capture of the fort, the French restored the fortifications that had been harmed during the siege.

The French suffered 200 fatalities and 300 injuries. The Ottomans suffered the loss of 900 soldiers, while an additional 800 were taken prisoner. Approximately 300 of them changed allegiances and enlisted in the French army when the chance arose, while the rest of the captives were relocated to Egyptian cities under French control. Forty soldiers who successfully fled took refuge in Great Britain, aided by British military personnel who supported their cause.

9.2. Storming of Badajoz

The Badajoz Siege was one of the most brutal confrontations of the Napoleonic Wars. There were lots and lots of sieges that had a mark on the conflict in the Iberian Peninsula. Between these conflicts was Badajoz. It was a Spanish stronghold on the southwestern frontier with Portugal and it was most notably remembered for the intensity of combat from both parties and also for the brutality of the British troops after the siege.

The British and Portuguese moved toward the French occupied Badajoz.They did it so that they could ensure and protect their communication routes to Spain.
On March 16, Wellington's troops (the British and Portuguese) surrounded Badajoz. Trenches were dug while siege artillery was placed and moved to shell the main key fortifications defending the city's walls. The French wanted to block the goal of the Anglo-Portuguese endeavors. Yet a major assault on March 19 was firmly defeated. On March 25, the Picurina redoubt was attacked, allowing the British heavy artillery to create breaches in the main fortifications.By April 6, two significant breaches had been formed, along with a smaller, secondary breach created in the citadel walls. That evening, the Light Division and 4th Division charged the two primary gaps with immense resolve; however, despite their strong attempts, the assailants were stopped by the French. Wellington was on the verge of calling off the attack when he heard that the 3rd Division had ascended the citadel and penetrated the city. The French troops withdrew to the San Vincente bastion and capitulated the next day. For the next three days, British soldiers went wild, ignoring Wellington's orders to cease; when peace was reestablished, approximately 200–300 civilians were probably killed or wounded. (Some sources estimate the civilian casualty rate at 4,000, but recent studies indicate that this figure is significantly exaggerated.) A British officer who witnessed the siege remembered, "Men, women, and children were killed in the streets seemingly just for fun; every kind of atrocity was openly perpetrated in homes, churches, and streets, in such a brutal way that a true account would be too obscene and too horrifying for humanity." Wellington, who lamented the massacre yet understood its significance as a cautionary tale for other Spanish cities that resisted his demands to surrender, ultimately subdued his mutinous force by constructing a gallows and threatening execution, though ultimately only a few of his troops were whipped for disobeying his commands.

The British author Bernard Cornwell located his 1982 novel Sharpe's Company during the Siege of Badajoz. In a historical account, he notes the interesting fact that another British officer, Lieutenant Harry Smith, wed a young Spanish woman who endured the siege. He was subsequently knighted for bravery, and "a town was named for her in South Africa that would experience a notable siege: Ladysmith." A century later, Badajoz would face another devastating siege when Nationalist forces besieged the city early in the Spanish Civil War and, upon taking control, killed an estimated 1,800–4,000 civilians.

9.3. Siege of Riga

During Emperor Napoleon's assault on Russia, two corps were sent toward the Baltic Sea via Courland and Lithuania to safeguard his northern side. One of the corps was on the way towards Riga.

By the middle of July 1812 the troops in Riga became around 14,000 soldiers. Fabian Steinheil led the Finnish Army of Russia which brought with it an extra 10,000 troops shortly after the siege began.

Following the onset of the siege, the plight of the French was dire, with Marshal MacDonald's 25,000 soldiers needing to not only maintain the siege but also oversee approximately 80 miles of the Daugava extending to Dünaburg. This was increasingly weakened as the loyalty of the 'allied' Prussian forces became more questionable.
On July 7, the Battle of Iecava occurred, where the troops led by Prussian General Julius von Grawert, nearing Riga, triumphed over the forces of General Friedrich von Löwis of Menar. Governor-General Magnus Gustav von Essen, misjudging his adversary's choices, commanded the preparations for the siege and the incineration of the suburbs, following hesitations and retractions — including those on the right bank. Commandant Ivan Emme reported the partial devastation of the Moscow and St. Petersburg (German: Petersburger Vorstadt) outskirts, and on the night of July 11, police were instructed to initiate the fires. The fire, strong winds, and inadequate management escalated uncontrollably, inflicting greater harm on the locals than anticipated.

On July 19, 67 Russian gunboats ultimately reached Riga, significantly outnumbering those constructed by Thomas Byam Martin. During that period,

the Prussians were positioned near Riga in the southern semicircle along the route Sloka – Olaine – Kekava. Löwis of Menar's troops initiated a counteroffensive westward, and the Russian and British naval vessels backing them, advancing up the Lielupe River, successfully arrived at Sloka and then Kalnciems. The boats advanced towards Jelgava, which came under shelling but withdrew due to the Prussian artillery counterfire. Nevertheless, after several days, the Prussians managed to drive the Russians away from the seized land.

The Russians started deceptive attacks near Sloka and Olaine on the 10th of August, then targeted Kekava forcing the opponent to retreat southward. August 26 - September 7 the Prussians launched a counteroffensive which wa prompting the Russians to get back to their initial positions.
Jacques Macdonald had done some things there despite Napoleon's orders. He moved to Jēkabpils where he allied with Ginenbein's brigade from the French 7th Division and aimed at aiding the capture of Riga. In Pilsrundāle, 130 large siege cannons were stationed. Napoleon at that time encouraged Maconald to avoid rushing because he was expecting peace negotiations that eventually did not take place.
August 9 1812 - Martin, concluding that his presence in Riga was no longer a need, ensured permission to leave. Nonetheless he first commanded the British and Russian fleets in a raid on the Danzig port.
They succeeded in generating enough panic that MacDonald was compelled to dispatch part of his forces from Daugavpils to Danzig to soothe his troops.

On September 10, the 10,000-strong Steinheil Corps reached Riga from Helsinki and received orders to assist the Riga garrison in driving the enemy away from the city's area and eliminating the siege cannons. The power dynamics had shifted for the Russians (22-25 thousand to 17), prompting them to initiate an offensive toward Pilsrundale. However, Steinheil struggled to communicate effectively with Essen, who prioritized the liberation of Jelgava. On September 14 (26), Steinheil defeated a contingent of Prussian forces led by Horne, prompting Yorck von Wartenburg, who was defending Jelgava, to retreat without engaging in battle and align with the Pilsrundale group, apprehensive of a siege. Rosen, after taking the city, also acquired its stockpile of various military supplies, which convinced Essen of the validity of his decisions and permitted him to ceremoniously arrive in the city the following day. Essen commanded Steinheil to dispatch additional regiments (3,000 soldiers) to Jelgava for the protection of the plunder. All these factors hindered and compromised Steinheil, while the Prussians busily readied themselves for the confrontations near Pilsrundale. Belgard's unit dispatched by Steinheil, tasked with advancing through the brass Lielupe and securing the Prussian left

flank at Gravendhall, faced strong opposition; Yorck von Wartenburg leveraged the enthusiasm and exhaustion of Russian troops, launched an offensive, and compelled Steinheil to fall back toward Jelgava following the Battle of Mezotne (Mesoten). Jelgava was also not defended: Essen abandoned it without awaiting Steinheil, and the Prussians took control of the city.

In mid-October, the Russians attempted to launch assaults toward Ķekava and along the Lielupe River, but the Prussians succeeded in maintaining their regained positions.

Russian military shortcomings resulted in structural adjustments. On October 14 (26), Essen was substituted by Filippo Paulucci, and the Steinheil Corps came under the command of Peter Wittgenstein, who was successfully engaged in the Polotsk area at that moment.
The regiments pushing Macdonald from the east toward Riga, in the meantime, were successful. On November 1, Günerbein seized Tome, capturing 9 Russian officers and 130 soldiers. The following day, Masenbach achieved another win in Jaunjelgava. A chilly autumn set in, and in Riga concerns arose that once the Daugava froze, the Prussian troops to the south would face no natural barriers to reaching it, leading to preparations for winter defense. A few gunboats were actually trapped in the ice of the Daugava River. However, on December 8, Prussian troops, under Macdonald's command, started to retreat from Russia, following the lead of the entire Napoleon Grand Army.

10. The fall of Napoleon's Regime

In January 1814 France was being attacked on all its frontiers. The allies cleverly announced that they were fighting not against the French people but against Napoleon alone, since in November 1813 he had rejected the terms offered by the Austrian foreign minister Klemens von Metternich, which would have preserved the natural frontiers of France. The extraordinary strategic feats achieved by the emperor during the first three months of 1814 with the army of young conscripts were not enough; he could neither defeat the allies, with their overwhelming numerical superiority, nor arouse the majority of the French people from their resentful torpor. The Legislative Assembly and the Senate, formerly so docile, were now asking for peace and for civil and political liberties. By the Treaty of Chaumont of March 1814, Austria, Russia, Prussia, and Great Britain bound themselves together for 20 years, undertook not to negotiate separately, and promised to continue the struggle until Napoleon was overthrown. When the allied armies arrived before Paris on March 30, Napoleon had moved east to attack their rear guard. The Parisian authorities, no longer overseen by

the emperor, lost no time in dealing with the allies. As president of the provisional government, Talleyrand proclaimed the deposition of the emperor and, without consulting the French people, began to negotiate with Louis XVIII, the brother of the executed Louis XVI. Napoleon had only reached Fontainebleau when he heard that Paris had capitulated. Persuaded that further resistance was useless, he finally abdicated on April 6. By the Treaty of Fontainebleau, the allies granted him the island of Elba as a sovereign principality, an annual income of two million francs to be provided by France, and a guard of 400 volunteers. Also he retained the title of emperor. After unsuccessfully trying to poison himself, Napoleon spoke his farewell to his "Old Guard," and after a hazardous journey, during which he narrowly escaped assassination, he arrived at Elba on May 4.

Between April 14th, 1814 and March 1st, 1815, Napoleon Bonaparte reigned over the principality of the Island of Elba, specially created for his benefit by the Treaty of Fontainebleau of April 11th, 1814.

During this period, he organized this tiny territory of 224 square kilometers and 13,700 inhabitants as he did the Empire, received relatives and a few other visitors, improved the daily lives of his subjects, but also, and above all, prepared and organized his return to French territory. This stay left its stamp on the island. Napoleon undertook a series of transformations in order to improve local resources and put up a road network. He quickly organized a small court around him and set up a government with Bertrand (both Secretary of State and Home Secretary), Drouot (Military Governor of the island and War Minister), and Cambronne (Commander of Portoferraio). With the arrival of Napoleon's mother and Pauline, society life resumed its course: theatre performances, concerts, balls and receptions were frequently organized.

10.1. Congress of Vienna

The Congress of Vienna (1814–1815) was a diplomatic conference held after the defeat of Napoleon Bonaparte to restructure Europe and establish a lasting peace following the Napoleonic Wars. The main objective was to redraw the map of Europe, restore the balance of power that had been disrupted by Napoleon, and ensure that no single nation could dominate the continent again. It was one of the most significant international gatherings of the 19th century and shaped European politics for decades.

The four main powers—Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia—met to discuss territorial adjustments and the restoration of political order, having agreed to a treaty that called for a congress to secure peace after their victory over Napoleon. During the congress, various disputes emerged, particularly regarding the future of Poland, which highlighted the tensions between the major powers and smaller states. The discussions ultimately led to several key

principles: legitimacy, security, and compensation. This resulted in the restoration of deposed monarchies and the redrawing of borders to prevent future conflicts, including the establishment of a German Confederation under Austrian leadership. The outcomes of the congress were intended to preserve a conservative order in Europe, leading to the formation of the Quadruple Alliance and the Concert of Europe to maintain the settlement. Despite its initial success, the Congress of Vienna's arrangements were later challenged, indicating the complexities of European diplomacy and the ongoing struggle between liberal and nationalist movements.

The Vienna settlement brought about the restoration of a conservative order in Europe. To preserve the arrangement, Austria, Great Britain, Russia, and Prussia signed the Quadruple Alliance later in 1815 to establish the Concert of Europe. They were joined by France in 1818. The Concert of Europe sought to preserve the Vienna settlement for at least twenty years through periodic conferences (several of which were held between 1818 and 1822) to deal with liberal-nationalist challenges to the settlement in Greece, Spain, and the Italian states. In the long run, such tests of the balance of power in Europe brought about the dissolution of the Vienna settlement and the end of the Concert of Europe.

10.2. Napoleon's Coup d'état

> After his oriental dream was thwarted before the gates of Saint-Jean d'Acre in Israel, the news of the catastrophic situation in France in the spring of 1799 convinced Napoleon Bonaparte that it was time to return to metropolitan France. Following the defeat of Jean-Baptiste Jourdan at Stockach and that of Jean Victor Moreau at Cassano, Italy was lost and the French armies in Germany retreated as far as the Rhine. Inside the country, anarchy reigned.

The situation was serious. The road to power, though out of the question after the triumphant Italian campaign, was now a reasonable option. Bonaparte left Egypt aboard the Muiron on August 23, 1799.

When he arrived in Paris on October 16, he found a city brimming with plots against the Directory. The economic situation was catastrophic: the country was ruined, civil servants were no longer being paid, famine was rampant in the capital, and the countryside was once again infested with gangs of thieves. Despite the military successes that had averted the threat of a foreign invasion in the autumn of 1799 (the Battles of Zurich and the capitulation at Alkmaar), the government was discredited. Without a moment's hesitation, Bonaparte began to prepare for the role he would play in the events that many felt were now inevitable. After sounding out the deputies who were likely to support a regime change - Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, Benjamin Constant, Cabanis and Madame de Staël were among those who welcomed his overtures - he became close with Abbé Siéyès in his search for a foil.

Abbé Siéyès, who had recently become the strong man of the regime, was committed to changing its structure. However, this could not be accomplished without a coup d'état. Siéyès was ready to allow this, as long as he was the mastermind. But he needed the support of the army before he could act. His intention was to bring an officer into the plot to assure its success. The ever-ambitious Bonaparte was not the ideal candidate to play second fiddle in the way Siéyès expected of his accomplice. Bonaparte had previously demonstrated his political talents first in Italy and then in Egypt. Unfortunately for Siéyès, his first choice, Joubert, died at Novi and Moreau rejected his proposition. On 8 Brumaire after considerable hesitation, Sieyès finally accepted to receive Bonaparte whose plans were already in motion.

Given the immense prestige he enjoyed in the army, Bonaparte knew that he could count on the support of his soldiers and on that of the majority of generals then present in Paris. He was joined by Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord, who quickly proved his usefulness when he convinced Siéyes to remove Jean-Baptiste Bernadotte - a potential opponent - from the Ministry of War. Within the government itself, Cambacérès, Minister of Justice, was devoted to Bonaparte; Fouché, Minister of Police, also supported him; and the Council of Five Hundred, which housed only a weak opposition - the Jacobin group - had recently elected Napoléon's youngest brother, Lucien, as its President.

During their meeting, Bonaparte and Sieyes agreed on a strategy: convince the Directors to resign, convene the Councils - the Five Hundred and the Ancients - to name in their place a Triumvirate (with Siéyès, Ducos and Bonaparte as its three members) which would govern until the proclamation of a new constitution. It was understood that the principal author of this new constitution would be the Abbé. It was also decided that the Councils should be removed from Paris to shield them from any popular movement. As a Director, Sieyes was given the task of moving the assemblies, which, according to the Constitution, should not provoke suspicion. Lastly, the date of the coup d'état was fixed for 18 Brumaire.

On the 17th, Bonaparte ensured the support of François Joseph Lefebvre, the Military Governor of Paris. He then met with Bernadotte who was one of the few to refuse to take part in the plot, even threatening to oppose it.

On the 18th however, everything went as planned. In the early hours of the morning, the President of the Ancients informed the members of his assembly of a dangerous anarchist plot. In swift succession, motions were passed to move the assemblies to Saint-Cloud and to name Bonaparte in command of the forces in Paris. Ahead of the assembly, Bonaparte departed with a quasi-triumphal retinue emphasizing his desire to save the Republic. By this time, three of the five Directors (Barras, Siéyès and Ducos) had resigned. The two hold-outs (Gohier and Moulin) were arrested and delivered into Moreau's custody.

However, the opponents of the coup, especially the Jacobins, took advantage of the delay caused by the move to Saint-Cloud to regroup. On the 19th, when the sessions resumed, the ponderous parliamentary motions began to threaten the operation with serious delays. While the Ancients were supportive, the Five Hundred called for further details of the supposed plot and proclaimed their devotion to the Constitution. Bonaparte's response was to attempt to

reverse their decision. However, the speech he gave before the Ancients was at best maladroit and at worst incoherent. Next, he went to the Five Hundred in the Orangerie accompanied by his grenadiers. This time, his reception was stormy. The deputies, indignant at the sudden arrival of soldiers in their midst, shouted down Bonaparte with taunts and projectiles. Napoleon's youngest brother Lucien managed to clear out the conflict, partially.

In order to conserve a semblance of legality, the "countryside was scoured" to reassemble the Five Hundred as they had not ventured far and the session was resumed. Meanwhile, the Ancients had remained quietly together. At one o'clock in the morning, a law establishing the basis of the new regime was adopted. This law excluded some 60 deputies (including Jourdan) from further representing the nation and established two commissions of 25 members each to revise the Constitution as well as a Consular Commission of three where the executive power would reside. It was composed of Bonaparte, Sieyes and Roger-Ducos as planned. Though this coup was seen as a technical success, it also underlined the fragility of the system he would soon create, marking the political instability and eventual disintegration of the regime.

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